



CONSTRUCTING ARCHITECTURE
MATERIALS PROCESSES STRUCTURES
A HANDBOOK

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ANDREA DEPLAZES (ED.)

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MATERIALS PROCESSES STRUCTURES
A HANDBOOK

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Contents

	Introduction	
	Preface	10
	How to use this book	11
	Solid and filigree construction	13
MATERIALS – MODULES	Modules	
Introduction	The importance of the material	19
Properties of materials	The perception of architectural space	20
	The longevity of materials	21
Example	Plastic	22
	Masonry	
Introduction	The pathos of masonry	23
Properties of materials	The materials	32
	Swiss clay bricks and blocks	33
Systems	Masonry terminology	35
	Design and construction	36
	Masonry bonds	38
	Tying and reinforcing double-leaf masonry walls	42
Systems in architecture	The skill of masonry construction	43
	Types of construction	49
	Prefabrication	52
	Concrete	
Introduction	On the metaphysics of exposed concrete	56
Properties of materials	The materials	60
	The concreting process	63
	10 rules for the production of concrete	66
	Exposed concrete surfaces	67
Systems	Floor supports, exposed concrete with internal insulation	69
	The fixing of heavy external cladding (concrete)	70
	The fixing of heavy external cladding (stone)	71
	Chart for establishing preliminary size of reinforced concrete slabs	72
Systems in architecture	Linear structural members	73
	Systems with linear members	74
	Planar structural members	75
	Systems with planar structural members	76
	Timber	
Introduction	Wood: indifferent, synthetic, abstract – plastic	77
Properties of materials	The materials	82
	Wood-based products – Overview	84
	Wood-based products – Layered products	85
	Wood-based products – Particleboards	87
	Wood-based products – Fibreboards	88
	Important panel and prefabricated systems – Overview	89
	Panel construction – Current developments	94
Systems	Timber construction systems – Overview	96
	Platform frame construction – Construction principle	99
	Chart for establishing preliminary size of timber beams	103
Examples	Conversion of a trunk in traditional Japanese timber building culture	104
	The threads of the net	106

Contents

	Steel		
Introduction	Why steel?	113	
Properties of materials	Sections – forms and applications	120	
	Fire protection	122	
	Potential applications for structural steelwork	123	
Systems	Connections – A selection	124	
	Structures – frame with cantilevering beams	126	
	Structures – frame with continuous columns	128	
	Structures – two-way frame	130	
	Chart for establishing preliminary size of steel beams	132	
Systems in architecture	Folding and bending	133	
	Frames	134	
	Girder, lattice beam and facade	135	
	Space frames	136	
	Diamonds and diagonals	137	
	Canopy structures	138	
	Insulation		
Introduction	The “invisible” building material	139	
Properties of materials	Transparent thermal insulation	143	
	Thermal insulation materials and their applications	144	
Systems	Thermal insulation systems – Overview	146	
	Glass		
Introduction	Glass – crystalline, amorphous	147	
	ELEMENTS		
	Foundation – Plinth		
Introduction	Building underground	153	
Processes	Site preparation – Surveying work	161	
	Site preparation – Earthworks	162	
	Foundations	163	
Systems	Foundation schemes – Loadbearing layer inside	164	
	Foundation schemes – Loadbearing layer outside	165	
Systems in architecture	The basis for plinths	166	
Building performance issues	External wall below ground – Influences on the building envelope	169	
	Wall		
Introduction	The wall	170	
	Opening		
Introduction	For and against the long window – The Perret – Le Corbusier controversy	175	
Systems	The window – opening package	184	
	Position of window, opening rebate forms	185	
	The window as a component – frame sections	186	
	The window as a component – glass	187	
	Window – horizontal section, 1:1	188	
	Window – vertical section, 1:1	190	
	Systems in architecture	The opening as a hole	192
		The opening as a horizontal strip	193
		The opening as a joint	194
The opening as a transparent wall		195	

Introduction	About the door	196
Systems	Doors – types of opening	197
	Doors – types of door stop	198
	Doors – hardware	199
	Wall – opening – Influences on the building envelope	200
Building performance issues	Cutting out sunlight and glare	201

Floor

Introduction	The doubling of the sky	205
--------------	-------------------------	-----

Roof

Introduction	The roof	211
Systems	Pitched roof – Functions of layers	213
	Flat roof – Functions of layers	214
	Flat roof – Warm deck – conventional systems	215
	Flat roof – Warm deck – special systems	216
	Flat roof – Upside-down roof	217
	Flat roof – Cold deck	218
	Systems in architecture	Pitched roof
Flat roof		220
The roof as a folded plate		221
Building performance issues	Barrel-vault roof and shell roof	222
	Criteria and relationships	223
	Flat roof – Pitched roof – Repercussions for the building envelope	224

Stairs, lifts

Introduction	Flights of fancy	225
Systems	Excerpt from the <i>Bauentwurfslehre</i> by Ernst Neufert	230
	The geometry of stair transitions	232
	Balustrades and spandrel panels – Extract from SIA 358	233
	Lifts	234
Systems in architecture	The staircase as an assembly of simply-supported beams	236
	The staircase as a monolithic, organic form	237
	The staircase as a space frame	238
	The staircase as a solid timber construction	239

STRUCTURES

Forms of construction

Introduction	An attempt to classify horizontal and vertical space development	243
Concepts	Vertical loadbearing structures in solid construction – Cross-section concepts	251
	Vertical loadbearing structures in solid construction – Plan concepts	252
	Vaulted loadbearing structures in solid construction – Compression structures	253
Examples	Of heavy mass and apparent heaviness	255
	Ksar Ferich – A fortified storehouse in southern Tunisia	258
	Sculpted architecture – The Scottish tower house	263
Processes	Provision of services during planning work	271
	The sequence of building operations	272
Systems	Compartmentation	273
	Box frame construction	274
	Frame construction	275
	Column-and-slab systems	276
	Single-storey shed forms	277
	Systems in architecture	Prefabrication – System building

	Building performance, energy	
Introduction	Sustainability – Fundamentals of architecture	282
Concepts	The problem of heat flow and vapour diffusion	286
	Insulation concepts – Diagram of layers	287
	Insulation concepts – Complementary systems, loadb. layer inside	288
	Insulation concepts – Complementary systems, loadb. layer outside	289
	Seven rules for the design of a low-energy house	290
Example	Low-tech – high tectonics	291

