Chicago, Ill.: "The children won't be ashamed of it..."
Seldom does the building designer have an opportunity such as that which came to George Fred Keck, Chicago architect, with the commission for the Herbert Bruning house in Wilmette, Illinois. For here was not only an interesting problem—with adequate time and money for its solution—but also complete control of it in the architect’s hands from start to finish, plot plan to curtain fabrics.

Basic owner requirements to be met were these: accommodations for a family of five, two guests, two servants, two cars. Convenient and efficient integration of the above accommodations was stressed, as was the necessity for planning the various units according to function—leisure, recreation, sleeping, service. A further requirement was that the finished structure be of such a character “that the children would not be ashamed of it when they reached the age of reason”—i.e., that it be simple, permanent and economically maintained. These, together with a level 100’ x 270’ suburban lot, formed the reference frame within which architect Keck had to work.

Orientation and placement of house were determined by careful consideration of two factors—maximum use of sunlight and minimum installation of utilities. For the former the architect made a series of unusually detailed studies (see facing page) which resulted in the main living areas being placed along the southwest corner. To give these rooms the maximum outlook over their own grounds, the structure was then pushed to the extreme eastern boundary line; and to reduce utility costs, it was placed as near the street front as practicable. All major windows were kept off this facade (above) so that privacy is not impaired. Thus simply was the plot plan determined; and the simple landscape work clearly implements its intention.

A 13-ft. unit or “module” is basic to the plan, stair hall and entrance porch excepted, which sprang from the structural system finally adopted (and detailed on page 37). This plan is made up of several clearly defined three-
The final studies show the care with which Mr. Keck set about trapping sunlight for his clients.

Plot Plan

West (or garden) front

First Floor

Second Floor

 Basement

The final studies show the care with which Mr. Keck set about trapping sunlight for his clients.

dimensional units. *Leisure*—living room, study and dining room with *Recreation*—playroom and bar—directly below it. *Owner sleeping*—master’s, two boy’s and daughter’s bedrooms with bath. *Guest sleeping*—two bedrooms, bath and den. *Service*—laundry and air-conditioning equipment in basement; kitchen, pantry and garages on first floor; two maid rooms and storage on second floor. Every major room in the house has easy access to an outdoor area of one sort or another—roof deck, screened porch, paved terrace or open lawn. These major units are interconnected horizontally by means of minimal corridors; vertical circulation is by stairways fore and aft.


The entire house has zoned air conditioning with summer cooling. Total cost, including all furnishings, equipment and architect’s fees, was $75,000; the structure proper cost $54,000 or between 62 and 63c per cu. ft.
Year-round air conditioning necessitated a careful study of the large glass areas. Summer sun load on equipment was greatly reduced by use of outside chain-type aluminum blinds to protect glass from direct sun. On the other hand, four members reduce heat loss in winter—drawn blinds, storm sash, regular sash and drawn curtains. Housing these blinds, together with storm sash, regular sash and curtains, results in the basic unit detailed above. Only the center panels—whose screens are replaced by storm sash in winter—are hinged; they open in.

Setback condition

Frame: long life, low maintenance and flexibility dictated steel, while a standard 13-ft. column spacing kept members light and spans economical; all steel work is welded. Floors are of lightweight concrete on light steel pans with rubber finish. Ceilings are suspended, both to accommodate duct work and for insulation purposes; in all leisure and recreation areas they are acoustic tile; elsewhere, plaster. Roof construction is similar but with deeper slabs, asphalt and gravel topping, and mineral wool fill. Parapets are omitted, thus simplifying flashing and eliminating snow pockets. Drainage is to interior downspouts, enabling roof to carry a thin sheet of water in hot weather and further reduce load on cooling equipment. Curtain walls, carrying only their own weight, are designed for heavy wind pressure. Outside membrane of reinforced cement stucco, back stuccoed, is carried on steel studs; inside membrane is plaster on metal lath; interstices are filled with mineral wool. Expansion joints are provided at all interior and exterior corners, horizontally and vertically. All flashing is leadcoated copper, crimped for expansion. Interior partitions are non-loadbearing, plaster on metal lath and studs; they may be easily dismantled or altered.
The problem of disposing of metropolitan sewage has given rise to the development of several new building types—plants for treatment and disposal of sewage. (Recently New York dedicated its tremendous new sewage treatment plant on Ward's Island—one of the largest in the country.) The latest type of building evolved as a result of this problem is a laboratory for the study of sewage and sanitation problems. Unique in many respects, this institution represents the cooperation of New York City's Department of Sanitation and New York University, who pooled their resources in the cause of a common interest: the comprehensive furthering of sanitary engineering research. On a plot of land deeded to the city by the University for the specific purpose, the laboratory building was erected as a WPA project. Not only will the laboratory serve as a training place for students and selected municipal employees, but it will also provide for investigations on sewage treatment, new methods of sewage disposal, the effect of industrial and other wastes on sewage treatment, and furnish data for the proper design of new sewage-treatment plants which may be erected by the city.

Since the prime purpose of this edifice is to provide a place for research, most of the building is devoted to laboratories. The sanitation laboratory occupies the first floor and part of the basement in one wing of the L-shaped building. Located here are the large sewage tanks built of reinforced concrete on their own foundations, to allow for their removal. Sewage, taken from a nearby sewer, is sent through piping which is so arranged
that two tests, involving four different tanks, can be operated at the same time. The chemical and bacteriological laboratories, on the second floor, have daylight exposure on all four sides. On the ground floor (not shown) are located offices of the City Sanitation Department Section Station, and quarters for a neighborhood crew of street cleaners.

An interesting detail in the design of this building is that used on the long windows. The frame, of aluminum-painted steel, is set out from the wall, instead of the more usual flush or recessed setting. The building otherwise depends on its mass and simple form for effect. The frame of the building is steel; exterior walls are of buff-faced brick, backed up with hollow tile. Reinforced concrete is used for the floors and floorings, and 5-ply felt with standard slag covers the concrete roof slab.
LATEST addition to the athletic plant of Michigan’s State Normal Col-
lege at Ypsilanti are these new buildings, gift of Mr. Walter O. Briggs
to the College. The new fieldhouse not only provides accommoda-
tions for home and visiting athletes but also a practice room which can
be used as a gymnasium. Although the disposition of elements in
the plan is unsymmetrical, the architects have employed a symmetri-
cal facade, repeating the triple openings of the gatehouse in what is
actually a secondary entrance to the building. Gatehouse and stadium
are also part of the program.
A part of the expansion is the new baseball diamond and the steel and concrete stadium with its cantilevered steel roof.

The gatehouse, connected by a brick wall to the fieldhouse, serves as box office and entrance to the field.

Detail of the practice room entrance, a repetition of the gatehouse with two out of three of its openings blocked.
APARTMENT REDESIGNED TO HOUSE ART COLLECTION

DINING ROOM: end wall features recessed flower panel with linen and silver storage beneath behind sliding ebony doors. Table is ebony and brass, chairs ebony frame with tufted white leather.

The New York apartment for Mr. and Mrs. Norman K. Winston was redesigned expressly as an advantageous setting for the client’s collection of modern art. Stripping a conventional Park Avenue apartment of its burden of paneling, trim and molding, Mr. Goodman has relied largely upon color and lighting to provide a suitable background for the canvases. Few structural changes were necessary: an elaborate mantel in the dining room was removed and its counterpart in the living room reduced to a simple opening; the foyer ceiling was lowered, the bookcases and mirrored door and wall installed. Lemon-yellow walls, white ceilings and gray carpets are used throughout, secondary colors being picked up in curtain and upholstery fabrics. Illumination throughout the apartment is designed for one purpose—adequate, glareless illumination, especially of those wall areas designed for pictures (see plan, right). Particularly interesting is the lighting fixture in the dining room (called by the architect-designer a “wrinkle eliminator”) of painted metal. This fixture illuminates the room indirectly from the trough, while three spotlights spaced along the trough length are focused to throw a brilliant light on the table top only, leaving the diners in indirect light. While the furniture—especially designed by the architect for the Winston apartment—was deliberately kept simple in both line and color, a wide variety of leathers, metals, woods and plastics lends it richness. The layout was largely determined by the clients’ habits—especially their need of a relatively large seating capacity; all principal groupings are arranged on deep-piled hand-woven rugs in off-white.
PERCIVAL GOODMAN, INC.,
Architect

FOYER: dropped muslin ceiling to improve proportion. Walls and rug are white, book shelves in zebra wood, chairs in yellow leather with maple frame. The table (see layout) is of tortoise-shell catalin and brass.

BEDROOM: all woodwork is off-white, color accents coming from the yellow walls and curtains. Night and dressing tables are of mirror and white lacquered wood. Stools are brilliant emerald-green with glass legs. The rug is white, high piled.

LIVING ROOM: (left): lighting fixtures throw direct light on the ceiling, indirect on their adjacent walls. Chairs are of white leather with light maple frame. In front of the couch, upholstered in a medium-gray rough-textured fabric, is a light maple table, with a brass and red lacquer top.
SAN FRANCISCO: NEW APARTMENT EXPLOITS A VIEW

Main Entrance

Typical Floor

ON TELEGRAPH HILL in San Francisco's Bohemian quarter stands this new four-story apartment house all of whose individually planned units overlook the hills of the city and the Bay. Making use of a lot whose grade would have stumped architects of flatter climes, the designers faced the task of meeting a city ordinance governing height of wood-frame structures and state and city requirements for lateral stress—i.e., 'quake resistance. The former was met by making basement, garage and sub-basement of reinforced concrete, the latter by special design of the structural frame. The entire structure has a stucco finish.

Each unit not only has a view, but adequate terrace area from which it can be enjoyed. The somewhat unusual plan of the individual units springs from the fact that each was planned for its tenant. And though this naturally added to the initial cost, the owners feel that a 100% rental long before completion justifies the added cost. Entrance is through a garden (above) which, together with staff quarters and garage entrance, occupies the street side of the first floor.

This front elevation view shows the 40-ft. sgraffito carvings, in two colors, which flank the entrance; garage entrance is at lower left.
Application of the setback principle to the rear elevation provides private terraces for each apartment. The section (above) demonstrates the designer's canny use of the steep lot. The 14-car garage and sub-basement are of reinforced concrete construction; upper floors are wood-framed.

Interiors show elimination of moldings, baseboards and nonessentials. Indirect lighting is used throughout, and different color schemes contribute to the individuality of apartments. Above, left, is a typical living room, and right, a typical dining room.
Architect Proposes Portable, Prefabricated Structures for Mexican Popular Theater

Deep-rooted among the Mexican people is a movement which shows signs of becoming a truly National Theater. Known as the "Carpa Popular", this movement consists of wandering groups of actors and musicians throughout Mexico, who perform not only at the almost continuous fiestas, but also in streets, gardens, parks, in any obtainable shelter. To encourage so valuable a movement, the League of Revolutionary Writers and Artists has tentatively approved this design for a portable, prefabricated theater. Expressly designed for mass production by the young Mexican architect, Carlos Le Duc, the theater can be easily dismantled and set up again, since it is made in units, of wood, with a roof of weatherproof canvas. No foundations are required since all vertical elements are bolted to the outside base of the semicircular bleachers. Although the total weight of one of these theaters is but 20 tons, the design provides semicircular tiers of seats for 700 persons. Its cost also is moderate: estimated price of one of the pocket-sized theaters is $2,250. Because this is a theater of, by and for the people, the audience participates as actively in the performance as the players. Hence the protrusion of the apron, and its development as the actual stage, with the first row of seats close by. There is no acoustical problem, says Mr. Le Duc, because no spectator is ever more than 20 feet from the stage. The problem of entrance and exit is also easily solved: the two front doors are for entrance, the two side ones for exit. There are no ticket booths; a roving hawker sells them on the street, circus-wise.

Because a "Carpa" audience tolerates no obstruction between actor and audience, the orchestra instead of occupying its usual pit is moved to one side (above) where it may be heard but not seen.

Ample exits provide for continuous circulation.
PROPOSED BUILDINGS

An Exhibit Architect Designs an Exhibit Building

This proposed building for a U. S. Government Exhibit at the World’s Fair, designed by Alfred Clauss, TVA’s Exhibit Architect, obtains its exterior appearance from an ingenious use of six intersecting girders, and its flexible plan from the consequent elimination of all internal columns. The large central dome, besides offering “an easily recognizable government characteristic”, is used to house the main theme exhibit. For greater flexibility of plan, columns are eliminated on the exhibit floor by suspending the ceiling from the girders. These girders are covered in polished corrugated sheet copper which reflects the sunlight by day and houses colored tubular lighting for night effects. The exterior of the solid dome is treated with horizontal louvers covered with aluminum that conceal light troughs to illuminate the reflecting surfaces between them. The plain wall surfaces of the building are white; the columns are covered with polished sheet copper; and the entrance roof with aluminum. The covered terraces on the ground floor are designed as a shelter for visitors and connect with the surrounding gardens.

On the ground floor of the central dome Mr. Clauss proposes a “Main Theme” for the general government exhibit. Focal display of this exhibit is a large globe showing the relationship of the U. S. to the world. This globe splits horizontally and three movie screens appear at intervals for a twenty-minute showing of a movie dramatizing the Main Theme, “Government Progress Toward the World of Tomorrow.” An orchestra pit is provided under the globe and a seating capacity for 600 spectators around three sides of it and in the gallery. Around the circular exhibit room are dioramas and displays setting forth the historical story of the U. S. Government. Stairs and escalators carry visitors up to a circular gallery which provides access to twelve exhibit themes showing the varied government activities.
NEW STRUCTURAL SYSTEMS FEATURE TRUSSLESS CONSTRUCTION

Two variations of Unit Structures' arch frames are shown above: left, gymnasium of Henry Mitchell Junior High School, Racine, Wis., with equipment for erection of arches; right, Riverside Dance Hall, Green Bay, Wis.

Laminated Wood Arch Frames Eliminate Waste Space

A series of two-piece, three-hinged arch frames of laminated wood designed for symmetrical loading conditions has been developed by Unit Structures, Inc., of Peshtigo, Wis. Like other systems of this type, Arch-Frames are rigid, but since no horizontal trusses are required, they are especially applicable to buildings such as auditoriums, gymnasiums, exhibition halls, etc., where free space and clear field of vision are necessary. (For other trussless systems, see AR 9/37, p. 34, and 12/37, p. 31.) Elimination of waste overhead space by means of these flat arches materially reduces the cubical contents of the building. These arches and their columns are one frame, so that there is no need for additional construction as in other types of roof design.

The company manufactures sections of "Arch Frames" (and "Segment Arches" as well) in any specified shape to fit the need of a particular building. The sections are fabricated of laminae of selected wood, united under high uniform form pressure, glued with water-resistant casein glue, and forcibly curved into a solid timber of the desired shape. The surfaces are then planed, sanded, and given any desired finish, so that the frames are ready for use on delivery.

Because this type of construction replaces one solid timber the usual large number of scattered members, it is claimed to afford better fire protection. The claim is based on the fact that wood weakens through a gradual reduction in its cross-sectional area only when in direct contact with a continuous open flame, whereas steel weakens under heat and loses its strength at 700° F.

Segmental Arch Solves Low-pitched Roof Problem

Interior of Auditorium

A segmental arch which requires no interior tie rods and is designed so that its thrusts are concentrated at the extreme end walls, provides uninterrupted vision from all points of the auditorium of St. Matthew's School, San Mateo, Calif. Developed by L. H. Nishkian, C. E., this roof design consists of three straight segments, 48'-8" in total over-all breadth, of which the central one is horizontally placed. The sloping side segments rise 7'-8½" in a horizontal run of 16'-4". The full vertical loads of the roof fall on the side walls which are only 10" thick, and have no supporting piers or counteracting buttresses.

This is possible because the outward thrusts normally developed by such flat side slopes are resisted by the inclined segments which act as horizontal beams and transmit these thrusts to the end walls, 8'6" apart. Embedded in the concrete of these end walls, and extending from side wall to side wall, is an amount of steel equal to that in all the tie rods which would ordinarily have been used.

Nailable Concrete Planks Cantilever Over Supports

LATEST ADDITION to the widening field of concrete structural units is the precured concrete plank manufactured by the Concrete Plank Co., Jersey City, N. J. Factory-molded to a smooth, level surface on both sides, non-warpageable "Cantitile" is fabricated of steel and cellular Portland cement concrete. (Trade name derives from the fact that the planks cantilever over the supports and produce a continuous action.) The weld, galvanized-steel wire mesh, which reinforces the plank both top and bottom acts as a steel beam, so that "Cantitile" can be laid regardless of spacing. Tongue and groove on all edges make locked joints and are grouted with Portland cement after laying, binding the plank into a monolithic unit. This product can be nailed to wood, or clipped to steel, is cuttable and has no exposed metal. Planks are made in 16" standard width, stock lengths, and two thicknesses: 2" plank, weighing 12 lb. per sq. ft., in lengths of 6', 7'-6" or 9'; 2¾" plank, weighing 17 lb. per sq. ft. in lengths of 9' or 10'. Breaking point for former was 330 lb. per sq. ft. tested as a simple beam on 6-ft. span; for the latter, 240 lb. per sq. ft. on 8-ft. span.

ARCHITECTURAL RECORD
Sprayable Lacquer Lends Rubber Metallic Finish

A bronze lacquer for rubber, developed by Maas & Waldstein Co., Newark, N. J., gives a metallic finish which harmonizes with whatever metals are used in conjunction with the rubber. This special rubber lacquer makes it possible to cover semi-stiff rubber with a strongly adherent, durable finish resembling brass, copper, bronze, aluminum, steel or other metals. It consists of a special bronzing liquid to which metal powder of any kind is added just prior to use. The mixture is applied by spraying, and air-dries rapidly.

Sealing Factor Upped in Doors and Windows

Doors and windows—almost inevitably the weakest points in any project involving atmospheric control—have seen some improvement recently. Produced by the Farley and Loetscher Manufacturing Co., Dubuque, Iowa, are two types of flash doors whose continuous core construction materially reduces transmission of heat or cold and sound. The inner core construction of “Airo-Kore” is a series of small ventilated air cells built up in grid or “egg crate” form to eliminate warping and twisting caused by torsional strains and stresses. Kiln-dried white pine strips interlocked on edge make up the grid. This type of construction permits the circulation of air inside the door as well as outside and provides a definite sound-proofing quality. “Farlo-Kore” doors are made of kiln-dried white pine core blocks, cemented together with staggered joints so that a practically solid wood slab results. This slab is edged with hardwood strips before any veneer is applied.

[Novel feature of these doors is that they are finished, not with a natural wood veneer but a full-color photographic reproduction of various woods. This veneer—in cement in place with synthetic resin under intense heat and pressure—may be varnished like wood.]

Heat loss through windows and the load on air-conditioning systems can be materially reduced by means of Truscon’s new Tempryte Insulating window. Modern prototype of the storm sash, Tempryte is an inside casement of internally reinforced steel frame, fitted with a special weathering seal which is attached to the inside of Truscon operator-type casements. Between casement and Tempryte window there is a 1” dead-air space. Installation of the Tempryte window is said to eliminate condensation on windows under ordinary conditions. Controlled ventilation is made possible by glass ventilating panels or sills vents, which are included at additional cost. The windows are removable and can be stored in a vertical position without damage to the weathering seal.

Unbreakable

Made entirely of clear sheets of “Herculite”, these doors at 40 Wall Street, New York, have neither frame nor view-obstructing support. This new product of Pittsburgh Glass Co. will support five times as much weight as ordinary plate glass, and integrates into buff-colored fragments when tested to its limit.

Engineers Use Sponge Rubber for Expansion Joint

Sponge rubber as an expansion joint filler recently made its first appearance on the new express highway in St. Louis, Mo. This material, prepared in the B. F. Goodrich Laboratories, was chosen for appearance as well as durability. The sponge rubber was furnished in a color to match that of the finished concrete, so that all joints are smooth and unobtrusive. Engineers of the Missouri State Highway Department based their specifications for the various thicknesses of rubber on the cubic content of the individual sections of concrete. These thicknesses (.5” to 1”) are designed to allow for 50% compression as the concrete sections expand in hot weather. Before the wing retaining wall was poured, the sponge rubber expansion joints were wired to the bridge pier. After the next section was poured, the joint was permanently in place.

Caulking Compound Provides Elastic Seal

Recently introduced by Tamms Silica Co., of 288 N. La Salle St., Chicago, III., is a new double-duty caulking compound. Made of rubber, linseed oil and asbestos, it sets rapidly and can be painted like wood within 24 hours. Because of its rubber content the compound expands and contracts, while the linseed oil produces a fine protecting film which is moisture-repellent. It provides an elastic seal and, claims the manufacturer, does not crack.

Thin Film Protects Glossy Finishes

For protection during fabrication, shipment or installation of highly finished surfaces, “Protex”, a new product of Haydn F. White & Co., 1740 E. 12 St., Cleveland, Ohio, provides temporary coating. It can be applied by spraying, brushing or dipping, and can be removed quickly by peeling. “Protex” forms a thin but tough elastic film which can be either covered with paper or dusted to eliminate tackiness.

Architect-Designed

Completely architect-designed for the first time, Curtis Company’s new woodwork is now in large-scale production from designs of Dwight James Baum, New York architect. Doors, mantels—even complete stairs—are available in adaptations of a variety of styles; above is typical result of Baum-Curtis collaboration.
Experiments Yield Data on Radiant Heat

Present knowledge of air conditioning sprang almost fully grown from the characteristic American emphasis on mechanical means; it is only recently that the more fundamental physiological element has been explored. To increase the necessary knowledge on this important phase of air conditioning, Drs. C. A. Mills and Cordelia Ogle of the University of Cincinnati have just completed experiments on the control of body-heat loss through radiant means. Their findings indicate that profound changes in both structure and design of air-conditioning equipment may be necessary to meet human needs and to provide healthful working and living conditions. In determining the feasibility of using radiant heat for control of body-heat loss, four experimental rooms were set up within larger laboratory rooms and equipped to cover the desired conditions. Exhaust fans and inlets supplied adequate ventilation, and recirculating units in the various rooms conditioned the air.

The effect of these different environments on human subjects was varied. In Room 1 subjects showed distinct discomfort, with free perspiration and a smothering sensation, while in Room 2, with identical air conditions, the absorption of heat radiation by the cold plates created an atmosphere without oppression or smothering, in which adequate body cooling took place. In Room 3, with no heaters operating and the air at 32°F, body chilling was severe. But soon after the heaters were turned on, the subjects experienced great comfort although the air was still below 40°F. However, after the heaters had been operating for several days and weeks, subjects in this room were uncomfortable, warn in a half-hour’s time, no matter how lightly clothed. Room 4 provided a cool but comfortable environment for subjects wearing usual winter indoor clothing.

Test biologic effect on mice

Not satisfied with experiments on humans only, the investigators proceeded to test the biologic effects on mice of these various controlled atmospheres. In each room were placed 10 male and 20 female white mice. Fastest growth and earliest sexual development occurred in the group in Room 2. Moist heat in Room 1 accounted for growth retardation. In Room 3 there was also growth retardation, although temperatures were moderate and relative humidity low. From this is illustrated the contention that the level of metabolic or internal combustion, and all other vital functions attached thereto, is determined by the case of difficulty of body-heat loss. For instance, in Room 1, body-heat loss was difficult as both the air and all materials assumed a uniform temperature; but in Room 2, where the cold plates took up the heat lost by radiation, air and foil were at the same temperature as Room 1, and all other materials were at lower temperature levels.

Schedule: construction and equipment for Mills-Ogle Experiments

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Room 1</th>
<th>Room 2</th>
<th>Room 3</th>
<th>Room 4</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Moist Heat</td>
<td>Moist Heat Radiant Cooling</td>
<td>Cold Air Radiant Heating</td>
<td>Air Cooled</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size</td>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>Inside walls and ceiling of rigid insulation board.</td>
<td>Same as Room 1, but lined with aluminum foil.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Equipment</td>
<td>Recirculating unit.</td>
<td>6 cold plates, 20&quot; x 42&quot;, on opposite side walls, connected to a condensing unit outside. Plates kept at temperature of 32°-40°F.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Temperature Relative Humidity</td>
<td>69°-92°F. 60-70%</td>
<td>69°-92°F. 60-70%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Scientists Find Alumina is Moisture-Adsorbent

Removal of moisture content from the air by the application of "adsorbent dehumidification" has now passed the experimental stage, says R. B. Derr of The Aluminum Corporation of America's research laboratories. The process is based on moisture adsorption by activated alumina, an oxide of aluminum which occurs naturally as corundum and is prepared artificially as a white tasteless amorphous powder. Alumina is capable of adsorbing substantially 100% of the moisture from a gas passed through it, and can take up from 12 to 14% of its weight in water.

In the light of the present concern over water shortage, this development will be of particular benefit in the industrial use of air conditioning, for the adsorbed water is removed from the alumina by heating, and, when cooled, can be used over again.
Air-Conditioning "Package" Designed for Residential Use

For year-round residential air conditioning, Westinghouse has just announced a compact package oil- or gas-fired unit in a number of capacities suitable for small as well as large homes. The new unit employs a central system of matched units comprising a direct-fired forced warm-air furnace, with filters, blower and humidifier for winter conditioning, and a condensing unit and cooling coil for summer conditioning. The latter may, however, be added after the winter system has been installed. Gas-fired furnaces are available in capacities of from 60,000 to 100,000 Btu with matched equipment for summer conditioning. Oil-fired furnaces come in capacities of from 50,000 to 100,000 Btu. Concentrating on the market for new homes from $5,000 up, Westinghouse plans to sell these units as installed packages for the average house at the cost of a medium-priced automobile.

Air Curtains Shields Workers from Wintry Drafts

Of interest to designers of industrial buildings is a draft-prevention device recently installed in the Olds Motor Works at Lansing, Mich. In this particular building—as in most assembly plants—the problem of maintaining an even and comfortable temperature near doorways was acute, because of the necessity for continuous opening and closing of doors. At the Olds Works the problem was solved by using an "air curtain", which is actually a new use for the unit heater. A warm-air current, created by a fan installed over the opening, is forced down through a duct system, just the width of the opening. Baffles direct the air to the desired angle—straight down in this case—so that it acts as a door seal. The warm air shuts off most of the cold outside air, and mixes with any that may penetrate. Installation and operating costs are approximately the same as for any unit heater, according to J. J. Carter, Manager of Manufacture at Olds. For installing the fan, heating coils, motor and hood, the cost was $600; for operating, the cost is 22¢ per hour, including both steam for the heating coils and electricity for the fan.

Cold Is Byproduct of Heat in New Equipment

Fuel will be made to do double duty in the new "Stator Duplex" unit for supplying home refrigeration and hot water simultaneously. Comstock & Westcott Laboratories, Cambridge, Mass., developers of the Technicolor motion picture process, perfected the unit. Stator Corp., Plainfield, Conn., will make it. Utilizing either electricity or gas, the device produces refrigeration as a byproduct of hot water heating. Sponsors are considering addition of air conditioning as a further byproduct.

Synthetic Resins to Purify Water

Indicated for the near future is a new industry—that of water purification by means of synthetic resins. The process by which this will be accomplished was discovered by Drs. Adams and Holmes of the National Physical Laboratory, Teddington, England. Basing their experiments on the known facts that permuty sometimes extracts salts and other constituents from water, and that synthetic resins of the bakelite type are darkened by strong alkalis, the scientists found that by passing water through powdered resins the salts of various metals, dissolved gases and micro-organisms are removed. Water said to be as pure as the best distilled water is obtained by passage through two powdered resins: the first converts a neutral into an acid water; the second neutralizes the acid water by removing sulphates, chlorides and other salts.

New Gates

When old "Newgate" at Chester, England, [right], grew too small for modern traffic, city fathers cautiously pierced the wall and built this new gate [left] in pseudo-Gothic style.

Survey Acquires Rock Wool of Moisture Charge

To combat a current rumor that rock wool was the cause of widespread structural and pigment failure (because of its alleged tendency to absorb moisture) Johns-Manville recently conducted a comprehensive investigation of that product in 90 houses where rock wool has been in use for from one to ten years. From the data collected, the Johns-Manville survey concludes: (1) that rock wool in the walls or attic of a house does not invite condensation and will not take up moisture from the air; and (2) that where rock wool had become wet (through improper installation, which caused absorption of moisture from wet plaster, or through roof or outside wall leaks) it had dried out without subsequent effect on its insulating efficiency, and without damage to wood framework.

No damage found

Of the 90 homes studied, all in the Great Lakes and Atlantic Seaboard area, where average winter conditions are particularly severe, 29 had air conditioning which, because it increases the humidity, is an acid test for insulation performance. Samples of wool were taken at the sill line and next to the studs in all the houses surveyed, subjected to an immediate physical inspection and then sent in airtight containers to the laboratory for moisture and other analysis. Every sample was found to be in perfect condition. Stud and plate surfaces were scraped for moisture, mold or fungus growth. The voluminous Johns-Manville report, documented by statements from representatives of architects and engineering firms who acted as impartial observers in the survey, concludes that mineral wool does not promote dry rot or fungus growth.
NEW INFORMATION FOR THE BUILDING FIELD

1938 Sweet's Catalog File
Features Five Units

Of F. W. Dodge Corporation's several information services for the building field, Sweet's Catalog Service is second only to Dodge Reports in number of clients served. Last month Sweet's started nation-wide distribution via Western Union of its new five-unit, 50-pound file of building product catalogs for 1938. World's largest collection of pre-filed catalogs, Sweet's this year reached 5,423 pages of indexed, classified, and pre-filed information for the building designer. About 800,000 pounds of paper, some 20 carloads, were required for printing this year's files. Over 1,100 manufacturers filed catalogs or catalog information therein. Reflecting a constantly increasing demand, the number of sets to be distributed to users this year will climb from 13,000 to 14,500.

Originally a one-volume file

Growth of Sweet's from the original 700-page volume of 32 years ago to its present size is no accident. Founded in 1906 by Architectural Record, Sweet's was the logical outgrowth of the chaos in the field of industrial cataloging. Said Thomas Nolan, at that time assistant professor of architecture at the University of Pennsylvania, in his Introduction to that first volume: "Let the matter be looked at entirely from the point of view of the architect. For a period of a dozen years, every possible method of collection, sorting, classifying, filing and indexing was tried ... and abandoned because they did not work well in the specification room." Conditions, wrote Mr. Nolan, were intolerable; the architect needed more information than ever, but in an accessible form. He could not at first-hand read all the pamphlets—"the day is too short"; nor could he afford to ignore their contents. "His dilemma (was) that he must either forego this necessary knowledge and re-


Electrical Equipment


Floodlighting Projectors, Catalog 211. The Pyle National Co., 1334-1358 N. Kastner Ave., Chicago, Ill.


Material Proofing
Amercoat on Guard against Corrosion, American Concrete and Steel Pipe Co., P. O. Box 1428, Arcade Station, Los Angeles, Calif.


CALENDAR OF EVENTS

- February 7-11—Joint convention, American Concrete Contractors Association, National Concrete Masonry Association, National Cinder Concrete Products Association, Hotel Sherman, and Cast Stone Institute, Madison Athletic Club, Chicago, Ill.
- February 9—Closing date, entries to competition for Distinctive Merit in Packaging, Irwin D. Wolf Awards Administration, 212 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y.
- February 26-March 3—Convention, National Education Association, Atlantic City, N. J.
- March 1—Closing date, proposal of candidates for 1938 Edwin Langley Scholarships of AIA.
- March 15—Closing date, Higgins Ink Mechanical Drawing Competition, Scholastic Awards, Chamber of Commerce Building, Pittsburgh, Pa.
- March 15—Closing date, entries to competition for design of table and floor lamps, Illuminating Engineering Society, 51 Madison Ave., New York, N. Y.
DESIGN TRENDS

Schools designed to obtain maximum advantage of daylighting and suitability for special classroom instruction (pp. 54-57).

ARCHITECTURAL RECORD
Activity School Unit with differentiation of school building compartments for a program of teaching that is based on "learning by doing." Designed by Arthur L. Martson, Architect.

School Planning

IN SCHOOL building design, shape and distribution of rooms, size and location of windows, furniture and mechanical systems are determined by the requirements of teaching. The school buildings, briefly reviewed in this issue, and nursery schools, scheduled for the RECORD next month, indicate a tendency toward simplification and rationalization of planning.

Classroom for teaching English, with provision for types of activities naturally associated with English instruction. W. K. Harrison and J. Andre Fouilhoux, Architects.

Northville Grade School, Northville, Michigan. Lyndon and Smith, Architects. Kindergarten (right) is at ground floor level.
or Changing Curriculum Needs

Changes in school planning and design can be perceived by even a casual review of school buildings built in the past two years. Progress is recorded in a closer adjustment of school planning to specific space requirements for education. For example, there is an increasing popularization of classrooms for special use; the daylighting of classrooms is receiving more thoughtful attention in current work as evidenced by enlarged window areas; protection against hazards of disaster and accident is increasing; sanitation is improving; there is greater ease of exit, and better provision for desirable student circulation under supervision.

It is because methods of education are undergoing continuous change that the old conception of the schoolhouse and its related grouping is becoming obsolete. Departure from the old and conventional type of teaching areas is most clearly apparent in the layout of nursery schools, play areas, recreation rooms, laboratories, shops and home economics rooms. Professor N. L. Engelhardt of Teachers College, Columbia University, has pointed out that "the laboratory type of educational space must supplant the textbook type of classroom." As illustration he cites the case of a "social science group that desired a large laboratory in which there was much of modern, economic, social and governmental material constantly on display. Large project areas in which group projects representing commercial, industrial, and other developments could be presented, work spaces for small groups, library alcoves, and files for materials and storage. . . . Adjoining the laboratory was an audiovisual studio where the problems of the social sciences might be definitely portrayed in intimate relationship to all aspects of world living. Rooms adjoining the laboratory included group rooms for discussion and planning, reading rooms, and special teacher guidance and conference spaces, as well as teacher-student curriculum rooms in which the curriculum materials of the current program were constantly in the process of being developed by the students themselves with the aid of a curriculum teaching expert."

Richard J. Neutra of Los Angeles has applied to school planning many of the provisions listed in the foregoing comment by Dr. Engelhardt. For the West Coast he has classrooms with seating designed for maximum advantage of daylighting as well as suitability to special classroom instruction. A room for recitation and oral English, illustrated in this article, has a diagonally arranged stage and seating. It is probable that school building shapes will be further changed the better to serve the requirements of sidelighting. A classroom with outdoor and indoor areas is being tried experimentally by Richard J. Neutra and others.

Books on Improved School Planning

The Educational Talking Picture. By Frederick L. Devereux and others. The University of Chicago Press, 1933.
Ralph Waldo Emerson Junior High School, West Los Angeles, California. Richard J. Neutra, Architect. As seen from the South.

3-18. Administration unit with mental and personality testing laboratory.
30-32. Art department.
23-33. Practical business training.
Physical education unit placed between girls' and boys' play yards, with baths, physical culture office.

Ground Floor
1. Social Science Room with sliding metal doors into outside patio. A detail view of this side-sliding door is shown in 2. 3. Room for Musical Instruction. 4. Classroom for Recitation and Oral English with diagonally arranged stage and seating. 5. Room for Physical Exercises.
Planning a Physician's Office Suite

By NORMAN N. RICE, Architect

Today the office of the physician is new in its working arrangement and modern in its equipment. Such, at least, is the desired result sought by the designer who adopts the principle of first setting up requirements, followed by the workable solution. It is the purpose of this study to set down a few planning principles as an aid to architects who may be called upon to create such better surroundings.

Scope of Physicians' Offices

The office of a practicing physician varies with the character and extent of his practice. It may range in size from one or two rooms in his home that must serve the many functions of general medical practice, to a specialist's elaborate suite of rooms in a medical office building, each room with its special use and equipment. There are three essential divisions in the medical office plan: (1) waiting room, (2) consultation room, (3) examination and treatment rooms. In the smallest offices, one room may serve for consultation, examination and treatments, and the doctor's waiting room may also be the living room in his home. In large offices, there will be a waiting room and a consultation room, and a number of examination and treatment rooms according to the doctor's specialty and personal methods of treatment; in addition, there may be a laboratory, animal room for housing test and experimental specimens, darkroom, dressing room, toilet, etc.

Circulation

The circulation sequence in these main divisions is this: The patient passes directly from the waiting room to the consultation room; here the doctor refers to the case history card—or, if it is a new patient, takes the case history—and discusses present symptoms. From here the patient is conducted to the examination room for further diagnosis or simple treatments. More complicated treatments requiring special equipment or relatively long periods of treatment are given in the treatment rooms. After treatment, the patient departs, preferably by a route which avoids the waiting room, or other treatment rooms. Such a second means of access to the private part of the offices also allows the doctor to enter and leave unobserved; where offices are set up in conjunction with living quarters, private access for the doctor from these quarters should be arranged.