BUILDINGS **Selected projects**

Introduction	Structural issues – The relationship between interior structure, loadbearing structure, and infrastructure	295
Examples	Apartment blocks, Martinsbergstr., Baden: Burkard Meyer + Partner	303
	Gallery for Contemporary Art, Marktoberdorf: Bearth + Deplazes	313
	Detached family home, Grabs: Peter Märkli	322
	Paspels School: Valerio Olgiati	332
	Volta School: Miller + Maranta	341
	Sihlhof School, Zurich: Giuliani + Hönger	350
	"Im Birch" School, Zurich: Peter Märkli	361
	Chur Teacher Training College, science wing: Bearth + Deplazes	374
	Swiss School of Engineering for the Wood Industry, Biel: Meili + Peter	383
Private house, Sevgein: Bearth + Deplazes	394	

COMPONENTS **Drawings**

	Preparation of drawings for buildings	
	Extract from Swiss standard SIA 400:2000	401
	Presentation on drawings –	
	Example: timber platform frame construction	407
	Symbols – Legend for the catalogue of components	409

Foundation – Plinth

	Single-leaf masonry	410
	Double-leaf masonry, rendered	411
	Facing masonry	412
	Fair-face concrete with internal insulation	413
	External insulation, rendered	414
	External cladding, lightweight	415
	External cladding, heavyweight	416
	Timber platform frame construction	417
	Plinth – Roof: solid timber panel construction	418

Wall – Floor

	Single-leaf masonry, rendered	420
	Double-leaf masonry, rendered	421
	Facing masonry	422
	Fair-face concrete with internal insulation	423
	External insulation, rendered	424
	External cladding, lightweight	425
	External cladding, heavyweight	426
	Non-loadbearing external wall	427
	Timber platform frame construction	428
	Solid timber panel construction	429

	Opening	
Windows	Single-leaf masonry	430
	Double-leaf masonry, rendered	432
	Facing masonry	434
	Fair-face concrete with internal insulation	436
	External cladding, lightweight	438
	External cladding, heavyweight	440
	External insulation, rendered	442
	Non-loadbearing external wall	444
	Timber platform frame construction	446
	Solid timber panel construction	448
Doors	Hinged door, external – wood	450
	Hinged door, external – wood/glass	451
	Sliding door, external – metal/glass	452
	Hinged door, internal – wood	453
	Sliding door, internal – wood	454
	Floor	
	Hollow clay block floor	455
	Hourdis-type hollow clay block floor	456
	Solid concrete slab	457
	Ribbed concrete slab	458
	Concrete waffle slab	459
	Hollow-core concrete slab	460
	Composite slab, profiled metal sheeting–concrete	461
	Solid timber floor	462
	Timber joist floor	463
	Timber box element floor	464
	Steel floor	465
	Roof – Parapet	
	Pitched roof – warm deck – Fibre-cement, external cladding, lightweight	466
	Pitched roof – warm deck, monopitch roof – Fibre-cement – facing masonry	467
	Pitched roof – cold deck – Roof tiles, masonry in brickwork bond	468
	Pitched roof – cold deck – Sheet metal, single-leaf masonry	469
	Flat roof – warm deck – Bitumen, double-leaf masonry, rendered	470
	Flat roof – warm deck – Bitumen, fair-face concrete with internal insulation	471
	Flat roof – warm deck – Plastics, external cladding, heavyweight	472
	Flat roof – warm deck – Bitumen, non-loadbearing external wall	473
	Flat roof – upside-down roof – Bitumen, external insulation, rendered	474
	Flat roof – cold deck, uncoated roof – Bitumen, timber platform frame construction	475
	Flat roof – warm deck, suitable/unsuitable for foot traffic	476
	Flat roof – cold deck	478
	Flat roof – upside-down roof, with rooftop planting	480

APPENDIX

Further reading	485
Picture credits	486
Index	500
Thanks	508

Preface

Andrea Deplazes

“Constructing Architecture” describes that architectural position of architects which makes it possible for them to forge links between the planning of a project and its realisation, the competence to create coherence regarding content and subject. During the planning of a project this is reflected in the clarification and development of a design objective, and in the physical implementation becoming increasingly more clearly defined. When, for example, a literary work is translated into another language the use of the correct grammar or syntax is merely a technical prerequisite – a *conditio sine qua non*. The important thing is to reflect coherently the sense and the atmosphere of the original text, which in certain circumstances may itself have a specific influence on grammar and syntax. Architecture is similar: although it is not a language consisting of sounds, words or texts, it has a material vocabulary (modules), a constructive grammar (elements) and a structural syntax (structures). They are the fundamental prerequisites, a kind of “mechanics of architecture”. This also includes the technical and structural basics which establish a set of rules and regulations of construction principles and know-how that can be learned and which are wholly independent of any particular design or construction project. Although these tools are logical in themselves they remain fragmentary, unrelated and therefore “senseless” until they are incorporated into a project.

Only in conjunction with a concept does the design process ensue in which the initially isolated formal and structural fragments are at once arranged and consummated, architectural body. The fragments as a whole complement and influence each other in the step from construction to architecture, from tectonics.

Tectonics always incorporates all three aspects: the conceptual connection of the physical and the metaphysical, architectural space, and all the interacting, transforming and influencing aspects. In the end, they are specific and also exemplary.

The best that a university can achieve is to enable students to teach themselves. This includes: the establishment of basic premises, critical analysis, intensive research, advancing hypotheses and their syntheses. Many topics in the basic courses are those that do not have to be true just because they are. This book in black and white. Nor does this book contain the subject material taught in the lectures. This book should be seen as a provisional contribution to the known and current architectural and technological knowledge as a foundation that allows us to think about the métier of architecture.