Waiting Room

This room should have direct access to the street, or to the public corridor if it is in an office building, and should be oriented for good daylight and good view where possible. Size will vary according to the seating required for the normal number of patients expected during office hours. Table space should be provided for books and magazines. Doctor's medical library may be in this room or, preferably, in consultation room. In most instances, the secretary is in this room; her desk should be placed where she can supervise the entrance and the door to consultation room, with filing cabinets for case histories and correspondence close at hand. The room should not have hospital character, but should be attractive and comfortable; in some offices, it may even be impressive, or "swanky", depending on the doctor and his patients.

Consultation Room

This room should have direct access to the waiting room and to the examination and treatment rooms. Size may vary from space sufficient for the doctor's desk and a few chairs, to a room that is spacious and impressive. Since waiting rooms are usually quiet, conversations in the consultation room may be overhead. Soundproofing can be obtained by relatively simple means: a double set of doors and (or) double partition between the two rooms, sound-absorbing finishes on walls and (or) ceilings, heavy carpeting and upholstered furniture, either singly or in combination.

Reception Room or Business Office

In some layouts, the secretary has a separate room. Its location and use depend on office practice; whether it is a reception and supervisory station only; or, whether, in addition, patients must pass through it when departing and making financial arrangements. To serve these functions best, it should be located between the waiting and consultation rooms, communicate with the treatment and examination rooms, and contain the main entrance to the offices. Its size should be ample for the resultant cross circulation and for the secretary's desk, filing cabinets and a chair or two.

Examination and Treatment Rooms

These make up the outpatient or hospital portion of the office. Their number, size and equipment depend upon each doctor's type of practice and his personal methods of treatment. The available space and building budget are determining factors of equal importance. Many offices have only one examination and treatment room, but additional rooms are more efficient since they allow the treatment of two or more patients concurrently, especially where the treatments and the therapy machines do not require the doctor's constant presence. Each room should be entirely walled in for privacy and elimination of unpleasant noises. The doctor's personal
methods of treatment and his equipment and machines must be studied in detail; equipment and machines must be placed for efficiency of use and economy of space; these factors will determine the number, sizes and shapes of rooms. Daylight and natural ventilation are desirable but not necessary with artificial lighting and ventilation.

Dressing Rooms, Rest Rooms and Toilets

Private dressing space should be provided for patients. A rest room, with cot or couch, is also necessary for patients who need rest after or between treatments. Sometimes this becomes a bedroom for overnight patients. Two toilets are desirable in a large office, one adjoining waiting room, the other close to treatment rooms.

Laboratory

Most doctors have modest laboratory requirements for tests and research work. Stock kitchen cabinets make good laboratory furniture; counter tops should be covered with inert plastic like Micarta; sink can be black iron or cast iron, sink may be stainless steel. If all chemicals are mixed with water before disposal, there will be little or no corrosion of pipes.

Dark Room

Light baffles at doorway is desirable but not necessary. Worktable may consist of a long sink covered with open battens. Hangers for drying film, and storage for plates, traps, chemicals, etc., should be provided.

Closets

Space is required for linens, dressings, sundries, files.

Apparatus in a Typical Doctor's Office Shown at Right

EXAMINATION
1. Examination table
2. Scale
3. Instrument cabinet
4. Waste hamper
5. Sink
6. Stool
7. Instrument sterilizer
8. Cot

X-RAY
9. Developing tank
10. X-ray machine
11. Lamp
12. Diathermy machine

LABORATORY
13. Sink
14. Compounding table
15. Costumer
16. Table for microscope and slides
17. Refrigerator
18. Drug cabinet
19. Filing cabinets

TREATMENT
20. Electrocardiograph machine
21. Basal metabolism machine
22. Sink
23. Quartz lamp
24. Cot
25. Diathermy machine
26. Short-wave machine
Two Houses Remodeled as Doctor's Home and Office, Harrisburg, Pa. Edmund George Good, Jr., Architect. Two 80-year-old houses were made over to achieve the combined residential-office quarters. At main entrance, glass brick permitted entrance of light and at the same time insured privacy.

The doctor will have definite ideas concerning the equipment to be purchased; he may already own most of it. The architect can suggest certain furniture and equipment items to be built in; some simple items can be designed by the architect.

**Finishes**

In waiting and consultation rooms, finishes are limited only by cost and the character of the selected design. In the “hospital” portion, finishes are similar to those in a hospital, but need not be so rigidly sanitary. For floors, linoleum, rubber or asphalt tile, ceramic tile, and wood or cement may be used. Linoleum is the best all-around material. For walls: painted plaster, washable fabrics, linoleum, tile and structural glass are available.

Flush doors are desirable but not necessary: 2'-6" or 2'-8" width is sufficient since beds are not wheeled out of rooms. Trim should be eliminated as far as possible.

**Plumbing**

Usual residential fixtures will function satisfactorily in most instances; special fittings and foot controls can be added to most types. Special hospital-type fixtures are much more expensive.

**Electric Work**

An ample number of convenience outlets should be provided for equipment and machines. Check most convenient heights for location of outlets for various machines. Check wattage and amperage of each appliance; convenience outlets must have sufficient amperage ca-
Residence and Attached Office for a Physician, Plainfield, N. J. Leo Matzner, Architect. This typical combination of office and residence for a physician has separate entrances to offices and living quarters. There is convenient accessibility from office to residential part. Garage at rear is attached to house and is reached from residential part.

Plans for Residential Dental Practice. These plans are for a residence of moderate size (upper) and for a bungalow type (lower) used exclusively as an office. In the larger example the living quarters are on the second floor. These plans were developed from proposals by the S. S. White Dental Manufacturing Co.

a simple ventilating system: fur down corridor ceiling to form a duct, set grilles connecting it to each treatment room, and provide fan of sufficient capacity at end of corridor to exhaust to outer air; doors to each room must have grilles or louvers for air inlets. An air-conditioning system is desirable for summer cooling.

Intercommunication System

This system is used in calling the doctor to the phone, for calling him from the residential part of the building, for calling the secretary or nurse, for patients under treatment in calling the nurse or doctor, etc. A system of flush-type multi-tone buzzers and push buttons can be installed, with pendant push buttons on cords for patients' use; an annunciator for locating calls should be placed where it can always be seen by the doctor.
A COMBINED MEDICAL AND DENTAL CLINIC
DETROIT, MICHIGAN

DITCHY-FARLEY-PERRY
Architects

This clinic contains offices for a dentist, a pediatrician and a physician-surgeon. Facilities are provided for minor operations where no hospitalization is required.

Exterior walls are of solid masonry consisting of alternating bands of cement block and brick; the walls are furred and plastered on the inside. The interior partitions are frame with plaster over wallboard.

The roof is wood construction with asphalt surface over 1" of Celotex; additional insulation consists of Silvercote fabric between roof and ceiling joists.

The walls and ceilings of all rooms are enameled. The reception room has light cream side walls, peach ceiling and white trim; the floor is covered with a blue carpet; the fireplace face is covered with primavera flexwood, the opening is trimmed with an aluminum angle; the chimney breast is flanked on either side with glass block panels. All doors are flush panel with plain narrow double bull-nose wood casings. Windows are Fenestra casement sash with marble stools. The floors are wood with linoleum finish.

The heating system is forced hot water with concealed convectors.
OFFICES FOR TWO PHYSICIANS, WITH MINOR HOSPITAL FACILITIES
PASAIC, NEW JERSEY

CHARLES SHILOWITZ
Architect

The problem was to design two units with a common physician's reception room and central control room. It was also necessary for either doctor to consult readily with the other. The reception room was placed at center of the two wings, and the control room seating two nurses was placed in a central location with a view of each corridor. Hence, one nurse can control both wings whenever the other nurse is on call. A side door was provided for doctors' private entrance. The convalescing room is an adjunct of the operating room and has been placed in the rear to avoid street noise. Patients may be discharged directly from this room to car in rear parking space. The eyeglass fitting room has an adjoining workshop for repairing and preparing glasses. Eye-rooms are painted a dull nonreflecting dark green. Consultation and glass fitting rooms are finished in mahogany panels, with recessed viewbox for x-ray film examination. Ventilating fans are provided for x-ray laboratory and operating rooms. The allergy room is so arranged that patients may occupy all cubicles without seeing one another, and yet doors and curtains are eliminated. The cellar is arranged for heating plant, storage room, showers and lockers. Construction is of brick veneer with plaster-finished interior walls.
OFFICES FOR TWO PHYSICIANS WITH MINOR HOSPITAL FACILITIES
PASSAIC, NEW JERSEY

CHARLES SHILOWITZ
Architect

Two influences have been responsible for the recent activity in providing buildings for medical practitioners. These are: (1) excessive rental cost of office-building space; (2) necessity for flexibility of space to accommodate physicians with general and physicians with specialized practice. It has been assumed that the public prefers to patronize the neighborhood doctor instead of one in the heart of the city, where medical office buildings are usually located. The widest trend is toward offices of residential character, usually in or near a housing community. For reasons of economy it is customary for two or more doctors to occupy such a building. Where the doctor undertakes to combine his own residence with his office, entirely different requirements must be met by the architect.

1, 2. Exterior finish: brickwork in earth colors with struck joints; coping in concrete; limestone window trim; brick front steps; cement walk; steel casement sash. 3, 4. Reception Room: walls are white, with one wall and ceiling terra cotta red; light fixture plaque below ceiling is white; Venetian blinds are a natural wood color and finish; doors are of flush type, same color as wall. 5. Corridors: painted medium gray to height of 5'-0" with light gray above; floors are of black linoleum. 6. Private Office. 7. Operating Room: ample light at corners of plan; wall and floor in gray tile.
Health Centers for Preventive Medicine, Recreation and Education

By FRANK K. SAFFORD, JR., M.D.

The health center here presented is new only in the sense of being a combination and coordination of features that are already existing successfully in American cities today. Most significant is the combination of recreational and educational activities with a medical clinic. The purposes of the combination are: first, to bring the center, by means of the recreation, into daily contact with a large percentage of the city population; and second, to make the center, through its recreation, self-supporting. The intention is that families and people of all ages in the city will use this center on a membership basis and that an effective program not only of disease prevention, but also of crime prevention will be made possible. Competing with barrooms and poolrooms of the city, the center offers for sociologists a new type of community meetinghouse for social rehabilitation work and for a solution of the leisure problem.

In the plan of operation the first requisite of the center is that it be affiliated with a hospital as the hospital's department of preventive medicine. The second requisite is that it be administered by a coordinated body made up of physicians, hospital organization and city health department. Accordingly, the whole idea of the center must first be approved by the three administrative divisions—in short, by the medical profession—if it is to achieve its purpose. This purpose is to bring about a far-reaching program of preventive medicine in the American city, a plan that is directed and carried out chiefly by the physicians of the city.

The need for preventive medicine in the American city is substantiated not alone by medical and criminal records; it is frankly admitted by responsible authorities. The American Foundation Study of Medical Care brought out much disagreement as to medical policies in general, but practically universal agreement as to the need for preventive medicine. One doctor summed up the situation with the remark, "We as medical men have not met the demand of the public for preventive medicine." Doubtless the present campaign against syphilis is giving this demand new impetus.

Historically, the idea of establishing health centers for preventive medicine has been steadily evolving with the growing complexity of city life. In London a health center combining recreation with clinical service has already been built. In American cities all the features of such a center exist separately. The plan of their combination is described in the following pages.

Three designs for such a center were drawn and developed as models during the past four years: the first, for a large slum-clearance housing project; the second, for an American city of 100,000 population; and the third, for a city of 35,000 population. In all three, though they differ in architectural treatment and arrangement, the same general plan was carried out: namely, the combination of a clinic for preventive medicine with facilities for all-year-round recreational and cultural educational developments. Typical plans and a model of the health center are shown with this article. They are offered as suggestions for accommodation and arrangement. It is self-evident that the center, maintaining its general plan, can be adjusted and scaled to any size of community. A description of the general plot plan, the buildings, and an explanation of their purpose follows.

Description of the Center

Designed to fit approximately an area of one large city block, preferably in a centrally accessible location, the center comprises five units.

1. The Administrative and Medical Building. In this building are the administrative offices and the medical unit. (The administrative offices and service division of the health department could be established here.) In the medical unit is a diagnostic clinic (including examining room, laboratory, x-ray, dental clinic, etc.) and a department of physical medicine. This department has the hydrotherapy of a spa like Saratoga Springs and physical therapy of the pattern found, for example, in the New York medical centers. These facilities include medical baths, massage rooms, rest rooms, roof terrace solariums, special exercise rooms for posture work, warm pool for treatment of paralysis, and rooms with equipment for electrotherapy, light therapy and fever therapy. This treatment equipment is only that which is not found, or inadequately found, in physicians' offices. Details of how this whole unit functions will be described later.

The penthouse and roof of this building are equipped as a nursery kindergarten where children can be left under supervision while their parents use the various facilities of the Center.
2. A Gymnasium Building and Glass-covered Pool. Here are men's and women's locker and shower rooms leading to the swimming pool and the gymnasium; basketball, handball and squash courts with observation galleries; large and small exercise rooms; an indoor track; and roof games.

Boys' and girls' clubrooms are included in a separate part of this building. They comprise meeting rooms, game rooms, lockers and showers.

The covered pool is connected with the gymnasium. By means of glass sides, which are easily removable, it can be open and airy in the summer, closed and warm in the winter. Adjoining the pool are a sand beach, a beach cafe, and a beach game area for a putting green, ping-pong, shuttles and other games.

3. A Playhouse. This is used for "movies", as a concert hall, or a little theater. Certain afternoon can be reserved for children's puppet shows. The basement serves as a roller-skating rink or a bowling alley.

In this building is the section for adult education with lecture rooms, a library, a picture gallery, a cooking school and a school of arts and crafts. Courses for religious training are also suggested.

4. A Restaurant, Coffee House and Beer Garden. The restaurant with its eating terrace overlooks the outdoor activities. The coffee house has a sidewalk cafe. Inside is a large quiet section where people can read newspapers or periodicals. Adjoining this area are game rooms for cards, chess and billiards. The beer garden has tables under trees where one can have coffee, food or beer. On certain afternoons and evenings, there can be outdoor music and dancing.

5. Outdoor Features. These include the pool, beach game area, a running track which is open to bathers, and four tennis courts, which in winter are transformed into an artificial ice-skating rink. A rink has over 100 skating days possible for the New York area. It can be illuminated at night. Hockey events, as well as ice-skating carnivals with music, can be planned and carried out here.

Overlooking these outdoor activities and connecting all the features of the center is a boardwalk promenade. On this walk, bleachers can be set up for swimming, track, tennis and hockey events. At other times, the walk is open to the public.

Wherever possible in the center buildings, space for shops has been reserved in the belief that concession rentals will increase economic security.

The Plan of Preventive Medicine

The plan of preventive medicine is carried on in these five units. The recreation is designed to attract people to join the center as members, paying a yearly membership fee. Their membership privilege would include free use of athletic facilities, the service of the diagnostic clinic, and reduced rates in the eating places, theater, medical baths and educational facilities. In the diagnostic clinic, members of the center would receive physical examination, including routine x-rays, urine and blood tests, periodic consultations, instruction in preventive medicine, including advice about exercise, recreation and diet. The medical work would be carried on by a visiting staff of physicians who would devote so many hours weekly in the center clinic just as they do in other hospital clinics, with the difference that in the center (supported by recreation and membership) they would be paid for their services. In this way it is estimated 12,000 to 15,000 people could use a center of the size indicated on a membership basis and many more thousands on a single ticket basis. The possibility of truly effective disease prevention for these 12,000 to 15,000 citizens would be a progressive step toward a complete solution of the community health problem. Successfully operated, this center would offer an example for other centers to follow.

Cost, Expense and Income

To throw further light on the operative procedure and to demonstrate the possibility of self-support, a few estimates of costs, expenses and income have been made. They are only approximate and are offered as suggestions for determining actual values. They pertain, in the case of land and construction, to the health center designed for a Midwestern city of 100,000 population; in the case of expense and income, to the center for a slum-clearance housing project in New York.

Land Costs: 300 x 600 superficial feet (divided into four building units described above) at a cost of $35 per cu. ft. (suggested as an average for this type of work), $70,000; development of outdoor features and additional equipment, $150,000; total for land and construction, $920,000.

Operating Expense: Approximately $900,000 yearly. This estimate, as well as estimates on expected income, are based on a study of existing projects, some of which are: R. H. Macy & Company hospital clinic; physical therapy departments of New York medical centers; Saratoga Springs, N. Y.; Y. M. C. A.'s; Jones Beach, L. I.; St. George Hotel Pool, Brooklyn.

Expected Income: It was assumed that the project should not only maintain itself but also pay interest on its initial investment, and prices were arranged accordingly. The annual income based upon the minimum average capacity of the center and upon the experience of the above-named existing projects exceeded the expense of operation by over $100,000. In general, the income was derived in the following ways:

1. The sale of single tickets for the use of facilities such as the swimming pool, games, medical baths, etc. The concentration of facilities in a center, together with the fact that the center is run on a nonprofit basis, makes it possible to reduce the price of single admission tickets below the usual charges, thereby ensuring widespread use.

2. Concession rentals from shops—beauty parlor, barber shop, sporting goods, etc.

3. Income from restaurants and movie house. (These also could be concessions.)

4. Most important for the plan of preventive medicine is the sale of 12,000 to 15,000 yearly memberships varying in price according to age of the member and use of the center. (In the center for a slum-clearance housing project the membership price averaged $25.) This, as well as other prices
Model of a typical Health Center to occupy an entire city block. The "center" is intended primarily to serve a city neighborhood in preventing illness and in improving physical health. Services include health inspection, sun-bathing, exercise, recreation, education. Tennis courts are used in winter for skating and ice hockey. The swimming pool has a completely glazed roof. Arrangement by Dr. Frank K. Safford, Jr. Design by A. Gordon Herr.

in the center, will depend on the intention of the administrative organization. In a nonprofit, self-supporting and efficiently directed institution, the prices can be kept low.

Survey of Other Projects

The functioning of the medical unit in this Center is the most significant as well as most difficult to conceive. To discover its possibilities, a survey has been made of what happens in some of the existing projects upon which it is patterned. The medical clinics of some of the large commercial organizations like the New York Telephone Company, the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, R. H. Macy & Company, carry on effective programs of preventive medicine. A brief description of the Macy hospital clinic illustrates the pattern.

1. The R. H. Macy Clinic: This clinic is efficiently organized and laid out. It consists of examining rooms, laboratory, x-ray department, rest rooms, offices for clerical work and a certain amount of physical therapy equipment for the treatment of compensation cases. An average of approximately 14,000 Macy employees are given a physical examination here. About 60% of them are x-rayed. Blood tests are taken only when indicated. Medical advice and health literature are distributed. Approximately 170,000 visits are made to the clinic yearly, making an average of 13 visits per employee. About 14 doctors, working half time in four-hour shifts, with the help of 15 nurses, numerous secretaries, technicians, stenographers, etc., carry on the work of the clinic. From the preventive medical viewpoint, definite results are achieved; otherwise a commercial organization like R. H. Macy & Company would hardly maintain such a clinic. Some of the results are: Approximately 90% of the tuberculosis among Macy employees is detected in the Macy clinic rather than by outside physicians. Occasionally walking pneumonias are discovered, many cases of flu, much necessary dental work, glandular disturbances, underweight and overweight correction necessities, etc.

Large commercial organizations have found that it pays to establish these clinics. A city government would doubtless also find it a saving to prevent disease and crime on a large scale by larger clinics. Whereas, however, the commercial organizations have an established continuous contact with their employees, a city would have to create such contact by offering recreation and soliciting members. That this is not only feasible, but is already in practice in American cities is illustrated by the example of what happens in one of the large New York Y. M. C. A.'s.

2. The West Side Y. M. C. A.: In this "Y" there is an average of 5,000 to 6,000 adult members, (at present 5,400) and 700 to 1,000 boy members. The yearly membership fee is arranged on a sliding scale according to age. Boys pay $10. Adults pay $6 for a basic membership plus $6 to $12, according to age, for morning membership in the physical department (this includes use of gymnasiums and pool); $16 to $31, according to age, for full-time membership in the physical department. About 250 businessmen pay $55 and have a separate locker room. On this basis, the physical department is made self-supporting. Membership privilege in the "Y" includes a compulsory physical examination with a limited amount of medical advice and instruction. No
treatment is given; no x-rays, urine or blood tests are made. The examinations are performed by a visiting staff of physicians who voluntarily give their services one hour weekly. The physicians are allowed membership privileges. Though superficial, this medical service is not without benefit from the viewpoint of preventive medicine. But the point is, if a Y. M. C. A. like this, limited to indoor activities, to sex, and partial to creed, can solicit 7,000 members, it isn’t difficult to see how a Health Center of the type described could enroll 12,000 to 15,000 members of both sexes and all ages.

3. District Health Centers of the New York Health Department: A Y. M. C. A. offers an excellent pattern for a City Health Department to follow in establishing closer contact with people for preventive work and health education on a larger scale. In New York, a progressive health department has come to the point of establishing district health centers, but without recreation. The plan is to divide New York into districts of population of 200,000 to 250,000 and then to subdivide these districts into health areas of 25,000 population. So far the Federal Public Works Administration has made available funds for the building of several district health centers. They are relatively small three-story buildings including the following services: nursing, maternity and child hygiene, school hygiene, tuberculosis, venereal disease and health education. The other health department services of sanitation, food and drugs, laboratories, vital statistics and the control of communicable diseases are kept in the central office for city-wide administration. These district health centers are a great step forward in localizing the city’s health program. Nevertheless, lacking a means of continuous close contact with the district population, the scope of preventive medicine remains limited.

4. The Pioneer Health Center, Peckham, London: In European countries, the idea of combining recreation with health clinics has developed perhaps further than

(Above) Plan of the Typical Health Center with facilities indicated. A typical city block area is intended. (Right) Plan for an alternate plot in the neighborhood of large apartments. Proposal by Dr. Frank K. Safford, Jr. Design by George C. Keiser.
in this country. One of the most notable examples is the Pioneer Health Center at Peckham, London, designed by Sir E. Owen Williams. "This center has been built to house the activities for maintaining health as described in a book, 'The Case for Action', by Dr. Innes H. Pearse and Dr. S. W. Scott Williamson. Briefly, the book postulates that a community should take care of health before it is broken down rather than deal with it in hospitals afterwards." The center includes a great many facilities for physical and mental recreation for the whole family, and complete medical quarters for periodical examinations. The following are some of the conclusions Drs. Pearse and Williamson have come to as the result of several years' experience in periodically examining people of the artisan populace in Peckham:

Given the opportunity, the artisan is prepared to spend the money, which formerly was expended in barrooms, poolrooms and movies, in taking the responsibility of his own and his family's health. Health demands responsibility and cannot be obtained through the assistance of charity. People must support their own health organization.

Examinations have revealed that 90% of individuals over 25 years of age are suffering from frank disease which usually is amenable to adjustment, but which untreated in the course of years leads to de-vitalization. (Type of conditions commonly found: varicose veins, dental caries, hemorrhoids, flat feet, hammer toe, incapacitating bunions, scoliosis, nasal obstructions, ear discharge, glositis, hernia, chronic appendicitis, gallstones, gastric ulcer, goiter, chronic mastitis, cervicitis, syphilis, gonorrhea.)

These annual examinations afford the medical profession access to disease in the earliest stages and give the maximum value to medical skill and service.

The Advantages of a Health Center with Recreation

A survey of the four existing projects just described not only makes the plan of a membership health center with recreation less visionary but also points to its definite advantages. To the citizen consumer as well as to the city health department the advantages hardly need further mention. To the hospitals the advantages are: first, with the affiliated department of physical medicine, the hospitals' general equipment for dealing with the complex problem of the chronically ill is increased; second, with the department of preventive medicine the hospital becomes an institution no longer limited to the treatment of the sick. The una, the vague ominous portent overshadowing hospitals today, because of the presence of the acutely ill, will be lost. Doctors can carry out research on normal people, compile statistics from well-organized member charts, start longitudinal member records, all of which may well contribute to the science of disease prevention. To the physicians of the city, the advantages of such a center are the following:

All physicians who are qualified for hospital connection can work in the center clinic.

The principle of free choice is maintained in that members of the center can choose any one of the staff physicians for examination and consultation.

The physician-patient relationship would not be lost except in the matter of fee exchange.

Physicians would be paid regulation fees for their work by the center, corresponding to the fees that prevail for this type of work in the community.

The treatment in the department of physical medicine is supervised by physicians who refer their cases. These treatment facilities will help doctors to keep under their care patients who today are patronizing quacks and nostrums. Only such treatment is given in the center as physicians are not equipped to give in their offices. All other necessary treatment is referred to the outside offices of physicians.

The center brings the physician into a central place in the public health program, a step which in the long run will benefit the physician in the scope of his prestige and the public as to health.

Possibilities of Realization

A hundred years ago people were fighting for the realization of schools, libraries and hospitals. Today, the increasing public demand for preventive medicine suggests several possible ways in which the Center here presented might be realized:

A progressive city government might be persuaded to adopt such a project and borrow federal PWA funds to carry it through. The project presents possibilities of self-liquidation, just as do projects of city water works, city garbage-disposal plants, etc. This center would fit well into any large-scale housing project.
Peckham Health Center near London, England, was built to house activities for maintaining health. Illustrations on this and opposite pages, show exterior, interior of upper floor and ground floor plan. Sir. E. Owen Williams, Architect.

Industrialists who today are building golf courses, country clubs and extensive recreational units for their workers might be persuaded to give their funds for this type of health center.

Certain endowed foundations might discover in this type of center a program of public health worth their encouragement and support.

Some philanthropists instead of leaving money for a memorial such as a stadium might find this type of center a more worthy cause.

The citizen consumers in some community might be organized to contribute in advance their yearly membership fees in order to start one of the buildings of the center. The other units could be added later.

Most important is the support of the medical profession under whose direction the center will operate. Without such support it is difficult to conceive any worthwhile realization.
The thesis for this and the next article, to be published in the March Record, is based on the premise that an enclosure and an air-conditioning system are not only interdependent essentials to the provisions of indoor comfort, but that they are interrelated with respect to both air movement and to the creation of the thermal prerequisites to comfort.

First of all, a healthy body constantly generates too much heat. The body, within wide limits, functions as its own thermostat to control blood temperature, and the body must constantly dissipate the excess heat as waste. This waste is not only removed by the air, but depends considerably on a temperature of surrounding materials below that of the body.

Now, from the fact of excess heat generation: it is of the utmost importance to realize that it is the primary function of any method of environmental control to permit the body to keep itself cool.

It is a good idea to keep in mind the thought that the thermostatic self-regulation of body heat is primarily a process of self-cooling, and a heat-conserving mechanism of limited ability.

The process is very much like a building heating system having capacity for an extremely cold day, but generating an excess which spills out of the building at all times.

To recapitulate, the body functions inside as its own boiler to produce heat in excess, and functions outside as its own cooling system.

Even in winter, then, what we want to do is to restrict heat loss from the body so as to continue to let the body do a comfortable cooling job all of its own. This has nothing to do with heating buildings, nor, in a technically correct sense, with heating people, for, if an individual is in fact heated, he is made ill with a fever.

This gives us the entire key to the problem of comfort. Broadly expressed, it means planning to avoid extremes in the thermal environment of the occupants of a space, so as to let the body lose its heat at a comfortable rate.

The skin, with two million pores, provides the principal medium for our body equipment in self-cooling. It cools in three ways:

1. By the outward travel of heat, just like any radiator.
2. By convecting heat to air currents in contact with the skin and clothing.
3. By adding humidity to the air from the evaporation of moisture, the skin acting as a low temperature stove to boil off this moisture.

The significant thing here is the fact that a comfortable person loses nearly half his body heat by radiation. The total heat to be dissipated being about constant when we are comfortable, what is not removed by radiation must be lost by one or both of the other two ways of heat loss. This radiation loss depends on the surface temperature of the walls, floor and ceiling of a room to which an occupant radiates heat.

In an inside room, these surface temperatures are controlled by the air temperature maintained by the air conditioning. In an outside room with windows or poor insulation, the inside surface temperature of outside wall and glass may be influenced by an auxiliary heating system.

There are several aspects of the important relations between the design of buildings and the results which are attainable from mechanical systems, such as heating and air conditioning, for keeping occupants comfortable.

These relations may be classified into three broad divisions for the purpose of discussion:

1. The relations between spatial characteristics and the method of air distribution.
2. The relations between the insulating value of exterior construction and the heating and (or) air-conditioning system.
3. The coordinate planning of buildings and systems so that the over-all economics of both are balanced for minimum annual investment.

The requirements for human comfort tie Items 1 and 2 together in two different ways: by the control of the "effective temperature" of the air by the system (meaning the net effect of air temperature, relative humidity
and air velocity), and by the control (or the limiting) of the temperature of the inside boundary surfaces of the room, which governs body radiation.

The reason for this is that the temperature of the air ties all of these factors together. But if insulation is poor, the ability of air conditioning to control surface temperature, and hence body-heat loss by radiation, is limited.

The effective temperature produced by an air-conditioning system in a room can be perfect, but if, for example, the side of the room is completely of single glass, and if it is cold outside, an occupant would be uncomfortably chilly because of excessive loss of body heat by radiation.

For instance, in an inside room, as the ideal, there are no external sources of heat or cold to influence wall temperature. It is influenced only by air temperature, according to its distribution and control by the air-conditioning system.

In this first article, we shall discuss air distribution in relation to spatial conditions.

The requirements of air distribution are essentially threefold:

1. To provide diffusing space, so that the air will move at a uniform velocity in the occupied zone.
2. To provide diffusing space and so to direct the air discharged that the air will have had opportunity virtually to attain the desired room air temperature before reaching the occupied zone.
3. The air distribution is to be such as to maintain inside boundary room surfaces at substantially room air temperature, considered either alone or in conjunction with an auxiliary heating system, such as radiators or panel radiant heating.

Hence, exclusive of infiltration, the problem of indoor comfort is largely a matter of presetting the temperature of inside surfaces to which occupants radiate, in conjunction with the control of effective temperature. The former will be discussed in the next article. Provision of the right effective temperature is largely contingent on air distribution. What we want is a uniform environment, and this begins with air distribution.

Figure 1. Supply ducts in outside wall with special advantages for both heating in winter and cooling in summer. There are heaters at outlets. Windows on the left are individually connected. Those on right of riser have an alternate method whereby two windows are supplied by one duct outlet.

Figure 2. Duct-Type Air Conditioner for selective cooling system. Clyde R. Place, Consulting Engineer
When air is supplied to control the inside surface temperature of an exterior wall or window, I shall use the expression: "covering" the wall or window by the air supply.

**Some Primary Factors of Interrelation**

There are really no fundamental rules determining basic design which will lead to one general form of air-conditioning system or another. Each installation is largely individual, because there are just too many factors involved; and the governing issue is always to find the predominating set of factors compared to objectives, and the next set of factors of secondary importance, as in any rational planning.

Here are a few suggested architectural considerations, presented from the standpoint of air conditioning:

1. Exterior walls should have as little mass as possible to reduce the cost of heating or cooling them caused by intermittent operation.
2. Whether alone or coupled with the heating and cooling arrangement, all inside surfaces of exterior walls should be sustained at very near air temperature, approaching an inside room as the ideal:
   a) Exterior walls may be insulated, utilizing glass brick or double glass for windows.
   b) Exterior walls may be "covered" by the air supplied to the rooms; and windows, if single, may be:
      1. Heated by the air supply in a shallow room, the outlet located so as to "cover" the glass.
      2. Heated and cooled by air discharged upward from the sill.
      3. Equipped with radiator or convector at window.
   c) Exterior walls may employ the British principle of panel heating, with single windows handled as in (b). (The reverse, panel cooling, is impracticable, because of condensation, unless the expense of dehumidifying the air is added).
   d) In multi-story structures, ducts spread in the outside walls may be made to effect an ideal combination of air conditioning with the partial equivalent effect of panel heating in winter and the partial effect of panel cooling in summer, with windows handled according to thermal value provided; i.e., with single glass, as in (b). (See Figure 1.)
3. The wall construction should be of minimum porosity, and seals should be everywhere effected to reduce infiltration and exfiltration.
4. Exterior surfaces should reflect sunlight.

**The Arrangement of Systems**

Actual examples of systems will serve better than any generalities which might be found universally applicable. Knowing the proposed general form, purpose, occupancy and tentative subdivisions of the structure, there arises the vital question of the floor-to-floor distance for steel, to secure desired headroom. This is very important, since provision for horizontal duct space may add as
much as 10% to the building cube. Ceiling height also has a direct relation to satisfactory air distribution. Regret has sometimes been expressed that these matters have not received advance study. Sizes of horizontal ducts and their location are also determining factors, and this is dependent, in multi-story structures, on the vertical frequency of apparatus to which electric power, water, drains, steam or hot water and chilled water are connected. A chilled water system with unit conditioners requires less shaft area, but, dependent on the type of unit, may need more floor area.

In general, where there are windows, the tendency in taller buildings has been to keep all equipment in the center portion of the building, with radiators at windows. But in a certain department store, where floor space is everywhere at a premium, apparatus location is at the outside wall at every mezzanine floor-level. The size of the store and similar factors will, in turn, establish the wisdom of such a plan.

In multi-story structures, the fan apparatus is located to feed up and down with total duct shaft area at a minimum, where buildings are owner-occupied. But where buildings are leased and highly subdivided, provision for unknown future occupancy conditions, with spaces subject to rearrangement, has indicated a trend to the chilled water type of system designed for reserve capacity, in the same manner as a wiring system permits various connected wattages per square foot for individual tenants. Unit conditioners of various types are then connected to the chilled water system, as required.

Figure 2 illustrates such a system as actually installed. This particular system was worked out in collaboration with Ernest Williams, of the office of Clyde R. Place, Consulting Engineer.

On several operations, where the buildings in each case were more than four and less than six stories high, and where the space from windows to corridors was shallow (under 24 feet), ducts were run from interior vertical duct mains propelled by a fan apparatus in the basement. Duct risers were zoned, and horizontal branch ducts were run to a specially designed cabinet at each window sill. Each cabinet contained a steam reheater and automatic damper under control of a thermostat, and the air was discharged toward the ceiling from a grille at the sill.

This general method deserves further study for new multi-story structures with windows, locating apparatus at about every eighth floor and running ducts up and down in the outside wall to save cubage while getting the desired headroom. This method, which is to say, any kind of window unit, should be used only where exterior spaces are shallow, with usual headroom. A setup with shallow space is conceivably similar to school building practice, with units at windows performing all air-conditioning functions, slots for outside air and another for its relief being coordinated with the fenestration.

There are many arrangements using the corridor hung ceiling:

1. As a space for both supply and return air ducts (Figure 3).

2. As a space for supply ducts and as a return air chamber, or "plenum" (Figure 4).

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**Figure 6.** Corridor ceiling plenum for supply; corridor under suction for return. Radiators and reheaters are alternate to each other.

**Figure 7.** Recirculating units with fans and cooling coils. Hung ceiling space serves as fresh air plenum. Central relief exhaust duct in ceiling space. Removable airtight panels required for access to units. For small rooms at the left, radiators are omitted and heating coils added to the units.

**Figure 8.** Where large duct area is required and space is not available, ducts are sometimes forced out of corridor and into the room.
3. As a space for supply ducts, using the corridor as a return air plenum (Figure 5).
4. As a plenum space for supply air, with the corridor as a return air plenum (Figure 6).
5. As a space for recirculating fan units (Figure 7).
6. As a duct space where two sets of ducts are required (Figure 8).

For instance, in one recent installation both methods No. 5 and No. 6 are used, in different corridors, of course. Method No. 5 is used where continuous 24-hr. service is a primary requirement. The hung ceiling for method No. 6 is constructed of removable panels; since the removal of a panel short-circuits the air-distributing system, it could not be used for the requirements of method No. 5.

There are several reasons why the general scheme of using the corridor is interesting:
1. Its adoption is more universal.
2. If the space is shallow, radiators (or convectors, as you prefer) may be omitted.
3. It is logical to direct air toward exterior wall space.
4. Unless the wall is thermally better than average, it is desirable to get the air discharge first to “cover” the wall.
5. Unless the wall is thermally better, and if the radiator is eliminated, it is advisable, with single glass, to “cover” the exterior surface with the air supply.
6. Reduced headroom in the corridor is apparently less objectionable than in exterior space.

In Figure 11, a window unit is indicated. Outside air may be relieved to the corridor or to the toilet exhaust system, as in a hotel.