Zurich, April 2005

How to use this book

Christoph Elsener

TPOLOGY

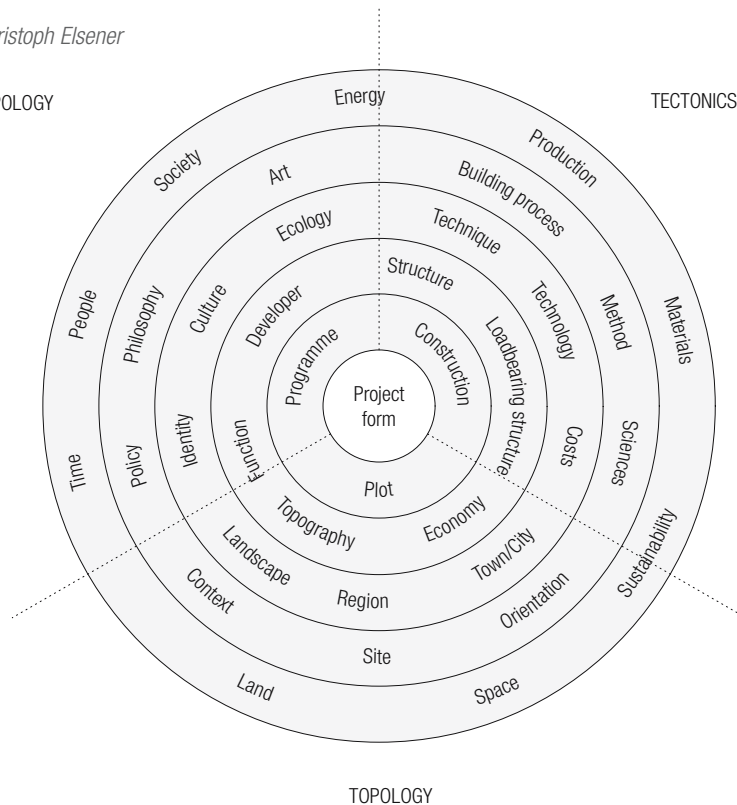


Fig. 1: Form-finding or form-developing processes

All material has a shape, regardless of the existence of a forming will. An artefact raises the question: how did it gain its shape? We may distinguish between two approaches to answer this question. First, which external influences affect the development of a shape? This question suggests a number of factors, e.g. geographical and cultural aspects, as well as factors that are connected to the mentality and the history of a certain people, that unintentionally influence the shape. Second, which criteria determine the shape? This question focuses on the intent, on a range of criteria carefully chosen by the designer.

After all, the shape is the result of a complex interaction of different factors. Only this interaction of factors allows a sensible composition. Composition is not an inevitable result. Within the bounds of a logical solution there always exist different options.

Kenneth Frampton describes three important influencing factors: "Thus we may claim that the built invariably comes into existence out of the constantly evolving interplay of three converging vectors, the *topos*, the *typos*, and the *tectonic*." The term "tectonics" alone covers a broad range, encompassing the construction process from the materials up to the finished building. This book concentrates primarily on this range. However, the historico-cultural approach, as represented in some articles in this book, reminds us that the transitions between *topos*, *typos* and *tectonics* are fluid.

The structure of the book, divided into the chapters "Materials – modules", "Elements" and "Structures", reflects the development process of architecture: starting with a single raw material via the joining of different building parts up to the finished building. This also points to a main objective of the book: it aims to show how much architectural expression depends on its constructional composition. In line with this goal the present work pays special attention to constructional aspects which create "sense", and in this aspect it differs from the albeit relevant but exclusively technology-focused literature. Technical requirements of raw materials and components are constantly checked with regard to their architectural effect. This approach leads to a chapter structure in which the reader will find sober detail drawings next to essay-like reflections, basic construction concepts next to specific descriptions of construction processes, theoretical considerations next to practical ones. For reasons of clarity, however, the "holistic" view of the design processes advocated here has been arranged in a way that allows easy referencing. Besides the introductory essay thematic focal points occur repeatedly in the chapters, which help the reader to find his way around the book and make it possible to compare building materials and construction elements.

The term "properties of materials" covers descriptions of manufacturing methods, assembly and product ranges of the most important modern building materials: clay bricks, concrete, timber, steel, glass and insulating materials. The distinction between "concepts", "processes" and "system" points to the interaction of intellectual conception, construction process and building structure, which considerably influences the development of a constructional solution. "Concepts" describes analysis and interpretation procedures which have proved especially helpful during the development of construction systems. Under the heading "Processes" the reader will find descriptions of preparatory measures prior to starting work on site plus specific site assembly processes. "Systems" describes possible methods for joining modules and components to form coherent, structurally viable assemblies. The construction systems shown here are linked more closely to problems of architectural expression in the section titled "Systems in architecture". Reflections on particular buildings or special types of construction are united under the heading "Examples" and offer additional visual aids describing how construction-oriented thinking finally manifests itself in architecture.

The section entitled "Building performance issues" presents insights into the relationships between the construction and the performance of the building envelope.

The appendix contains a series of drawings, scale 1:20, which illustrate the complex build-up of layers in contemporary building envelopes. Plinths, wall and floor junctions, openings (doors and windows), as well as the roof, are still core areas in the realm of architectural construction. The construction forms presented are bound by a certain architectural concept and may not be generalised without prior examination.

Subjects vary here as to the amount of material each is afforded. This is not due to any particular value being

implied but reflects a working method focusing on building. This publication does not claim to be exhaustive although its form as a printed book might suggest otherwise rather a collection of diverse basic principles worked out at the Professorial Chair of Architectural Construction at the ETH Zurich. Some of the drawings have been kindly made available to us by outside sources only a few stem from standard works.

Finally, we have to point out that liability of the authors for other types of claim are entirely excluded. The use of the content of this book is the responsibility of the user and not the authors of this publication.

The sequence of architectural construction as an additive chain from small to large



Fig. 2: Earth
Mixing with cob and sand



Fig. 3: Clay bricks
Production, natural drying (in the air), Pakistan



Fig. 4: Wall
Rediscovered remains of a house, Lebanon



Fig. 5: Structural shell
Masonry building, under construction



Fig. 6: Structure
Hans Kollhoff, KNISM-Eiland development, Amsterdam

1. Raw materials

According to Gottfried Semper the raw materials available as potential building materials prior to the first stage of processing can be classified into the following four categories according to their properties:

1. Flexible, tough, resistant to fracture, high absolute strength
2. Soft, plastic, capable of hardening, easy to join and retaining their given form in the hardened state
3. Linear forms, elastic, primarily relatively high resistance, i.e., to forces acting perpendicular to their length
4. Solid, dense, resistant to crushing and buckling, suitable for processing and for assembling to form solid systems

Owing to their properties, each of these four materials categories belongs, according to Semper, to a certain technical skill or category: textile art, ceramic art, tectonics (carpentry) or stereotomy (masonry).