Relation of Air Conditioning to Spatial Conditions

Here is one reason an air-conditioning consultant should be called in early when planning. The higher the heat loss or heat gain in a given area, the greater must be the air volume circulated, and therefore, for any specific method of air distribution, the greater should be the cube of the room to avoid localized drafty regions. For present universal practice in air distribution, there must be provided a zone which, insofar as the desired air-conditioning results are concerned, is theoretically wasted. The use of ceiling plunes reduces this “waste” cube. But for a wall outlet the air supply must, on the one hand, be driven at a velocity high enough to get horizontal coverage, while on the other hand, there must be vertical space so that as the air travels from the outlet there is space for the velocity to dissipate to the desired level. The general arrangement commonly used is indicated by Figure 10.

The idea, of course, is to secure a uniform movement of air in the occupied zone. Dissatisfaction often ensues because, when cooling, cold air drops in puffs before diffusion to a sufficient reduction of velocity; otherwise, excessive velocity creates objectionable down-draft, especially on occupants close to the wall opposite the outlet.

With a grille producing a jet action of air along the ceiling, the general action of the air is similar to that of water in a rectangular can stirred with uniform motion by an object held near the periphery, the motion being comparable to that indicated by Figure 10. The velocity-field in the occupied zone is inescapably non-uniform with this method, resulting in “dead” and turbulent regions, the latter being the potential cause of drafts.

If sufficient space is not available for dissipation of velocity of the air stream, no matter how carefully the type of grille or outlet is selected—which may be a slot or the entire width of the room—the probability of drafts is increased. With this method of supply and with horizontal discharge, wall outlets should not be placed close to the ceiling, as indicated in Figure 11. A beam requires lowering the grille still more.

The most objectionable conditions are occasioned by low headroom such as under, or on, mezzanines of fractional story height, particularly where, because of limits imposed by physical conditions for duct space or by economy, the air is discharged horizontally along the length of the mezzanine. The lower the headroom, the more important it is to introduce air in such a manner that both the required distance of blow and the outlet velocity are reduced.

Generally, mezzanines of partial floor-to-floor height require careful consideration. The latitude in planning new work should obviate most of the objectionable draft conditions encountered by the addition of air conditioning to existing structures, because there is flexibility in new planning for running ducts and spotting outlets.

The discharge of the supply air from a low elevation toward the ceiling, as indicated by Figure 9 or by the lower outlet in Figure 11, reduces the room cube necessary for diffusion.
Figure 11. Section of room with beam condition.

The performance of supply grilles is a complex matter. Cool air drops toward the floor after it is discharged from the outlet. If the air delivered performs the heating function, it must be delivered warmer than room temperature. In this case, the air will rise, and whereas special attention must be given to warm air heating, the dropping of cool air presents a more critical problem, and is therefore the usual basis for locating grilles. The new technique is to locate the outlets for cooling at the 7-ft. level or thereabouts, in rooms of ordinary ceiling height, and to arch the air stream by pitching it slightly upward on discharge from the grille. The horizontal distance from the grille to a velocity level of 50 fpm is termed the "length of blow." The distance the air stream is arched upward is then to be deducted from the drop which would result at the end of the air stream were the air to leave the wall grille horizontally. The relations to headroom and ceiling height can then be predicted by this result, the net drop.

An index of grille selection for good performance is given in the following table, which discloses why so much trouble has developed from applying grilles which were all sized at the same velocity. The table is for a grille size of 26" x 6", a size selected at random, and of the type with adjustable vertical bars which spread the air for the short blow, and are gradually shifted to deliver the air straight ahead at the longer distance.

**PERFORMANCE OF 26" x 6" GRILLE**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of Blow</th>
<th>Air Volume (CFM)</th>
<th>Vertical drop at end of blow for air supplied at 15° below room temperature</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>13'</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>2'-0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14'</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>2'-3&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16'</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>2'-9&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18'-6&quot;</td>
<td>480</td>
<td>3'-4&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>21'</td>
<td>550</td>
<td>3'-10&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25'</td>
<td>580</td>
<td>5'-0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>32'</td>
<td>670</td>
<td>7'-0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36'</td>
<td>780</td>
<td>9'-0&quot;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44'</td>
<td>860</td>
<td>11'-0&quot;</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Thus, the minimum ceiling height for applying a grille of this size, discharging 800 cfm, would be 11' + 6'-6" = 17'-6". The clear length of blow is 44'.

Figure 12 shows poor distribution, and Figure 13 shows better distribution with a wall outlet.

In cooling, the temperature of the air stream is important from the point of view of drafts. A slight movement of cold air is objectionable, whereas air at room temperature, or warm air, traveling at the same velocity, would not even be felt. In cooling, therefore, it would
Figure 15. Section of circular or oblong room with comparatively shallow cove. If it is required to supply a coved room from the center where a/b is about one in fifteen, the outlet should be dropped below the ceiling as indicated.

Figure 16. When the air change is low, this type of spatial condition can be handled as shown.

Figure 17. Architectural treatment and distributing zone may be coupled in spaces of medium size or larger.

Figure 18. Application to a high ceiling. The edge at the lower level of vault should be taken advantage of to secure slow, uniform downward diffusion at the periphery of the room. The location of the return grilles relative to the mode of supply is of very considerable importance under many conditions.
be well to know when the air being supplied will reach room temperature. Tests show that the quantity of air which is delivered, the velocity at which it is traveling, and the amount it is fanned out when it leaves the grille will affect the distance that it travels before reaching room temperature. Tests on a jet type of grille delivering the same volume of cool air, having small slots spaced two or three inches apart, instead of a bar type of grille having the same effective area, do not show any appreciable change in the rate of coming up to room temperature.

The cool air rises in temperature rapidly as it leaves the grille, but must move slowly as its temperature approaches that of the room. It does not completely reach room temperature until the end of the throw, there being a slight difference even then. Therefore, it is very important to keep the main stream well out of the occupied zone throughout the whole throw.

Greenough, research engineer specializing in air distribution, states: “The fact that cold air can be supplied at the top of the room and will fall into the lower part is an advantage from one angle, yet it is likely to cause trouble from another. Since the supply air is heavier than the room air it tends to drop, and if the supply is not properly placed, the main stream will enter the occupied zone and create very objectionable drafts. There are two ways of locating the outlet to avoid this. The grille can be placed (in the wall) high enough above the floor so that the air will have lost most of its velocity and reached the opposite wall before it falls to the occupied zone; or the grille may be placed just above the six-foot level and the air deflected up toward the ceiling. The latter method is the more effective, because by arching the air toward the ceiling, the supply air can be coming up to room temperature (as the air travels) on the way up to the ceiling and also on the way down. Or in effect, there is twice as much height above the occupied zone as actually exists. This method is particularly effective where the ceilings are not quite high enough to supply the air in the conventional way or when it is desirable to put the ducts down near the six-foot level, as under a balcony or on top of shelves, or clothes racks.”

From the foregoing, it can be seen that room volume and ceiling height are of extreme importance in relation to heating or cooling load requirements, and that allowable space for distribution must be carefully considered. Unsuccessful air conditioning in existing premises is fre-
Figure 24 shows a staged supply for a large area. Note the separate trunk duct for the outlet nearest the window.

Figure 25. Air is discharged upward along the outside wall to control its inside surface temperature by air controlled separately from the main air-conditioning system.

Figure 26. Movement of air across the room. The air-distributing space ordinarily required may be saved for conditions where high heat loads demand a rapid air change.

quently traceable to the limitations imposed by spatial conditions.

On the other hand, close attention and experienced analysis can effect improvements of air distribution for almost any setup. If close cooperation between architect and engineer exists in the early stages of planning, sufficient study usually yields a solution acceptable to both parties. Nevertheless, spatial handicaps are frequent.

Consider the main auditorium of a theater, visualizing a section. Here the air-conditioning engineer has ample space to work with above the occupied zones; yet drafts are a common experience. There is no real excuse for it. But an extreme illustration like this exposes a real need for cautious planning.

Theater mezzanines are inherently troublesome by their very nature, with high heat loads and low ceilings. In a recently designed auditorium, the air supply to the top mezzanine was correctly discharged toward the rear of the house. The grilles were "painted in."

Except for mezzanines, auditoriums and the like pro-
vide ideal opportunities for superior work, because the direction people face when seated is known. The upshot of all this is that air conditioning, to be right, begins with air distribution; and the crux of the matter lies in a minimum building cube for horizontal ducts and for diffusion-space.

The ideal space for air conditioning implies a windowless compartment or its equivalent. By equivalent is meant space with inside wall surfaces having the same temperature as the air of the occupied zone. There can be glass, but it requires more than double glass to do this, unless, as previously stated, the glass is "covered" by the air supply, or is separately heated.

Figure 25 shows such an arrangement to provide body-radiation control by a vertical discharge of the air stream, one of the many possible arrangements. A separate duct serves a multiple of floor grilles in each room, the air supply from these grilles being thermostatically regulated so as to control the inside surface temperature of the wall, the temperature of the inside surface of the glass brick windows being governed accordingly.

For a theoretical basis for comparing existing practice in air distribution, it would be well to consider moving the air across the room as indicated in Figure 26. This is impracticable, of course, under most conditions. Opposite walls are perforated, with a "pressure" air plenum behind each, connected to a supply and return air duct, respectively. Air volume is set to provide the desired velocity for air motion. Considerably more air is handled, and the temperature differential would be very low, so low that people could comfortably sit adjacent to either wall. The net effect is the same as being outside in a slight breeze. The high air volume coupled with a displacement-effect would solve the problems of smoke and odor.

Whereas the scheme is impracticable in large buildings because of excessive costs of lost floor space, it is practicable for residences and small buildings.

The presentation of this mode of air distribution is made to show what we should be doing, if the sensation of a pleasant outside breeze is the measure of quality. But comparison with outside conditions productive of a comfortable sensation can hardly be made with customary modes of air distribution, except perhaps in large spaces, similar to auditoriums in size.

It can be observed by reference to Figure 26 that the air-distributing space at the ceiling required by contemporary practice may be saved for those conditions in which there are high heat loads demanding a rapid air change.

This is no conjecture: in fact, there is a case at hand in which the writer was called in after the basic design was developed. Air-motion tests were conducted proving that the story height was inadequate. But this was incidental, since the tests were made to determine the best arrangement to meet spatial conditions called for by completed plans.

If we could get tight construction, there is considerable merit, as the next best arrangement, to the scheme just considered of horizontal air-flow, to the perforated ceiling. This is commercially available in combination with an acoustical material. The same thing may be closely effected with a number of "anemostats" to produce a low velocity blanket of air (see Figure 27).
Building Volume and Cost Trends

By CLYDE SHUTE, Manager, Statistical & Research Division, F. W. Dodge Corporation

Method for Use of Charts

AN APPROXIMATION to accuracy of construction cost data on materials and labor combined can only be obtained by determination of cost trends.

The base data for the charts displayed on these two pages have been secured from F. H. Boeckh & Associates, Incorporated.

The United States average for each type of construction for 1926-1929 is used as the base period, or 100, because prices of both labor and materials showed greatest stability during these years.

Six general construction types will be presented, at the rate of two per month, because the quantities of the different building materials and the amounts of the different classes of labor vary in each type of building. The six types* to be shown will appear in the following order: (1) Brick, (2) Steel, (3) Frame, (4) Brick and Wood, (5) Brick and Concrete, and (6) Brick and Steel.

Sixteen representative but widely scattered cities will be shown monthly for each type displayed because material prices and labor rates are different in the various localities and do not change at the same time in all cities, nor to the same degree.

The index numbers indicate the relationship of the current or reproduction cost of a building at any given time, in any given place, to the 1926-1929 United States average cost for an identical building.

The plotting of the data provides readers with a quick and efficient method of construction cost comparisons.

*The first four types were presented in December, 1937, pp. 75-77 and January, 1938, pp. 65-67.

CONSTRUCTION COST INDEX

B r i c k a n d C o n c r e t e B u i l d i n g s

A R C H I T E C T U R A L R E C O R D
Reviews of New Books


This book is intended to show the developments that have taken place in the design of apartments in all countries in recent years and to demonstrate one solution to the vexing problem of housing—the provision of homes in multi-story buildings. The authors attempt to show: first, the type of building that fulfills modern requirements, and that has actually been built, though not in ideal surroundings; second, the type of urban development in which such buildings could, on a larger scale, become units.

In the past the standard of living was whittled down to the lowest level that people would endure. It is only recently that standards have improved to something approaching comfort in modern apartments designed on scientific lines.

A study is made by the authors to determine the way in which the average family is housed in this decade: size of family, its members and what they do in the apartment in leisure time; the ownership of objects required for urban living; the requirements of health in the way of light, activity and so on. From these facts, spaces and their relationship are considered and composed as plan.

Group projects are rather fully covered as the setting for apartment location and relationships. There are illustrated examples of apartment housing to give some idea of the change that is possible when public authorities take over and clear large areas in existing towns or develop new areas.

The book contains 200 pages, size 11¼ x 8½”, bound in cloth.


This volume forms the culmination of studies in Hispanic-American architecture extending over a quarter of a century. Beginning in 1911, Rexford Newcomb has written upon various aspects of the art expression of Old Spain in the United States. This volume contains illustrations and text on architecture of Spanish-Colonial California but also historic examples from each of those states where the Spanish-Colonial developed a worthy architectural expression.


Listing of building stones in the state of Minnesota and discussion of their qualities.


This book was written for real estate men, banks, investment houses, architects and builders. It shows (1) how to manage an apartment house in order to bring the greatest return with the least labor; (2) how to rent an apartment building at a low cost; (3) when and how to invest money in apartment buildings.


Discussion of period styles.


Illustrations and working drawings of Dutch houses and other buildings, including details of windows, doors and wall sections.

RETAIL STORES—- a reference study in the BUILDING TYPES section — starts on page 101.
Classic simplicity is the keynote of this charming House of Glass, recently completed on New York's Fifth Avenue for the Corning Glass Works and Steuben Glass, Inc. Obviously dominant features are the vast areas of glass block construction on both facades.

Here we see employed the most modern of present-day building materials, and happily framed within a decorative metal that is equally modern in aesthetic qualities.

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INSTALLATION DATA

<table>
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<table>
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<td>18&quot;</td>
<td>600 Watts</td>
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</tbody>
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April . . . . . . $ 7,500—$15,000
September . . . $15,000—$25,000
October . . . . $25,000 and up

During 1938 the Record will publish in its Building Types section four separate reference studies on houses. Beginning in March with a survey of houses costing $7,500 or less, each study will provide a wide range of information on residential planning, construction and equipment. Though each will be complete in itself, the four at the year's end will represent a comprehensive, practical and valuable reference file on this significant phase of architectural activity.

The March study is being developed as a composite report on architectural and building progress in the $7,500-and-under price range. Small house designers throughout the country have been queried regarding planning and construction practices, equipment requirements, specification standards, etc. On the basis of their replies, the Building Types section in March will reflect in illustration, text, diagrams and tabular material, those practices now current in every department of small house design. Supplementing this will be a record of technical advances suggesting progress toward improved standards for tomorrow's small one-family dwelling.

Studies to appear in April, September and October will deal with larger houses. But each will be just as much concerned with practical and progressive methods for planning, constructing and equipping one-family dwellings the more efficiently to meet the varied living requirements of architects' clients.

Thus, in 1938, readers of Architectural Record will receive—in addition to reports from month to month on new houses in the News section, and trends in house design analyzed from time to time in the Design Trends section—a usable, working file of reference information on the subject which today is in the headlines.

*Building Types is the trademarked name for a 32-46 page reference study on selected types of buildings appearing in Architectural Record every month.

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FEBRUARY 1938 93
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ARCHITECTURAL RECORD

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Activities in Retail Store Design

By R. Stanley Sweeley

A retail store may be defined as an establishment for "purveying goods to ultimate consumers for consumption or utilization, together with services incidental to the sale of goods." Included under this definition are department stores selling a diverse assortment of goods; large or small shops selling only one type of commodity; urban or suburban groups of shops independently operated but having some common facility such as a parking area or delivery service.

In every type of store the following must be provided:

1. Adequate areas and equipment for the display of merchandise to passersby as well as to those who enter the store.

2. Sales areas: these may be developed as comparatively independent departments for various types of merchandise sold; or a more open planning in which maximum visibility of all goods may be desired, and segregation of any department is then carefully avoided.


4. Areas and equipment for administration: employee activities, receipt, storage and dispatch of merchandise.

These must be functionally integrated within a plant that will maintain economically a comfortable environment for customers and employees with all necessary services and protection for occupants and goods.

The United States Department of Commerce Census on Retail Distribution, published in June 1937, presents a detailed and comparative summary of the retail business of the country for the years 1935, 1933, and 1929. Findings most relevant for designers are these:

1. Total number of stores increased 8.4% from 1933 to 1935.
2. Independently operated stores increased more than 9%; the number of chain stores decreased 8.2% and showed a 2.6% relative decrease in total sales volume, still accounting, however, for almost 23% of the total.

The report further states that there were in operation in 1935, 1,653,961 retail stores of all types, and in the period since 1929 an average count of almost 1,600,000; more than 110,000 or roughly 7% of these have a sales volume of $50,000 or more annually, and do more than 53% of the total business in dollar volume. The greater part of architect-designed stores were probably in this latter classification. During the first 11 months of 1937, 11,064 store construction contracts were awarded in the 37 Eastern States. Assuming 1937 to have been a normal year, eight or ten years may then be taken as the life expectancy of the physical plant of the average store. This is a relatively high factor of obsolescence; perhaps no other building type is affected as quickly or as positively as the retail store in its competition for public attention. New enterprise constantly forces a more rapid utilization by all stores of improved techniques for attracting attention in the display and sale of merchandise.

Thus, lighting for display and advertising purposes offers new opportunities and demands new standards in store design. In this connection, the increased use of glass is an important factor. Less reliance is being placed on the older and now almost archaic "hung-on" sign. New lighting equipment and methods offering increased opportunities for the use of color, more precise control of levels of illumination, new patterns and combinations are being perfected.

By a more complete exploitation of these developments, merchandising can be brought more forcefully to the customer's attention and can be more conveniently inspected as well.

Surveys indicate that stores represent a likely field for air conditioning. It is reasonable to suppose that competition will hasten the adoption of year-round air conditioning by increasing numbers of retail stores. Certainly the designer should, wherever possible, make some provision for its future installation.

Store modernization usually requires greater ingenuity and more precise scheduling of construction activities than other types of building, because it is essential that there be the least possible interference with business operations. Sales areas must be kept open; customer comfort must not be sacrificed unduly; entrances must be kept free from scaffolding or other barriers. In smaller stores these conditions can be satisfied more readily than in larger ones where structural changes or additions make the work more complex and difficult.

A current example of major modernization has been included in this study to indicate the methods and results of a complete alteration of an existing structure and its integration with a large addition, without seriously hampering the normal selling of merchandise.

As in other building types studies, it is impossible to include all aspects of retail store design in the space available. Specialty stores have been presented here in detail because they represent a considerable portion of total work; they are fourth in volume as well as in numbers; further they represent a large and important section of most department stores.**

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** For further reference to the subject of retail stores, see AR, Building Types, 2/17, 7/38; see also Retail Shops by Bryan Westwood and Norman Westwood, Architectural Press, 1937.
Details for Specialty Shops

By EDWIN CORDES, Architect

Specialty shops, because of their rapid increase and their tendency toward obsolescence every eight or ten years, offer to the architect a consistency of demand sadly lacking in other types of buildings.

Included in the general classification of specialty shops are apparel, millinery and shoe shops forming the women’s group, and the haberdashery, clothing, hat and shoe stores forming the men’s group. Economically and numerically, the most important of these at present is the women’s group—more especially, the shops which cater to the woman in industry and in business. The very fashionable and exclusive shops dealing in individually styled merchandise must of necessity have individually styled settings and the details and standards discussed here cannot be applied to this group.

In 1937, the Division of Women in Industry of the New York State Labor Department estimated the average minimum clothing budget of the working woman at $196 annually. This tremendous volume, augmented as it is by the patronage of non-business women—housewives, school girls, etc.—to whom this type of store is just as appealing, constitutes a large percentage of the 12 billion dollars spent annually on women’s wear, an industry which is rapidly assuming the proportions of one of the largest in the country.

Compactness is a great asset in this type of store. Its convenient layout permits the purchase of numerous articles—hosiery, underwear, dress, hat, suit or coat—in the limited period of one lunch hour. In this respect alone the specialty store has a tremendous advantage over the department store, where the purchase of these different items necessitates shopping over large floor areas and numerous trips on crowded escalators and elevators.

The specialty business is a highly competitive one and sources of supply are open to all; the merchant must make his store outstanding in every respect to attract trade. The setting and general presentation of merchandise must be as smart and up-to-the-minute as the merchandise itself; the value of modernization has proven itself time and again in increased business.

Show Windows

Since the show window is generally the specialty shop’s only advertising medium, show windows should be large enough to accommodate as much merchandise as can be displayed to advantage; merchandise assortments of every line carried by the store are usually put on view in the windows.

Second-floor windows are generally considered useless for the display of merchandise; but they are sometimes used for color and decoration in place of meaningless architectural ornament. Such windows are particularly dependent on adequate lighting of high intensity.

Whether finished decorative show window backs of wood, mirrors, etc., of more or less permanent nature are preferable to plain plaster or sheetrock for application of temporary displays is a controversial subject. The answer depends upon location, trade and the personal preferences of the owner. Reflectors in deep windows should be switched to permit lighting of the part farthest from street first, gradually working toward the front as natural light fades.
show window in Figure 2, first floor, indicates such a wiring arrangement, 
the numerals indicating the independ-
ently controlled circuits. Outlets for 
night lights and for spotlights should 
be provided.

**Interior Displays**

Since the primary purpose of dis-
plays is to sell more merchandise, 
they should, wherever possible, be 
planned to accommodate an ensemble 
of merchandise rather than just a 
single article. The location of eye 
level displays usually solves itself. 
Corridors, existing breaks in walls 
where the fixture line must neces-
arily break, and returns at stairways 
elevators lend themselves readily 
to display purposes. While the sell-
ing value of displays above the eye 
level is open to question, as in the 
case of exterior second-floor win-
dows, the introduction of properly 
illuminated recesses in areas above 
the wall cases lends interesting notes 
of color and decoration to the interior.

**Sales Space and Merchandise Layout**

Figures 1 and 2 show typical ar-
rangements of women's apparel stores 
ranging from a small store—a one-
floor layout on a narrow lot—to a 
more pretentious one. Here, as far 
as possible, all merchandise is dis-
played for selection by the customer. 
The smaller, faster-selling articles are 
kept well up toward the front of the 
store where the customer must pass 
the way to and from the dress and 
coat departments located either at the 
back of the store or on the upper 
floors.

**Shoe Shop**

The store illustrated in Figure 3 is 
typical of the so-called family shoe 
store in the medium-price range.

Today's standards in shoe store 
planning eliminate towering racks of 
stock boxes and rolling ladders. A 
small stockroom in the rear of the 
store with shelving to the ceiling pro-
vides required stock space. Hosiery 
is a very important and profitable 
sideline in all shoe stores and many 
carry in addition a limited line of 
handbags. Placing the entrance door 
off center permits the 
grouping of cases and dis-
plays for the accommoda-
tion of these accessories, 
with the wraper's and 
cashier's desk in a minimum of 
floor and wall space.
INTERIORS AND UNITS

VIEW 1 (First Floor)
Showing underwear and sportswear units

View 2 (First Floor)
Showing blouse units and hanging cases

VIEW 3 (Second Floor)
Showing hanging cases and wrapping unit
**Hanging Case**

**Blouse Unit**

**Sports Wear Unit**

**Hosiery Unit**

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**AN ECONOMICAL FORM OF HANGING CASE WHERE COSTS MUST BE KEPT TO A MINIMUM**

**This is the more widely used type of hanging case. These are built up in the shop in units averaging 8 in length. Tongued and grooved finish is fastened from the side.**

**DETAILS OF UNITS**

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**EXHIBITED GARMENT HANGERS SEE PLAN FOR SPACING**

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**SAFES**

**Plan**

**Isometric**

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**SCALES**

**Plans:**

**Isometrics:**

**Details:**
DETAILS OF UNITS FOR SPECIALTY SHOPS

Fitting Rooms

Shoe Cases

Bag Counter and Back Bar

Millinery "Try-on" Tables
Corner locations are vastly preferable for drugstores. It is safe to say that there is a difference of at least one-third in the volume of business done in a corner as against an inside location. There is probably no other business in which corner-location is as important a factor.

Chain 5-and-10 cent stores or 25 cents-to-$1 stores, chain lingerie stores, etc., thrive best in groups, because they establish centers which attract volume. This does not apply to drugstores where close proximity with competing stores would create damaging competition.

Traffic factors are:
(a) Volume.
(b) Sex proportion: a cigar trade naturally depends on a majority of men in the traffic, a drug business on a fairly equal division.
(c) Quality: upon quality of the traffic depends the per capita purchase; this is followed by the corollary, that the larger the per capita purchase, the smaller the handling cost.

Lines of business catering to men usually thrive best in office building areas. As a rule, stores at transportation stations are desirable. Location of the entrance in such instances must be considered; an inside store directly opposite the station entrance is frequently better than a corner store with a distance of a few yards intervening.

Space Allocations

The usual minimum size of a drugstore should be 20' x 80'; the usual maximum 35' x 100'. The usual minimum size of a cigar store should be 15' x 25'; the usual maximum 25' x 60'.

In the average drugstore, the cigars occupy a space 6' x 50'; cosmetics,

Typical Layouts for a Drugstore, 30' x 80'
drugs and sundries 7' x 80'; prescription department 8' x 12'; book section 7' x 20'; telephones 10' x 2'-6'. Of course, the sizes given depend upon the size of the store, and the allocations of space to the various departments depend upon the amount of business estimated for a particular location. For instance, in some locations the cigar business may not be as good as in another. Perhaps the prescription department can be entirely eliminated in other sections.

**Basement**

A basement is usually available for:

(a) Storage: separate areas for merchandise of each department, and for display materials.

(b) Service pantry: food storage and preparation; cooking, to be connected to soda fountain by dumbwaiters and signal system; facilities for dishwashing; china, glass, silverware storage.

(c) Toilets, provided with dressing rooms.

(d) Lockers for employees.

(e) Mechanical equipment, including refrigeration for soda fountain.

(f) Slop sinks and storage of cleaning equipment.

**Integration**

The Cigar Department is usually best located across the front of the store; that is, close to the entrances. The buyer of cigars and tobacco is thus enabled to make purchases without inconvenience. The payment of soda checks can then be made at the cigar counter too.

The Soda Fountain is located close to the main entrance. The Cosmetic Department is generally placed opposite the soda fountain and at the front of the store. Next to it comes the Drug, Sundry and Household Items Department. The Prescription Department is extended across the rear of the store taking in a space about ten feet in length. The Book Department is placed in the rear. Three or more telephone booths are allotted to a store.

**Furniture and Equipment**

A standard cigar case is eight or ten feet in length with a glass top and front, hermetically sealed and equipped with proper humidors. The cigar wall cases should be metal-lined and hermetically sealed. The cosmetic floor cases should have mirror backs, sliding doors, glass shelves on movable brackets and illuminated with case reflectors. The wall cosmetic cases should be mirror-
lined with movable glass shelves, sliding doors, and illuminated with case reflectors. The drug section should have drug sundry case. Top of case may be of linoleum, with section for wrapping at least 2'-6" long and at least two feet of space for a cash register, with proper storage under. The wall drug cases should be equipped with open shelving. The prescription department should be equipped with pill drawers, narcotic case and other equipment necessary to compound drugs, together with a sink with hot and cold running water.

The soda fountain front bar usually is for storage of ice cream and is equipped with a salad unit and sink section with proper drainboards. These, in most cases, are made of stainless steel. The counter usually is faced with tile, marble, metal or plastic materials, with metal strip or molding. The top of the counter may be linoleum with edging of metal or plastic material. A three-run chromium-plated footrest is now commonly used in place of the linoleum-covered step. This is much cleaner and requires less attention. It is more convenient for the customer.

Stools are revolving, 12"-diameter seats, with or without a back rest, and are spaced 2' o.c. Required clearance from center of seat to edge of counter is 18".

The back bar accommodates a steam table, hot grill, drink mixers, fudge warmers, toasters (gas or electric), burners and warmers for coffee making and a cash register. The steam table is usually constructed of stainless metal. The back bar counter itself may be built of plastic material of a suitable color, as may the cupboards also.

The usual fountain requires two 1/2-h.p. refrigerator compressors, one carbonator, one 5,500-watt electric outlet for toaster or a 3/4" gas outlet for a gas toaster, a 3/4" gas outlet for the grill, necessary plumbing to sinks, hot and cold water supply, drains for creamer units, salad unit, steam table and necessary chilled drinking water.

**Mechanical Equipment**

The mechanical equipment required is mostly in the soda fountain, which needs electrical refrigeration, electric carbonators, electric exhaust fan for service pantry and back bar; electric fans are necessary if the store is not air conditioned; gas water-heater, gas stove, electric outlets for cash registers and check throwing machines may also be needed.

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**Isometric of Typical Candy Case with Wrapping Counter at end**

**Architectural Record**

**Building Types**
Display Lighting in Retail Stores

By O. P. Cleaver, Westinghouse Electric & Manufacturing Co.

Light can be made to perform three major functions in displays, whether they be inside or outside the store.

1. Light can make displays easily and quickly visible.
2. It can compel attention to a display.
3. It can make a display novel and exceptional.

Psychologists have found that approximately 87% of all impressions are visual; and obviously a display must be seen if it is to sell merchandise. Since a pedestrian takes less than seven seconds to pass the average show window the display must appeal strongly and quickly to his buying instincts.

Tests have revealed that well-lighted display windows have actually changed pedestrian traffic from one side of the street to the other; and likewise, interior displays which command attention through the use of higher levels of illumination have caused store traffic to increase in their vicinity, thus increasing sales.

Display lighting must be considered in its application to showcases, show windows, shelves and sales areas. The level of illumination and the use of color are all-important factors.

Required Level of Illumination

The level of illumination to be recommended depends upon the locality, the backgrounds and merchandise displayed, and the habits of the passersby. All of these factors have been given proper weight based on average conditions, and the levels of illumination given in Table I represent the best practice in cities of the sizes indicated. The recommendations, however, are for night illumination and for windows with relatively light backgrounds, and without color screens on the reflectors. If color screens are employed the wattage should be multiplied by four for blue screens, doubled for red, and at least 50% added for green. No increase is necessary for amber or yellow-colored screens.

The levels of illumination recommended in the table for show windows apply only to the general illumination from standard window lighting equipment spaced as indicated in Table II. Where special spotlighting of merchandise is used, these values for the general illumination on backgrounds, etc. may be less, while the level on the merchandise is maintained as recommended or increased, thereby improving the attention-getting value of the window. Where colored lighting is used for general illumination in conjunction with the floodlighting of the articles displayed, the foot-candles of general illumination may be less than recommended in the table, since the greater attraction value of the colored light will make up for the loss of effectiveness caused by lower brightness.

Show Window Lighting Equipment

A number of methods of installing reflectors with accessories such as opal or prismatic glass cover plates and several types of louvers to aid in glare elimination are shown in Figure 1. The reflecting surfaces of these are usually either polished metal, mirrored or prismatic glass, each designed to distribute the light properly in the usual types of show windows.

In addition to individual reflectors, continuous troughs extending the length of the window, with reflecting surfaces similar to those described are also available for use where little
space for concealment is possible, where the viewing angles are such that glare may easily result. These troughs may have opal or prismatic glass cover plates to direct the light and to aid in the elimination of glare.

Narrow troughs in portable form are convenient for lighting in small display cases. These cases segregate the small articles and make possible the use of very high levels of illumination in an economical manner (Figure 2).

Since the show window is a veritable stage, footlights and narrow strips of so-called border lights may be installed to destroy objectionable shadows cast by overhead units; and to build up the general illumination level on the display or background. Border lights should always be so placed in the windows that the bare lamps are never in direct view of the observer. Frequently this is difficult in island and corner windows, but the difficulty is often solved by using these borders as part of the background, illuminating it as well as the display.

Showcase and Wall Case Lighting Equipment

The usual small wall and showcase lighting equipment consists of either mirrored glass reflectors using standard Mazda lamps, properly spaced, or continuous troughs designed for either tubular or lumiline Mazda lamps. These troughs are inconspicuous and may be placed to the front and at the top of the case.

Individual reflectors are usually installed on 12 to 24-in. centers and equipped with 25-watt tubular lamps. Where a relatively higher order of illumination is provided in the store itself, or where dark goods are displayed, 40 to 50-watt tubular lamps should be used. Trough-type reflectors are usually installed with 25-watt lamps on 12, 18 or 24-in. centers. Where a higher order of illumination is desired, the 12" 40-watt and 18" 30 and 60-watt lumiline lamps have made possible continuous lines of light. Their diameter of only 1" and the variety of colors in which they are obtainable make unusual and attractive effects possible within an extremely small space. Standard reflectors are also available for these lamps.

For larger display cases, principally wall cases, regular show window reflectors may be used; or they may have lamps in continuous troughs in the ceiling of the case; such troughs may be covered either with opal glass or prismatic plates for directing the light asymmetrically. Then, too, a special louver can be used to conceal the lamps from view in such a trough, or louvers can be used on the usual type of window reflector recessed in the ceiling at proper intervals.

Luminous backgrounds of opal glass may be employed for illuminating displays, especially of transparent glassware such as bottles containing liquids, or for silhouetting merchandise to produce unusual effects.

Show Window Lighting Design

In the design of show window lighting, every effort should be made to conceal bright-surfaced light sources from direct view, and sufficient light must be available for the seeing task involved. With the use of dark backgrounds, the next larger size of lamp specified in Table I should be installed to compensate for the greater absorption of light by the dark colors. To select the proper type of reflector to produce the level of illumination found necessary, the mounting height above the floor, the depth of the window from front to back, and the height of the background display must be known. With
this information, Table III can be used to find the correct type and selection can be made from any manufacturer’s catalog.

Lighting equipment for special effects should be adaptable and, whenever possible, portable. Therefore, duplex convenience outlets should be located at the front of the window at each side, top and bottom, over the window opening, and at the rear on each side of the permanent background. Further flexibility is obtained if these outlets are not all on the same circuit, and not on the circuit with the window reflectors.

**Wall Case Lighting Design**

The illumination in the wall case should also be approximately four times the value of the general store illumination. These cases may be illuminated with small individual reflectors similar to the type used in show windows, employing 60-watt lamps on 24-in. centers for the usual installation; tubular or line luminaire lamps will also be found satisfactory. The use of diffusing glass panels in the tops of the cases is also suitable. These should be 12" deep running the entire length of the case, and having 60-watt A-21 bulb lamps located on 18 to 24-in. centers placed horizontally about 5" above the glass. For maximum utilization of light, the lamps should be covered by a metal housing either polished or finished in white on the inside.

**Display Shelves**

The level of illumination on the vertical should not vary more than five to one from the topmost shelf to the one at the floor if the illumination is to be effective. Usually these requirements are met by: (1) A continuous trough of lamps along the top and extending out from the edge of the shelf; (2) Small individual reflectors on short arms spaced properly at the top; (2) Prismatic lighting fixtures suspended or fastened to the ceiling, directing the light on the shelves at an angle.

If a continuous trough is used, lamps of 40 to 100 watts should be installed per running foot, depending upon the height of the shelving and the nature of the display. (See Table II.) The reflecting surface and location of the troughs away from the edge of the top shelf should be such that the rays will be directed to the bottom shelf without too great a reduction in foot-candles as compared to the illumination level at the top.

### Table III—Design Data for Show Window Reflectors

| Mounting Height or Height from Floor to Ceiling in Feet | Distance from Front to Back of Window in Feet | Height of Background or Display 1 to 2 Feet | 2 to 3 Feet | 3 to 4 Feet | 4 to 5 Feet | 5 to 6 Feet | 6 to 7 Feet | 7 to 8 Feet | 8 to 9 Feet | 9 to 10 Feet | 10 to 11 Feet | 11 to 12 Feet | 12 to 13 Feet | 13 to 14 Feet | 14 to 15 Feet | 15 to 16 Feet |
|------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|--------------|
| 1 to 3                                               | F                                             | A                                         | B           |             |             |             |             |             |             |              |              |              |              |              |              |              |
| 4 to 6                                               |                                               |                                           |             | A           | A           | B           |             |             |             |              |              |              |              |              |              |              |
| 6 to 8                                               |                                               |                                           |             |             | C           | C           | C           |             |             |             |              |              |              |              |              |              |
| 8 to 10                                              |                                               |                                           |             |             |             | E           | E           | E           |             |             | D           | D           | D           | D           |             |              |
| 10 to 12                                             |                                               |                                           |             |             |             |             | E           | E           | E           |             | D           | D           | D           |             | D           | D           |
| 12 to 14                                             |                                               |                                           |             |             |             |             |             | E           | E           | E           |             | D           | D           | D           |             | D           | D           |
| 14 to 16                                             |                                               |                                           |             |             |             |             |             |             | E           | E           | E           |             | D           | D           | D           |             | D           | D           |

### Index to Lamp Size and General Classification of Reflectors

- A—Reflector for 100-watt A-23 lamp in average small store show windows.
- B—Reflector for 150-watt A-25 lamp in average size deep show windows.
- C—Reflector for 200-watt A-25 lamp in average size shallow show windows.
- D—Reflector for 250-watt PS-30 lamp in average size deep show windows.
- E—Reflector for 300-watt PS-35 lamp in average size narrow show windows.
- F—Concentrating type Reflector for 100-watt A-25 or 150-watt A-25 lamp in very shallow average show windows.
- G—Concentrating type Reflector for 200-watt PS-30 lamp in very shallow large show windows.
- H—Concentrating type Reflector for 300-watt PS-35 or 350-watt PS-40 lamp in very large shallow show windows.
- I—Reflector for 300-watt PS-35 or 500-watt PS-40 lamp in large deep show windows for High Intensity "Super-Lighting."
- J—Reflector for 300-watt PS-35 or 500-watt PS-40 lamp for large size narrow show windows for High Intensity "Super-Lighting."