This is based on the idea of "every technique has, so to speak, its own certain principal material which offers the most convenient means of producing the forms belonging to its original domains".

The raw material, however, remains "meaningless" in the architectural sense as long as it is "unreflected", i.e. its potential for cognition remains concealed.

The "selection" process itself (e.g. from undressed stones) in the form of a collection of modules, but also the preparatory work prior to building already form a planned stage of the work and consequently part of the first stage of production ("preparation").

2. Modules

The "building blocks" or "workpieces" form the smallest basic components intended for the construction. They are the result of a finishing process – a more or less complex and time-consuming production process:

- Dressed masonry units (blocks, slabs, squared and rough-hewn stones) are produced from irregular stones.
- Moulded and "cast" earths (clay bricks, ceramic tiles, air-dried, fired) or processed earths (cement, concrete) are produced from earths, sands and gravels (e.g. cob, clay).
- Prepared timber members (debarked logs, squared members, joists, boards, battens) are produced from linear, form-stable or elastic modules consisting of organic fibres (e.g. tree trunks, rods, branches).

All these modules exhibit their own inherent "tectonics", their own inherent jointing principles which are present in the second production stage: layering, interlocking, weaving, plastic formation ("modelling"), moulding, etc.

3. Elements

"Components" consisting of modules represent in a certain way the semi-finished goods of the second production stage (masonry walls and plates; walls; vaults and shells; floors and roofs).

Stability problems become evident during production and also during the ongoing assembly of the elements; these problems can be solved with the following measures:

- horizontal developments such as folds, corrugations, ribs
- vertical gradations with increasing height/depth
- formation of frames through the provision of stiffeners (diagonal stiffeners, supports as auxiliary constructions, corner stiffeners)

4. Structures

The third stage of production forms a "component fabric" whose subcomponents can be described as follows:

A. Loadbearing structure:

Precondition for the building structure. Only the elements necessary for the loadbearing functions (supporting, stabilising) are considered.

B. Building structure:

This is the interaction of all the elements required for the structure (supporting, separating for the purpose of creating spaces), sometimes also called "structural shell".

C. Interior layout structure:

This contains the realisation of a more or less complex sequence of internal spaces. The relationship between loadbearing structure, building structure and interior layout structure allows us to derive a "tectonics model". Tectonics in this sense is the physically visible part of this "higher bonding", the fabric of the architectural concept for the purpose of creating internal spaces.

D. Infrastructure:

All the permanently installed supply and disposal facilities necessary in a building. The relationship between the infrastructure and the building structure frequently results in conflicts.

E. Access structure:

Horizontal and vertical circulation routes and spaces. These include stairs and ramps plus the entrances to a building.

5. The structure

The structure is generated by the *Structure and process*

Building – spaces – loads

- tectonics
- "material fabric"
- loadbearing structure
- finishings and fittings
- infrastructure

Plan

- conception ("idea")
- draft design
- interpretation (significance)
- building documentation
- exchange of information
- chronology of actions

and

Production

- chronology of production
- logistics
- operative sequence
- jointing principles

Further reading

- Kenneth Frampton: *Structure of Culture*, Cambridge (MA)
- Fritz Neumeyer: *Nachdenken über Architektur, Quelle der Architekturtheorie*, München
- Gottfried Semper: *Der Stil in den technischen, völkischen und tectonischen praktischen Ästhetik*, vol. 1, 1863 / Munich, 1860 – *Style: Style in the Technical Arts; Practical Aesthetics*, Mallgrave (ed.), Los Angeles

Solid and filigree construction

Christoph Wieser, Andrea Deplazes

On the occasion of a lecture on the “morphology of the architectural” at the ETH Zurich architecture theorist Kenneth Frampton drew on the works of Eugène Viollet-le-Duc and Gottfried Semper, who together pioneered the theory of architecture, to distinguish between the development of architectural forms from their origins as “earthworks” and “roofworks”, or with the terms stereotomy (solid construction) and tectonics (filigree construction) that are used in architecture theory. While the term “earthwork” includes all the building techniques of solid wall construction (cob, pisé and adobe, clay-and-stone masonry, etc. and their stereotomic forms such as walls, arches, vaults and domes), the open “roofwork” encompasses all structures with linear and rodlike members – textile-like woven structures which span open spaces as “covers”, forming the “roof”, the overhead boundary to the space below. Timber engineering, with its layered, interwoven assembly, belongs to this category, as does industrialised steelwork from about 1800 onwards.

The principles of the structural formation in filigree construction were not new. They were known to us through anonymous and traditional timber buildings: conical and spherical domes made from straight and curved individual linear members, vertical solid timber construction, two- and three-dimensional frameworks (timber frames, timber studding), horizontal joist floors and roofs, and roof constructions (purlin and couple roofs, trussed frames) were the carpenter’s daily bread. They were used principally wherever wood was readily available and a lightweight building material for medium spans was required. It was accepted that wood, in contrast to solid construction, was organic and hence not everlasting (fungal attack, rot, fire). For these reasons timber engineering has never seriously rivalled stereotomic solid construction nor superseded it.

Only after industrialised steel building technology was well established were questions raised about the hitherto undisputed tectonic principles of Western architecture. While in the case of solid construction the massiveness of the earth material finds its architectural expression in the archaic, and occasionally monumental character of stereotomy, the almost complete resolving of mass and massiveness (so-called sublimation) into the barely tangible skeleton or lattice framework of an ethereal phantom volume – the abstract Cartesian grid of a filigree construction – is drawn in space.¹

Construction archetypes

In 1964 Sigfried Giedion was still maintaining that the issue of the origin of architecture was “very complex”, as he writes in his book *The Eternal Present. A Contribution to Constancy and Change*. This is why – despite the tempting title – he does not explore this matter in detail.² Instead, he confines himself to presenting the principal evolution, the content of which is backed up by later

research. This evolution, in essence, extends from the simplest round or oval huts to rectangular shelters. According to Giedion, “this regular rectangular house which has remained even to this day the standard form for a dwelling, had evolved only after centuries of experimentation with innumerable variants.” His underlying weighting of this can be plainly heard.³ The rejection of round buildings in the course of the evolution of civilisation may well have been for primarily practical reasons – rectangular buildings can be more readily, i.e., more economically, subdivided and extended, and are easier to group together into settlements. The triumph of the rectangular building coincides with the onset of the establishment of permanent settlements; compact settlement forms are, at best, of only minor importance to nomadic peoples.

At the dawn of history, whether a building was rounded or angular was not only a question of practical needs but also an expression of spiritual ideals. According to Norberg-Schulz in the earliest cultures it is impossible “to distinguish between the practical and the religious (magical)”.⁴ The architectural forms and elements at this stage have both practical and symbolic significance – an interpretation that lives on in the teepees of the North American Indians and the yurts of nomadic Asian tribes. For their occupants these portable one-room homes symbolise the entire cosmos and their interior layout follows ancient rules that prescribe a certain place for every object and every occupant.

At this point, however, it is not the evolution of human shelters that we wish to place in the foreground but rather the characterisation of the two archetypal forms of construction – filigree construction⁵ and solid construction. But here, too, the transition from a nomadic to a sedentary lifestyle played a crucial role. If we assume that the early, ephemeral shelters were filigree constructions, i.e., lightweight, framelike constructions, then the Mesopotamian courtyard house of c. 2500 BC is the first pioneering example of a shelter in solid construction. The historical development is reflected in the terminology: only with the development of permanent settlements do we first speak of architecture.⁶ The Greek word *tekton* (carpenter) – whom we shall take as representing filigree construction – later led to the word *architekton*, our master builder, the architect.⁷ Nevertheless, filigree construction should not be regarded merely as the forerunner of solid construction, as having lost its justification in the meantime. For in the end the construction systems depend on which natural resources are available locally and what importance is granted to the durability of a structure. Accordingly, the two archetypal construction systems are embodied differently yet equally in filigree construction and solid construction.

The first filigree constructions were variations on lightweight, initially wall-less shelters. In terms of their construction these consisted of a framework of branches, rods or bones covered with a protective roof of leaves, animal skins or woven mats. According to Hans Soeder we can distinguish between three different types of house: "Round domed structures (like those of Euro-African hunter cultures), the round tepee-type houses or conical tents of the Arctic and Antarctic regions, and – in regions with a hot or temperate climate – rectangular, inclined windbreaks".⁸ Besides the climatic conditions, the first shelters were characterised by the local availability of organic or animal-based materials. This is an assumption because, naturally, no corresponding remains have been found. Gradually, inorganic materials started to be employed for housebuilding as well – in a sense the first optimisation attempts. They were more durable, could withstand the weather better and presupposed a high level of cultural development. One such optimisation is, for example, the covering of a framework of rods with cob.

The term "filigree construction" refers directly to the way in which these forms of construction are put together. Since the 17th century the noun "filigree" (alternative spelling "filagree") has denoted an ornamental work of fine (usually gold or silver) wire, twisted, plaited and soldered into a delicate openwork design. This word is a variation on "filigreen", itself a variation of "filigrane", derived from the Latin words *filum* (thread) and *granum* (seed),⁹ from which we can infer the roughness of the metal surfaces. A filigree construction is thus a structure of slender members, a weave of straight or rodlike elements assembled to form a planar or spatial lattice in which the loadbearing and separating functions are fulfilled by different elements. But this static framework contains many "voids", and to create an architecturally defined space we need to carry out one further step – to close this open framework or – according to Semper – to "clothe" it. The relationship between the interior and exterior of a building is thus achieved via secondary elements and not by the loadbearing structure itself. Openings appropriate to the system are consequently structural openings, the size of which is matched to the divisibility of the framework. The reference to Semper is therefore also interesting because in his book *Der Stil*, he designates textile art as an "original art", the earliest of the four "original techniques" from which he derives his four elements of architecture. He therefore describes the tectonic principle of filigree construction – weaving, knotting and braiding – as the earliest of mankind's skills.¹⁰

Prime features of solid construction are, as the term suggests, heaviness and compactness, in contrast to filigree construction. Its primary element is a massive, three-dimensional wall made up of layers of stones or modular prefabricated materials, or by casting in a mould

a material that solidifies upon drying. The joint of solid construction could be described the way that the techniques of casting and layering. The results from the importance of the architectural equivalent of solid construction – stereotomy – cutting stone into measured forms such that the weight of gravity is sufficient for the stability of the construction without the use of any additional media such as mortar etc. It becomes clear from this that solid construction can only accommodate compressive forces. Filigree constructions – cannot handle tensile forces. An example of the principle of "dry walling", loadbearing exclusively in compression, is provided by the all-stone walls of the "Village des Bories" (borie = dry wall) in the French town of Gordes, with their self-supporting pyramidal roofs.¹¹

In solid construction the erection of walls and interior spaces directly because the loadbearing and separating functions are identical. Consequently the structure of the structural shell often corresponds to the construction, with secondary elements being added as superfluous. The sizes of openings in the wall are determined because these weaken the loadbearing behaviour of the wall. This type of construction is founded on the principle that cell and groups of rooms are created by adding walls together or subdividing individual cells. As in solid construction case all walls have loadbearing and separating functions there is no structural hierarchy. All parts tend to be of equal importance.

This pair of concepts – solid construction and filigree construction (tectonics) – describes two archetypal construction systems. All the forms of construction can be derived from these two systems though their origins are still considerably blurred. The array of architectural design forms is less defined than ever before. Everything is feasible, everything is available. From a technical viewpoint at least there is to be no boundaries anymore. The often new and increasing utilisation of high-tech materials and computer components leads to an ever greater blurring of original boundaries between construction systems and filigree construction in their true character. We have since been unable to do justice to new demands for construction options; composite forms prevail.