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Example of Trough Lighting of Silhouette Signs. Hecht Co., Baltimore, Md. Alphons Bach, Designer
Novel changeable-letter luminous signs and silhouette signs can be combined with these troughs. Spill light from the reflecting equipment is used to illuminate the sign.

Individual reflectors should be of the concentrating type and so spaced that 40 to 100 watts per running foot are obtained. Each reflector should be mounted about one foot from the vertical surface of the shelf to insure proper distribution of light from top to bottom.

Where displays consist of only two or three shelves, a continuous trough, concealing lumiline lamps and mounted in the outer top edge of the shelving, may be used. In such cases the width of the shelving increases downward, the top shelf being narrowest and the bottom widest; thus, a uniform flood of light is directed over the shelves from a single light source.

**Color Lighting**

The color of any object depends upon the color of the light which it reflects. The apparent color is, therefore, dependent upon both the reflecting character of the surface and the color of the light by which it is illuminated. The following color lighting outline furnishes a guide in the selection of colors for walls, floors, ceilings and fixtures and for color lighting of any display.

**EFFECT OF COLORED LIGHT ON COLORED OBJECTS**

<table>
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<th>Color of Light</th>
<th>Actual Color of Objects</th>
<th>Apparent Color of Objects</th>
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</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Air Conditioning the Retail Store

By HAROLD L. ALT, Engineer

Air-Conditioning Consultant; Member of American Society of Heating and Ventilating Engineers; author of numerous books on air conditioning.

As in other building types the air-conditioning plant of the retail store presents in every specific instance an individual problem. Whether it is desired simply to have summer cooling, winter humidifying or year-round conditioning is a matter for the individual proprietor or owner to decide. It may be well to start by determining what the term "retail store" includes, so far as this discussion is concerned; for our purposes it will be considered here as any store in which goods are sold at retail over the counter and where no unusual production of heat or moisture occurs in the normal course of such sale. Thus, it would include all shops handling dry goods, wet goods in bottled form, clothing, millinery, food products and the like, but would exclude all restaurants, cafes, drugstores doing a hot-lunch counter business, beauty parlors, tailor shops and other businesses where heat and moisture are developed in the store. So far as air conditioning is concerned, a small department store will rank with a large retail store.

Trends

In general, it may be said that retail stores—especially those of smaller size—have not adopted air conditioning in any form as fast as department stores and restaurants; this has been due to a number of reasons, among which is the fact that the retail store is most frequently a rented property, in which the lease may be for a short period, resulting in the owner having no desire to install a system suited for one particular type of business when the next tenant may want an entirely different arrangement or—possibly—no conditioning at all. On the other hand, the tenant may not have the necessary capital, or—if he does have it—may hesitate to make the investment when he has no assurance of being in possession of the premises long enough to benefit sufficiently from the installation. Besides, the tenant of the small store frequently does not have the foresight, vision or initiative of the manager of the larger store. Nevertheless, considerable air conditioning has been done in retail stores of the chain store variety, possibly because of better financial backing and a broader viewpoint; every air-conditioning job installed is likely to produce others among the competitors of the store which has braved the cost and put in this type of system. So it is probable that retail stores will install air conditioning more and more as they are forced into it by competition.

Advantages

Winter conditioning consists of supplying heated air with a proper moisture content so that a relative humidity of 40 to 50% is maintained in the enclosure conditioned: there is a reduction in the dust in the store, less drying out of the materials handled and more healthful conditions for customers and employees. Summer air conditioning consists of supplying the store with cooled and dehumidified air so that reasonably comfortable conditions are maintained: customers are easier to please, some coming in simply to get out of the heat. It eliminates oppressiveness by keeping relative humidity down to 40 to 50%. The temperature in the shop should be kept about 15° F. below the outside temperature on the hottest days, tapering off as the outside temperature approaches 70° F., until at that point the shop and the outside are practically at the same temperature. This will prevent the damage and spoilage to stock which may be caused by unusually high relative humidities or damp air. But the big thing is customer comfort from which the employees incidentally also benefit. Year-round air conditioning has, throughout the year, the advantages enumerated in the foregoing.

So far retail store owners and managers have shown considerable interest in summer cooling, but very little in winter humidifying. This, undoubtedly, is because most retail shops are already provided with some form of heating; and the matter of humidification is one that the average customer does not notice. With cooling the reaction is much more pronounced; everyone is aware of the irritability produced by excessive temperature and the much more uncomfortable feeling produced by high humidities.

Disadvantages

It is often the practice of air-conditioning enthusiasts to present the advantages of air conditioning and to omit mentioning some of its disadvantages. The chief disadvantages in any air-conditioning installation consist of the following:

1. Initial cost of the work.
2. Operating expense.
3. Humidifying in winter must be reduced as the temperature drops.
4. Cooling in the summer cannot be lower than 15° F. under the outside temperature.
5. Space occupied by the equipment.
6. Equipment is not easily moved to other locations and probably is not suited to such locations if it is moved.
7. A certain amount of servicing and operating attention is required.

Balancing these factors, air conditioning is becoming less a luxury and more a necessity each year.

Size of System Required

In describing what a summer cooling system might mean in a retail store, stores of varying widths and depths have been calculated and the results tabulated on a comparative basis. The examples used are listed in Table I: it will be noted that they include small and large stores as well as stores of shallow and full depth. The amount of air to be circulated in an air-conditioning system is a function of the sensible heat to be removed from the room: from this it follows that heat entering the room
TABLE I—Types of Retail Stores Considered in This Discussion

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type Designation</th>
<th>Front Width Ft.</th>
<th>Depth Ft.</th>
<th>No. of Occupants Assumed</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>D</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>40</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>G</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

TABLE II—Air and Refrigeration Requirements

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Air Required: No Sun</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>B</th>
<th>C</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>E</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>G</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Size in Feet</td>
<td>25 x 50</td>
<td>40 x 50</td>
<td>25 x 100</td>
<td>60 x 50</td>
<td>40 x 100</td>
<td>60 x 100</td>
<td>100 x 100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Area in Sq. Ft.</td>
<td>1,250</td>
<td>2,000</td>
<td>3,750</td>
<td>4,000</td>
<td>6,000</td>
<td>6,000</td>
<td>10,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Btu. (Sensible)</td>
<td>50,500</td>
<td>78,700</td>
<td>95,500</td>
<td>116,300</td>
<td>145,350</td>
<td>213,000</td>
<td>345,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cfm. per Sq. Ft.</td>
<td>3,350</td>
<td>5,250</td>
<td>6,400</td>
<td>7,800</td>
<td>9,550</td>
<td>14,200</td>
<td>23,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cfm. per Cu. Ft.</td>
<td>0.27</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.25</td>
<td>0.26</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.24</td>
<td>0.23</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

With Sun Effect on Front and Roof

| Btu. (Sensible)      | 50,500 | 78,700 | 95,500 | 116,300 | 145,350 | 213,000 | 345,000 |
| Sun Btu.             | 22,500 | 36,000 | 54,000 | 56,000 | 64,000 | 140,000 |
| Total Cfm.           | 73,000 | 114,700 | 130,500 | 170,300 | 201,350 | 279,000 | 485,000 |
| Cfm. per Sq. Ft.     | 3.9 | 3.8 | 3.48 | 3.8 | 3.4 | 3.2 | 3.2 |
| Cfm. per Cu. Ft.     | 0.39 | 0.38 | 0.35 | 0.38 | 0.34 | 0.32 | 0.32 |

Refrigeration Required: No Sun

| Total Tons           | 8.75 | 13.98 | 16.90 | 20.67 | 25.25 | 35.38 | 60.25 |
| Tons per Sq. Ft.     | 0.0070 | 0.0069 | 0.0067 | 0.0069 | 0.0063 | 0.0059 | 0.0060 |
| Tons per Cu. Ft.     | 0.0007 | 0.0007 | 0.0007 | 0.0007 | 0.0006 | 0.0006 | 0.0006 |

With Sun Effect on Front and Roof

| Total Tons           | 12.84 | 20.14 | 23.46 | 30.17 | 35.10 | 47.15 | 84.55 |
| Tons per Sq. Ft.     | 0.0103 | 0.0100 | 0.0093 | 0.0100 | 0.0088 | 0.0078 | 0.0085 |
| Tons per Cu. Ft.     | 0.0010 | 0.0010 | 0.0009 | 0.0010 | 0.0009 | 0.0008 | 0.0009 |

or store from the outside is dependent on the areas included within six sides (four walls, floor and ceiling), the construction used for these areas and the coefficient of heat transmission for the construction, if all other things remain equal. The quantity of air circulated also must absorb all other sensible heat production in the room, such as electric lighting and body heat from the occupants. Figure 1 gives the floor plans of the various types of shop arrangement considered: an average ceiling height of 10 ft. was assumed in all cases. The electric lighting was taken to be about 3 watts per sq. ft. and the number of occupants—employees and customers—was assumed as shown in Table I.

The walls were considered as 12-in. brick, which has about the same efficiency of heat transmission as frame wall construction; store fronts were assumed to be entirely of glass; floors were considered as 3-in. concrete with single or double wood floor, and the ceiling was taken as lath and plaster with an air space between the ceiling and the construction, above which might be a roof or a floor. It is found that the changes in building construction are not likely to make any great difference in the amount of air required except in extreme instances; but the amount of sun effect, particularly on the roof of a one-story shop, exerts a considerable added heat load with a corresponding increase in the amount of air and size of system required. The results of such air-conditioning calculations are shown in the first portion of Table II; it will be seen that there is really a very small variation in the quantity of air required either on a square foot basis or a cubic foot basis, running from 2.7 cfm. per sq. ft. in the small shops down to 2.3 cfm. per sq. ft. in the larger shops.

Sun Effect on Front and Roof

If the shop is situated so that sun effect will be experienced on the front and roof—which means a one-story shop facing east, south or west, and not shaded by adjacent buildings—the increase in the amount of air will be found in the second portion of Table II to be raised to 3.9 cfm. per sq. ft. of floor area in the small shops and to 3.2 cfm. per sq. ft. in the larger shops. The latter portion of Table II carries the results of the refrigeration calculation, of which more will be said later. It will be noted from the figures that sun effect on the roof and front of a retail store will raise the size of the system almost 50%. This only emphasizes the desirability...
of ceiling insulation when such conditions occur.

It now is possible to plot the total cubic footage of air required per minute in thousands of cubic feet against the floor area of the shop in thousands of square feet, for shops with and without sun effect, which has been done in Figure 3; this permits the reading of the amount of air required for cooling shops up to 10,000 sq. ft. in area. Department stores of still larger areas should not vary much from these figures, since the greater amount of counter and display case lighting, combined with a larger number of persons in the store, would, to a considerable extent, offset the slight reduction in the ratio of outside wall to the floor area enclosed.

Types of Air-Conditioning Systems

There are two general types of air-conditioning systems in use; the older one—the central plant duct system—in which the conditioned air is carried in ducts from the central conditioning plant to the various points where it enters the room through grilles; and the later development of unit air conditioners through which the air is circulated. There are advantages and disadvantages for each type of system: the elimination of duct work and the space required, when units are used; and the elimination of several pieces of mechanism, with the substitution of one central unit, when the duct system is used. The floor space occupied by the units frequently proves a serious difficulty, although units may be placed in the cellar and short ducts carried up through the floor if desired.

In the duct system and with a shallow shop the scheme shown in Figure 4 may be used with economy, since it involves the minimum amount of duct work. But it is not suited for shops in which the distance from the supply grille to the front door is not more than 30 to 40 feet; beyond this, excessive velocities are likely to be required at the supply grille to throw the air to the front of the shop. In Figure 2 is shown a method in which a duct is carried along the ceiling, either in the form of a false beam or as a continuation of the cabinet or shelving work; there is a continuous slot or line of perforations throughout its length for the admission of air along the entire side of the shop. In a wider shop, it might be necessary to have such a duct on each side, as shown in Figure 5, in order to keep down the size of duct and to secure good distribution. In a very wide

Duct arrangement for stores of large floor area

Figure 7

Chart of required refrigeration capacities

Figure 8

Shop, similar ducts often are run down the ceiling with a supply duct on each side of a return circulation duct in the middle, as shown in Figure 7. By duplicating this arrangement at intervals of 30 to 60 feet, any width of shop or department store may be handled. The location of the conditioning equipment may be anywhere that space conditions permit, such as in a room at the rear of the shop or in the cellar.

If units are used there are two types to consider: one is the self-contained unit which has the refrigeration plant contained within it; the other is the unit which simply has the cooling surface and a fan or fans, with refrigerant or cold water supplied to the cooling surface from a central refrigeration plant located at some other point. The self-contained unit usually is not obtainable in sizes over ½-ton capacity, so that a considerable number of such units are required even for a very small shop; in fact, this type of unit is seldom used because of this difficulty. The units containing only the cooling surface and fan may be secured in sizes up to 5-ton capacity—even larger in some makes—and form a practical solution of cooling in the shop where floor space is available, or where they are placed in the cellar and piped up with ducts to the outlet locations desired. A typical arrangement of this type of installation is shown in Figure 6.

Refrigeration Plant

The refrigeration plant offers a number of solutions, but for the average retail store the common compression plant using Freon is most commonly employed. This refers to conditions where mechanical refrigeration must be used. Some retail stores have used well water alone when the water temperature has been sufficiently low and when the supply has been adequate to do the work; in other cases, well water at a higher temperature has been used to cool the air down through part of the range with mechanical refrigeration for the final reduction and dehumidifying work. City water has been similarly employed in conjunction with refrigeration, the water being first used for precooling the air and then for cooling water in the compressor and condenser. When all of these are impracticable a complete mechanical refrigeration plant must be installed. Cooling towers under 100 tons of refrigeration capacity seldom prove economically practicable; although they are out of the picture for the ordinary retail store, they are, however, frequently employed in the larger systems of big department stores.

The refrigeration capacities for the various types of store have been computed in Table II, to which about 10% has been added for the losses occurring in the cooling plant itself and in the distribution of air or water to the outlets or units. Plotting the refrigeration in a curve similar to that employed in Figure 2 for the air quantity then gives the results shown in Figure 8. It will be noted, however, that the refrigeration with 25% outside air used will approximate a maximum of about 2¾ tons for each 1,000 cu. ft. of air per minute system capacity.

Outside Air Supply

It is recognized generally that a certain amount of outside air must be injected into an enclosure which is air conditioned to prevent a sensation of stuffiness and the building up of odors. This is particularly important in stores handling rubber goods, oil cloth or linoleum, paints, oils or putty, artists’ supplies, shoes or other leather goods, etc. It is customary to make this admixture of outside air about 25% of the total.
When this is done—and it should always be done—only 75% of the air in the shop is returned to the apparatus for reconditioning; the other 25% leaks out through the doors, windows and other openings. Hot outside air does not enter the store, and all infiltration or leakage is prevented by maintaining a slight positive air pressure in the store.

This air, if secured from grilles located under the show windows and near the sidewalk, should be filtered before entering the apparatus and, if the return circulation air is filtered similarly and the dust removed, the air in the store will be much cleaner, the dust settlement will be reduced, materials will be less easily soiled. In small installations these filters may be of the dry mat variety, the sections of which must be cleaned or renewed when accumulated dirt begins to interfere with the flow of air. This introduces a servicing item in the system and one which is not likely to receive attention by the store proprietor, unless he is specially coached in the matter and made to realize that with a dirty filter he will receive a reduced amount of cooling; that, if allowed to continue, it will reach a point where he may receive no cooling at all.

**Costs**

A discussion of costs will, and must, be very general. The cost of any system will be affected by:

(a) Its general size and design.
(b) The use of union or nonunion labor.
(c) The locality in which the work is done.
(d) Whether it is for a new or an existing structure.
(e) Whether all the items of cost are included in the air conditioning, or whether some are concealed in work by other contractors.

For instance, the cost of the sheet metalwork required in Figure 4 would be almost negligible, while in the arrangement shown in Figure 2 it would be more; and in the arrangement given in Figure 5 it would be still more. Unit installations approximate the average cost for duct installations very closely so that the unit arrangement suggested in Figure 6, if of the same size and capacity, might run higher than the duct scheme in Figure 4, about the same as the method used in Figure 2, and probably would be cheaper than the double ducts used in Figure 5. After systems reach 40 to 50 tons in capacity, the cost per ton and per thousand cfm, of capacity is likely to approach a straight line until considerably larger systems are reached; then the longer duct runs, heavier metal, stiffening, better insulation, and usually a more strict specification cause an increase in the cost, especially when cooling towers are included.

Union labor in most parts of the country will run considerably higher than nonunion labor and the local rate of wages will have some reflection in the cost of the work. An installation in a city building is likely to be easier and cheaper than one in an existing building and, if a store is occupied, additional costs are necessary to conform to existing furniture and fixture arrangements, and for labor at a time when business will not be obstructed. In addition, there is the matter of how many and what items are included in the air-conditioning contract; does this contractor supply the grilles?; does he do the wiring and shading?; does he do the patching?; does he run electric services for the motors?; does he have to carry water and waste lines to the equipment?; does he do any furring in and plastering of concealed ducts? Often all of these are furnished or done by the trades involved and not by air-conditioning contractors, and so may be omitted from the complete air-conditioning cost in one case and not in another.