The distinction between solid and filigree construction as pure constructions is interesting in itself. It illustrates the "how" and "why" of building. This means of analysis which permits comparison of ancient and contemporary systems and also renders their evolution legible. This whets our appetite for new forms and simultaneously creates their boundaries.

Notes

¹ For example, the structures of the World Expositions of the 19th century, like the Crystal Palace in London or the Eiffel Tower in Paris. For details of the latter, see Roland Barthes, *The Eiffel Tower, and Other Mythologies*, transl. Richard Howard, New York, c. 1979.

² Sigfried Giedion: *The Eternal Present. A Contribution to Constancy and Change*. The National Gallery of Art, Washington, 1964, p. 177.

³ *ibid.*, p. 177.

⁴ Christian Norberg-Schulz: *Logik der Baukunst (Bauwelt Fundamente 15)*, Gütersloh, Berlin, Munich, 1968, p. 109.

⁵ Of all the known terms, filigree construction appears to be the most precise and most comprehensive in order to study the essence of the construction tectonics principle. In contrast to this, the term skeleton (or frame) construction, frequently regarded as a synonym, seems to draw unavoidable parallels with plant or animal structures and hence a reference to an "organic" architectural interpretation, which as such has nothing to do with the form of construction. The term lightweight construction is similarly restrictive because not only does it – unreasonably – tend to reduce filigree construction to a form of building "light in weight" but also – indirectly – tends to favour certain materials at the expense of others.

⁶ Markus Dröge, Raimund Holubek: "Der rechte Winkel. Das Einsetzen des rechteckigen Bauprinzips"; in: Andreas Brandt: *Elementare Bauten. Zur Theorie des Archetypus, Urformen weltweiten, elementaren Bauens in einer Zusammenschau*, Darmstadt, 1997, pp. 499–508, p. 501.

⁷ Kenneth Frampton: *Studies in Tectonic Culture*, Cambridge, 1995, p. 3.

⁸ Hans Soeder: *Urformen der abendländischen Baukunst in Italien und dem Alpenraum* (Du-Mont Documents), Cologne, 1964, p. 19.

⁹ Oxford English Dictionary.

¹⁰ cf. Gottfried Semper: *Der Stil in den technischen und tektonischen Künsten oder praktische Ästhetik*, vol. 1: *Die textile Kunst*, Frankfurt a. M., 1860, p. 13.

¹¹ Werner Blaser: *Elementare Bauformen*, Düsseldorf, 1982, pp. 31–43.

Comparing the relationship between structure and space
solid construction – filigree construction

Solid construction

Body

- made from *walls* (vertical)
- solid, homogeneous



- plastic, solid bodies

Primacy of the space

- directly enclosed *interior space*
- *distinct separation* between interior and exterior



- *plan layout concept*

Principle of forming enclosed spaces

a) *Cells*

- additive, starting from the smallest room unit
- divisive, by subdividing a large initial volume (internal subdivision)

b) *Walls*

- hierarchical, parallel loadbearing walls, clear directional structure (open-end facades)
- resolution of the walls: parallel rows of columns (a form of filigree construction, cf. colonnade mosque)



Loadbearing principle

- horizontal: arches; shells (vault, dome); form-active loadbearing structures (stressed skins)
- for long spans: additional strengthening with ribs (e.g. Gothic) and downstand beams (T-beams)
- directional systems (truss designs) or non-directional systems (waffle designs)



Openings as wall perforations

- the structural disruption in the wall
- mediation between interior and exterior
- the hole: dependent on the wall–opening proportions

Filigree construction

Lattice

- made from *linear members* (horizontal and vertical)
- open framework (2D, 3D) reduced to the essentials



Primacy of the structure

- no direct architectural interior space creation
- no separation between interior and exterior



- the construction of the framework dominates: linear members as lattice elements, infill panels

Principle of forming enclosed spaces

Gradual *sequence of spaces*, from "very open" to "very enclosed", depending on the degree of closure of the infill panels

c) *Skeleton construction*

- partial closure of horizontal and vertical panels between lattice elements: floor/roof or wall as infill structure

d) *Column-and-slab construction*

- solid slab as floor/roof construction in reinforced concrete



- walls as infill between columns or user-defined wall developments (non-loadbearing)

Loadbearing principle

- horizontal beams (primary), possibly more closely spaced transverse members (secondary)
- eccentric nodes; directional hierarchy; layered; primarily timber engineering
- axial nodes; directional and non-directional; primarily structural steelwork



- for long spans: increased structural depth of primary elements

- trusses, plane frames (2D), space frames (3D)

Panel as structurally inherent opening principle

- the structural opening as a variation of the panel between lattice elements

- infill panels: solid; horizontal; vertical

- non-loadbearing curtain wall, horizontal ribbon windows

	Modules	Masonry	Concrete	Timber	Steel	Insulation
Introduction	The importance of the material	The pathos of masonry	On the metaphysics of exposed concrete	Wood: indifferent, synthetic, abstract – plastic	Why steel?	The “invisible” building material
Properties of materials	The perception of architectural space The longevity of materials	The materials Swiss clay bricks and blocks	The materials The concreting process 10 rules for the production of concrete Exposed concrete surfaces	The materials Wood-based products – Overview Wood-based products – Layered products Wood-based products – Particleboards Wood-based products – Fibreboards Important panel and prefabricated systems – Overview Panel construction – Current developments	Sections – forms and applications Fire protection Potential applications for structural steelwork	Transparent thermal insulation Thermal insulation materials and their applications
Systems		Masonry terminology Design and construction Masonry bonds Tying and reinforcing double-leaf masonry walls	Floor supports, exposed concrete with internal insulation The fixing of heavy external cladding (concrete) The fixing of heavy external cladding (stone) Chart for establishing preliminary size of reinforced concrete slabs	Timber construction systems – Overview Platform frame construction – Construction principle Chart for establishing preliminary size of timber beams	Steel connections – A selection Structures – frame with cantilevering beams Structures – frame with continuous columns Structures – two-way frame Chart for establishing preliminary size of steel beams	Thermal insulation systems – Overview
Systems in architecture		The skill of masonry construction Types of construction Prefabrication	Linear structural members Systems with linear members Planar structural members Systems with planar structural members		Folding and bending Frames Girder, lattice beam and facade Space frames Diamonds and diagonals Canopy structures	
Examples	Plastic			Conversion of a trunk in traditional Japanese timber building culture The threads of the net		