No attempt will be made here to approximate the costs of using well water exclusively for cooling, or for combinations of well water or city water and mechanical refrigeration; these are so variable that nothing of practical value can be offered. Where a complete mechanical plant is to go in, however, the costs assume a more settled form, although they will be only approximate as pointed out. In Figure 9, the approximate capacities of cooling systems in cfm, are given across the top of the chart, and the corresponding refrigeration capacity is shown along the scale at the bottom of the chart. The lower curve represents the cost in dollars per ton of capacity as read on the scale at the right, while the distance between the lower curve and the upper curve represents the added cost of the system outside the refrigeration plant, which makes the upper curve represent the total cost of the installation including complete mechanical refrigeration. A study of these curves indicates an almost equal division between the cost of the refrigeration plant and the cost of the other items in the system; also that down to about 30 to 40-ton capacity the total cost should approximate $300 per ton of capacity, while beyond this the smallness of the systems will raise the cost per ton slightly—sometimes materially. Beyond 100-ton capacity the curve may begin to rise again as larger plants with long duct runs and cooling towers begin to come into the picture.

Plants undoubtedly are installed at costs lower than indicated by the curves, such costs frequently being arrived at by not including all the items of cost incidental to the installation; or by the contractor failing to supply a complete or adequate installation. He may omit the insulation on the supply duct; he may fail to put soundproofing and an adequate foundation under the apparatus; he may use such high velocities in the ducts as to result in undersized ducts and the danger of air noise; he may install a constant speed motor; he may put in too small a fan and step the speed to get the necessary amount of air; and he may install a system which could not meet the test conditions of 80°F. in a room with 40 to 50% relative humidity when it is 95°F. outside with 50% relative humidity.

Because any cooling is a relief in hot weather, some satisfaction will be experienced if the conditions are relieved only during the peak periods, even though they may not be relieved to the maximum extent which experience has proven possible.
A DEPARTMENT STORE MODERNIZATION
THE JOHN SHILLITO COMPANY, CINCINNATI, OHIO

POTTER, TYLER & MARTIN Architects

Structurally interesting was the refacing of the old building. The old masonry walls were found to be still in excellent condition, but the lower stories were inadequate to carry the additional load of this new facing. A structural steel frame was designed extending from the foundation piers to the third-floor line. Heavy steel girders at the third floor carry the weight of the new limestone facing which extends to the roof, and additional beams at the lower floor levels carry the new masonry between the third floor and the new show windows. The columns of the structural steel framework are supported by concrete bolsters which distribute the load of the new wall to the old piers and buttresses.
In order that the addition should become an integral part of the older store, all columns in the interior of the new addition had to line up in both directions with the existing columns, so that aisles would be continuous throughout the entire selling space. This required certain columns of the new building to be located entirely inside the heavy brick supporting walls of the older structure. To have removed these walls before beginning would have necessitated a difficult and expensive shoring job, for the entire support of all of the present seven floors and roof would have had to be removed along two sides of the existing buildings. To avoid this, vertical slots of the exact width of the new columns were cut through the existing walls one story at a time. As soon as a slot had been cut, forms were erected on two sides and the reinforced concrete columns were poured in direct contact with the sides of the slot. This process was carried up one story at a time; provision was made at each floor line for the support of a reinforced concrete beam to be installed later.

This method of construction resulted in a minimum of interference with store operations; only a small portion of the existing wall at each new column location had to be barricaded off from the selling area. When this process had been completed to the roof, the old roof construction was shored up from the top floor just inside the exterior wall, which was then removed in the top story only. A reinforced concrete beam was then poured between the columns at the top floor line, and the weight of the top floor construction was transferred to this new beam by means of steel ledge angles. This process was repeated story by story until the entire old wall between the old and new sections of the store had been removed to the foundations.

The roofs are provided with a system of spray pipes. The roof drains can be set at any desired elevation above the roof surface so that water can be spread to the depth of several inches over the entire new roof area. It is expected that the insulation provided by this sheet of water will effect an appreciable improvement in hot weather in the top stories of the building, with a reduction in the load on the air-conditioning equipment.

The air-conditioning system has been installed throughout all of the selling areas. In this system, heating, ventilating and air conditioning have been combined in units located in each story. These have a direct connection to the outside so that fresh air is constantly being supplied. This air is washed and filtered, and is then supplied at a constant temperature and humidity by a system of ducts leading to all parts of the floor. To provide the necessary volume of water to be used in the refrigeration apparatus, two new wells have been driven approximately 180 ft. below the sub-basement floor. This gives a total of five wells now in operation, each producing approximately 150 gallons of water per minute.
A parking garage for the convenience of customers was incorporated into the design of the warehouse. The floors of the garage are staggered; each complete floor area has been built at two separate levels, the levels on one side of the dividing wall halfway between those on the other side. This permits the connection of these staggered floors by means of short ramps of moderate grade. Seven levels, representing three-and-a-half floors, are provided for parking purposes. There is direct access between garage and selling areas on the first floor.
A DEPARTMENT STORE
MODERNIZATION

Main Floor and Mezzanine

Men's Wear Department

Foyer of Beauty Salon

SCHEDULE OF EQUIPMENT AND MATERIALS

FOUNDATION
Reinforced concrete

STRUCTURE
Reinforced concrete, integral joint and slab

EXTERIOR
Walls
Indiana limestone, Ingalls Stone Co.; Alberene panels; brick backup; brick and stone in garage and warehouse sections, David Hummel Building Co.; granite base, Sauk Rapids Granite Co.

Roof
Flintcrete on garage; on new store section, 5-ply built-up asphalt—Philip Carey Co.

Sash
Fenestra "Fenmark" projected in garage and warehouse, Fenestra custom sections, fixed-type in store section; Pameroy in office section

Doors
Van Kannel revolving doors; Richmond fireproof doors in garage

Metalwork
Natural and nickel bronze combination, General Bronze Corp.

INTERIOR
Floors
Concrete with Master Builders—MetalCron in garage, warehouse and utility areas; Magnesite terrazzo on basement and first floors; upper floor carpeted, Parkey by Cinti Floor Co.

Walls
Plaster painted with Casein; garage, mechanical and warehouse areas concrete ceilings; Sanitized or unglazed double or triple brick

INSULATION
Rock wool over ceilings of office areas; Philip Carey Co., roof bonding of entire building

WATERPROOFING
Membrane on sidewalk slabs, spray coats on walls below grade; ironite on slabs at shipping and receiving platform, Western Waterproofing Co.

HEATING
Steam

AIR CONDITIONING
Year-round including workroom areas in warehouse; well water coolers, York Ice Machine Co., unit heaters and direct radiation in garage and warehouse

HARDWARE
Solid bronze, J. B. Schrader Co.

LIGHTING
First floor, new section, Curtis Lighting, Inc.; indirect X-ray louvered reflectors in show windows

PLUMBING
John Douglas fixtures

FURNISHINGS
Grand Rapids Store Equipment Co., or manufactured by owner
A CHAIN
DEPARTMENT
STORE

J. C. PENNEY STORE
DENVER, COLORADO

FRANK WALTER FREWEN and EARL CHESTER MORRIS
Architects

This area of first floor
is leased separately.

First Floor

Third Floor

SCHEDULE OF EQUIPMENT AND MATERIALS

FOUNDATION
Reinforced concrete

STRUCTURE
Structural steel; reinforced concrete slabs, "pan" type construction

EXTERIOR
Walls
Indiana limestone vaneer; glass block; Belgian black marble base, brick backup
Roof
Elastolite roofing
Sash
"Brown" paneled windows
Metalwork
Extruded aluminum cornices and trim; Aluminum Co. of America

INTERIOR
Floors
Mostly asphalt tile, "Maultile"; second floor carpeted
Walls
Smooth plaster
Doors
Solid slab birch; exterior doors of oak

INSULATION
Cork on roof, "Silver Coat" on duct work

WATERPROOFING
Two coats of hot asphalt

HEATING
Split system of radiation and hot air; Kewanee boilers; Warren Webster valves and traps; Johnson Service Co. temperature control

AIR
Complete year-round, American Blower Co. fans; Freon gas air condenser units, Westinghouse

CONDITIONING

HARDWARE
Chromium plated, Hendrie & Bollhoff Supply Co.

PAINTING
3 coats of semi-glass on interior walls and ceilings

PLUMBING
Crane Co. fixtures

GLASS
Plate glass, except wire plate in alloy windows

ELEVATORS
Operator-controlled, Otis Co.

Total cost approximately $150,000, @ 29c per cu. ft.

BUILDING TYPES

ARCHITECTURAL RECORD 125
A BRANCH DEPARTMENT STORE

FREDERICK LOESER & CO.
GARDEN CITY, NEW YORK

A pioneer in department store planning, this structure houses under one roof a group of specialized shops. This type of organization combines selective selling with the advantages of volume buying and the services possible in a large-scale enterprise.

Second Floor

First Floor

Basement
SCHEDULE OF EQUIPMENT AND MATERIALS

FOUNDATIONS
Concrete and reinforced concrete, Eureka Fireproofing Co.

STRUCTURE EXTERIOR
Walls Steel, Bethlehem Steel Co.
Roof Common brick backed up by hollow tile; artificial stone trim
Sash Slate; built-up asphal tic slag surface on flat roof

INTERIOR
Floors Reinforced concrete slabs
Insulation John-Forbell "batts" under roof

INSULATION WATERPROOFING
Integral waterproofing in foundations; asphal tic waterproofing on brickwork

HEATING
Steam, Wolf & Munier

AIR CONDITIONING
Year-round, York Ice Machinery Corp.

LIGHTING
Indirect

HARDWARE
Sargent & Co.

PAINTING
Cabot's Virginia white over common brick; sash and trim painted blue

PLUMBING
Lead and oil enamel finish on woodwork; "Lumina" on walls

ELEVATORS
A. B. See Elevator Co.

FIXTURES
Blonde mahogany, Grand Rapids Store Equipment Co.

Costs: Building, $308,000; Furniture, $73,000
AN APPAREL STORE
BENSON & RIXON STORE
CHICAGO, ILLINOIS
ALFRED S. ALSCHULER, INC.
Architect

This store is located on a main street crowded with theater marquees and "hung-on" advertising. The architect has attempted to achieve distinctiveness in the structure itself, without sacrificing selling space on the main floor. The lettering below the second-floor level has been developed as an integral part of the design; at night it is conspicuous below the bands of diffused light emanating from the glass block. (See section cover.)

Display windows are limited to the first floor and the corner on the the second floor. Elsewhere a hinged iron framework, carrying half-blocks, satisfies code requirements. There are no columns inside the store, 42-ft. girders spanning the width of the structure. To avoid columns in the show window, the entire corner is cantilevered from a column set eight feet back from the street line.

Second and third floors are for men's wear. The women's department is on the fourth and fifth floors, which are connected by a special staircase used for modeling gowns. The sixth floor is reserved for offices.
SCHEDULE OF EQUIPMENT AND MATERIALS

FOUNDATIONS
Reinforced concrete spread footings

STRUCTURE
Structural steel frame, reinforced concrete floors

EXTERIOR
Walls
Poured concrete and solid brick; Insulux glass block, Owens-Illinois Glass Co.; beige terra cotta blocks, American Terra Cotta Co.

Roof
"Certaineed" built-up asphalitic, gravel surface

Sash
Pivoted steel sash

INTERIOR
Floors
Asphalt tile; terrazzo

Fixtures
Cases in light pin-grain finish, Grand Rapids Store Equipment Co.

INSULATION
Rigid insulation board on roof, Celotex Corp.

WATERPROOFING
Integral in basement walls; Ironite on existing party wall

AIR CONDITIONING
Complete year-round, Carrier Corp. and Trane Co.; hot air heating

PLUMBING
Standard Sanitary Mfg. Co. fixtures

LIGHTING
Indirect and recessed fixtures, Curtis Lighting, Inc.

ELEVATORS
Automatic geared traction, 300 fpm; Haughton Elevator Co.; Tyler Co. cars and hatch doors

Cost: $5.00 per cu. ft. (including fixtures)
To obtain uniform lighting and to prevent damage by sunlight to fabrics and other furniture materials, window space in the upper stories has been reduced to a minimum. The corner wall has been split to accommodate a large vertical sign of maximum visibility. The letters of this sign are of stainless steel silhouetted by reflected light. Horizontal signs are green porcelain enamel with green neon illumination.

**SCHEDULE OF EQUIPMENT AND MATERIALS**

- **Foundation**
  - Reinforced concrete

- **Structure**
  - Structural steel; reinforced concrete slabs

- **Exterior**
  - **Walls**
    - 4" salmon-colored brick facing, 8" backup tile; 4" Macotta, Maul; Macotta Co.; 8" brick backing
  - **Roof**
    - Built-up asphalt with gravel surface; 20-year band, Barrett Co.; 16 oz. copper on marquee roof
  - **Sash**
    - Steel casement, Detroit Steel Products Co.; bronze show windows, Penn Brass & Bronze Co.
  - **Doors**
    - Kinneir Co.; manually operated roller shutter doors at loading platform

- **Interior**
  - **Floors**
    - Wood finish on second floor, terrazzo elsewhere
  - **Water-proofing**
    - Integral in all concrete and mortar; asphaltic on interior of exposed walls; membrane at spandrels, Somers & Co.

- **Heating**
  - Steam, Fitzgibbons boiler; Ray oil burner

- **Lighting**
  - Holophane concealed flush-type on first floor; indirect fixtures elsewhere

- **Plumbing**
  - Standard Sanitary Mfg. Co. fixtures

- **Hardware**
  - Corbin

- **Elevators**
  - Otis Co.; Peale manually operated doors on freight elevator shaft

Cost: Approximately $230,000.

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**First Floor**

A portion of the third and fourth stories is devoted to a full-size model house extending through the floors.
A SMALL DEPARTMENT STORE

HOLLEY'S STORE
CORAL GABLES, FLORIDA

WILLIAM H. MERRIAM
Architect

Large show windows have been placed along the bus terminal to attract the travelers who leave from and arrive at this point. The concrete slab is cantilevered six feet to afford shade and protection for both windows and patrons. The building has been designed to accommodate a future second floor with steel girders spanning the 50-ft. width without intermediate support. These girders project only six inches below the present ceiling. A warehouse is provided, serving four other stores as well as Holley's.

SCHEDULE OF EQUIPMENT AND MATERIALS

FOUNDATIONS
Reinforced concrete

STRUCTURE
Reinforced concrete and structural steel; mezzanine, wood joists

EXTERIOR
Walls
Concrete blocks and stucco
Roof
Built-up asphaltic, gravel surface, The Barrett Co.
Sash
Steel casement; commercial-projected in warehouse, Truscon Steel Co.; Alumilite-finish store fronts, The Kawneer Co.

INTERIOR
Floors
Verde Antique terrazzo on first floor; wood finish on mezzanine
Walls
Wood furring; perforated rock lath; gypsum plaster, unpainted

WATERPROOFING
Integral waterproofing in stucco and floor slabs, Sec Manufacturing Co.; "Somay" decorative waterproofing paint on exterior

VENTILATION
Air-circulated by Ventura Fans, American Blower Corp.

LIGHTING
Direct, Curtis Lighting Co.; rigid conduit, National Electric Products Co.

HARDWARE
Russwin

PLUMBING
Crane Co., fixtures

PAINTING
Varnish and stain, Benjamin Moore & Co.

GLASS
"Muralex" for transoms, plate in store windows, Libbey-Owens-Ford Glass Co.

FIXTURES
The Store Craft Mfg. Co.

Cost: $19,728 @ 16c per cu. ft.; fixtures $9,000 in addition
A PLUMBING DISPLAY STORE
MARKOWITZ & RESNICK STORE
MIAMI, FLORIDA

L. MURRAY DIXON
Architect

SCHEDULE OF EQUIPMENT AND MATERIALS

FOUNDATION
Wood piling

STRUCTURE
Concrete blocks, Maulouis Rock Co.

EXTERIOR
Walls
Stucco on sides; marble on front, Georgia Marble Co.

Roof
Gravel surface, 15-yr. bonded, Johns-Manville

Store Front
Extruded red bronze, Standard Store Front Construction Co.

Sash
Steel, commercial-projected

INTERIOR
Floors
Concrete slabs on grade
Finish: terrazzo

Display Booths
Masonite and Armstrong linoleum with white metal strips; typical baths in Vitrolite

INSULATION
Rigid insulation board

WATER-PROOFING
Cystex in slabs, concrete columns, beams, and masonry mortar

HARDWARE
Schlage

WIRING
National Electric Products Co. in steel tubing by Steel & Tubes, Inc.

PAINTING
Du Pont

SCREENS
Copper

GLASS
Plate, Libbey-Owens-Ford Glass Co.

Cost: $35,000 @ 22.2e per sq. ft.; fixtures, $7,000.
A SHOPPING CENTER

PLAZA STORES
BIRMINGHAM, ALABAMA

Designed as a unit, this shopping center includes five stores and a lunchroom at one end. The architect has taken advantage of the natural slope of the site, placing the lunchroom on a lower level, with the dining room under store 5. A large barbecue fireplace is located in the lunchroom adjoining the kitchen.

Particular attention has been given to providing parking facilities for patrons, a competitive advantage of some value to the stores served. Parking space has been provided in front and rear of the group. The unity of the project has been maintained by cooperation among the tenants in restricting discordant sign display.

SCHEDULE OF EQUIPMENT AND MATERIALS

FOUNDATION
Concrete

STRUCTURE
Masonry-bearing outer walls; structural steel interior columns; lightweight steel trusses

EXTERIOR
Solid brick, Stephenson Brick Co.; terra cotta facing, Atlantic Terra Cotta Co.

Walls
Masonry-bearing outer walls; structural steel interior columns; lightweight steel trusses

Roof
Built-up asphaltic, gravel surface

Sash
Steel casement and commercial-projected, Campbell Metallic Window Corp.

INTERIOR
Reinforced concrete; wood finish in grocery store; tile in drugstore and lunchroom; asphalt tile in bakery, cleaners (store 5) and dining room (under store 5). Thomas Moulding Co.

Walls
Plastered; Insulite tile board in ceilings

INSULATION
Rigid insulation board in roof of lunchroom

WATER-PROOFING
Integral waterproofing in floor slabs; asphaltic on walls below grade

HEATING
Unit gas heater in drugstore

PLUMBING
Crane Co. fixtures

LIGHTING
Indirect fixtures in lunchroom, semi-indirect elsewhere; exterior—through floodlighting above canopy for sign silhouette

HARDWARE
Russwin; Rixen door closers

GLASS
Libbey-Owens-Ford plate glass; Owens-Illinois glass block transoms

Total Cost: $125,000.