The importance of the material

Andrea Deplazes

For me, designing and constructing is the same thing. I like the idea that form is the result of construction; and material, well, that's something finite. Nevertheless, confining myself to this formula would be a mechanistic reduction because the shape of the form, deliberate or not, bears – beyond its material or constructional component – information, an intent. Yes, even the absence of intent is information (which has been sufficiently well demonstrated by functionalism). Consequently, the separation between designing and constructing made by the teachers is a didactic strategy to create thematic focal points, which can be explained beautifully by the metaphor of the potter and his wheel. The potter models a vessel with both hands by applying force from outside with one hand and from inside with the other hand (in opposite directions) in order to re-shape the mass of clay into a hollow space. A "vessel that holds space" is produced. At best these forces complement each other, or at least affect each other, as a result of which the didactics sometimes becomes the methodology of the work and, moreover, becomes the design process as such. This process advances from both directions: from outside in the classical way from the urbane to the architectural project, and from inside by means of the spatial and constructional fabric, the tectonics – and both lead from the abstract to the concrete.

Between them lies the architectural matter. It stands as the boundary and transition zone between the inside and the outside and unites in itself all architectural, cultural and atmospheric factors, which are broadcast into the space. This is the paradox of architecture: although "space" is its first and highest objective, architecture occupies itself with "non-space", with the material limiting the space, which influences the space outwards as well as inwards. Architecture obtains its *memoria*, its spatial power and its character from this material. As Martin Heidegger expresses it, "The boundary is not the point where something ends but, as the Greeks recognised, the point at which something begins its existence." From this point of view architects are metaphysicists who would not exist without the physicists (technicians, engineers, designers), or even more like Janus with his two faces on one head: the presence of space (antimatter) and the presence of matter are mutually interlinked and influence each other unceasingly.

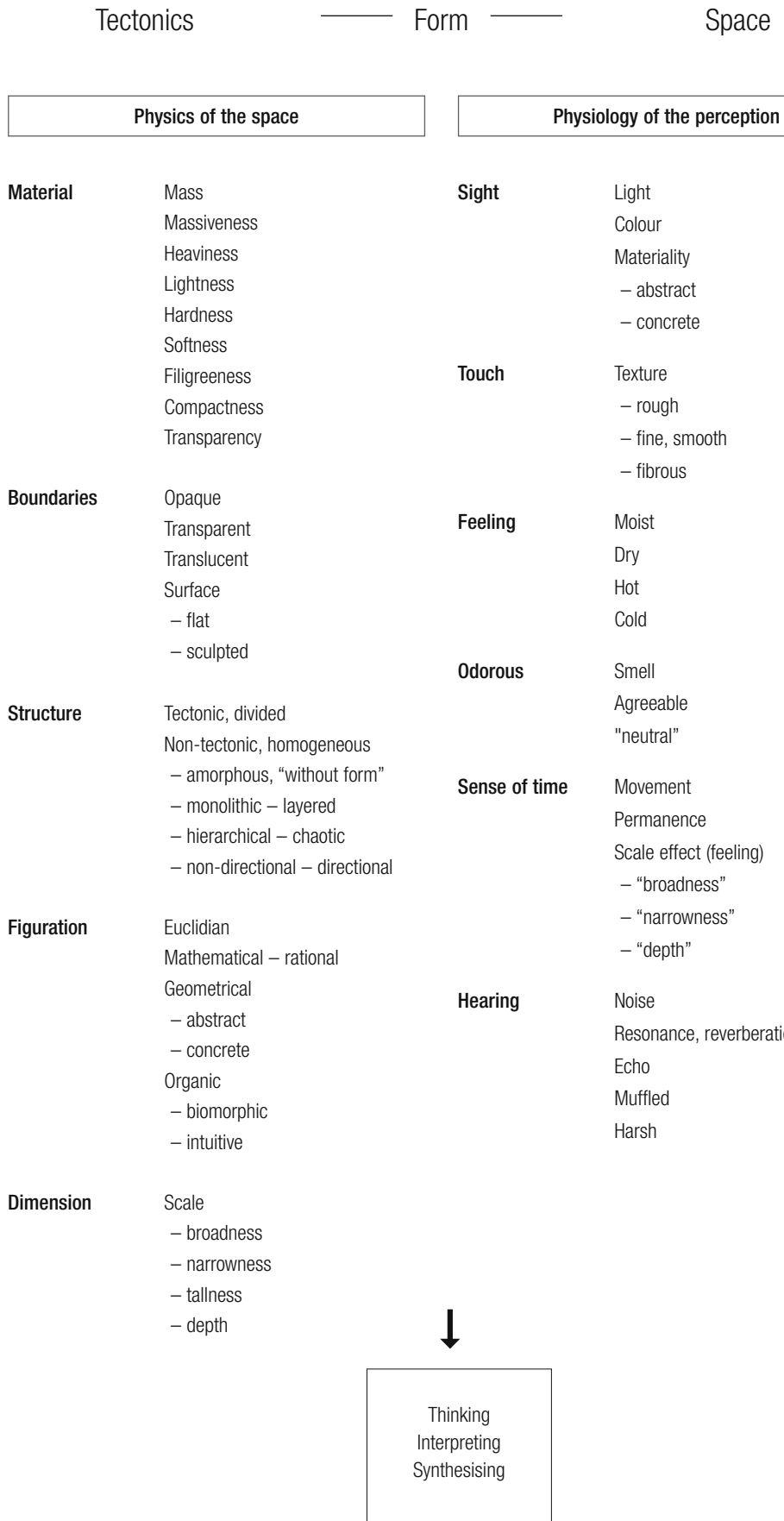
Conceiving and designing space or space complexes in advance or reconstructing it/them subsequently are only possible when I know the conditions of realisation and can master them as well.

Consequently, the architect is a "professional dilettante", a kind of alchemist who tries to generate a complex whole, a synthesis from most diverse conditions and requirements of dissimilar priority which have to be appraised specifically every single time.

The character of the architectural space therefore depends on *how* things are done and for that reason it is determined by the technical realisation and by the structural composition of the substances and building materials used. In this respect a remark by Manfred Sack is very instructive: "Again and again there is the sensuality of the material – how it feels, what it looks like: does it look dull, does it shimmer or sparkle? Its smell. Is it hard or soft, flexible, cold or warm, smooth or rough? What colour is it and which structures does it reveal on its surface?"

Sack observes that architectural space is perceptible first and foremost in a physical-sensual way. By striding through it and hearing the echo of my steps I estimate and sound out its dimensions in advance. Later, these dimensions are confirmed by the duration of my striding and the tone of the echo gives me a feeling of the haptic properties of the boundaries to the space, which can be decoded by touching the surfaces of the walls and, perhaps, by the smell of the room too, originating from different things. So only by means of these sensual experiences do I realise what I later believe I can comprehend with one single glance. Vision is obviously something like a pictorial memory of earlier physical-sensual experiences which responds to surface stimuli. I also like the idea of "which structures does it reveal on its surface?" Under the surface lies a hidden secret, which means the surface depends on a concealed structure which existed before the surface, which created the surface, and in a certain way the surface is a plane imprint of this structure. In architecture the line and the two-dimensional area do not exist – they are mathematical abstractions. Architecture is always three-dimensional – even in a micro-thin layer of paint – and thus plastic and material. As an example we can consider the distinction between colour as colouring material and colour as a certain shade of colour, keeping in mind that the latter may be used to generate the impression of two-dimensional areas. This notion makes it easy for me to understand construction not only as a question of technique or technology, but as *tekhne* (Greek: art, craft), as the urge to create, which needs the presence of an artistic or creative, human expression of will or intent, which is the starting point for the creation of every artefact. "Understanding" construction means to grasp it intellectually after grasping it materially, with all our senses.

The perception of architectural space



The longevity of materials

Usage	Years	Usage	Years
1. Floor coverings		6. Sanitary fittings	
1.1 Textile floor coverings (needle felt + carpeting) Price category 1, medium quality, laid, SFr 30–65/m ²	10	Bath, shower tray, cast, steel	50
Price category 2, hard-wearing quality, laid, SFr 66–140/m ²	12	Bath, shower tray, enamel	20
Natural fibre carpet (sisal-coconut), laid, SFr 80–110/m ²	12	Bath, shower tray, acrylic	40
1.2 Ceramic floor coverings		Shower tray, ceramic	50
Plain clay tiles	25	Lavatory, pan without cistern, bidet	50
Ceramic tiles	40	“Closomat” (shower-toilet)	20
Hard-fired bricks, unglazed	50	Mirror cabinet, plastic	15
Reconstituted stone flags	50	Mirror cabinet, aluminium	25
Slate flags	30	Fittings for kitchen, bath, shower or WC	20
Granite flags	50	Washing machine and tumble drier in tenant's flat	15
1.3 Other floor coverings		Hot-water boiler in tenant's flat	15
Seamless cushioned vinyl	20	7. Heating, flue, heat recovery system	
Plastic floor coverings (inlaid, PVC)	25	Thermostat radiator valves	15
Linoleum	25	Standard radiator valves	20
Cork	25	Electronic heat and flow counter	15
Parquet flooring	40	Mechanical evaporimeter	15
2. Plastering, painting and wallpapering		Electronic evaporimeter	30
Plastic grit, Chloster-style plaster	10	Plant for hot-air flue/heat recovery	20
Dispersion paint, matt paint	10	Fan for smoke extraction	20
Blanc fixe, whitened	10	Log-burning stove (with flue)	25
Woodwork (windows, doors) painted with oil-based or synthetic paint	20	8. Sunshading	
Radiators, painted with synthetic paint	20	Sunblind, synthetic fabric	12
Wallpaper, hard-wearing, very good quality	15	Louvres, plastic	15
3. Wood and plastic materials		Louvres, metal	25
Wood panelling, glazed	20	Plastic roller shutter	20
Wood panelling, untreated	40	Wooden roller shutter	25
Skirting boards, plastic	20	Metal roller shutter	30
Skirting boards, beech or oak	40	Operating cords for sunblinds and roller shutters	7
4. Ceramic and stone tiles		9. Locks	
Ceramic tiles in wet areas	40	Automatic door locking system	20
Stone tiles in wet areas	40	Lock to apartment door	20
5. Kitchen fittings		Lock to internal door	40
Electric hob, conventional	12	10. Reduction in longevity for commercial use	
Ceramic hob	15	Manufacturing	25%
Cooker, stove and oven, incl. baking sheet	20	Retail	25%
Microwave	15	Restaurants	50%
Refrigerator	12	Offices	20%
Freezer (upright or chest)	15		
Dishwasher	15		
Extractor, fan	15		

Source

Schweizerische Vereinigung kantonaler Grundstückerwerter
(Swiss Association of Cantonal Real Estate Valuation Experts) SVKG+SEK/SVIT:
“Schätzerhandbuch, Bewertung von Immobilien”, 2000.

Plastic

Roland Barthes

Although the names of some plastics (polystyrene, polyvinyl, polyethylene) might remind us more of a one-eyed Greek shepherd, plastic is essentially an alchemistic substance. Recently, there was an exhibition dedicated to the whole gamut of plastic products. At the entrance the visitors waited patiently in a long queue to view the magic process *par excellence*, the remodelling of matter. An ultimate machine, an elongated arrangement with a large number of tubes (an ideal form to bear witness to the mysteriousness of a long journey), easily turned out glossy, fluted bowls from a pile of greenish crystals. On one side the tellurium material – on the other side the perfect artefact. And between the two extremes: nothing. Nothing but a journey, supervised by an employee wearing a peaked cap – half god, half robot.

Plastic is not so much a substance as the notion of infinite remodelling. It is, like its ordinary name indicates, the omnipresence that has been rendered visible. And that is exactly why it is a truly miraculous substance – the miracle being a sudden conversion of nature every time. And plastic is infused with this astonishment: it is not so much an item as the trace of a movement.

Since this movement here is almost infinite and converts the original crystals into a quantity of ever more surprising objects, plastic is basically a spectacle that has to be deciphered: the spectacle of its final products. Looking at all the different final shapes (a suitcase, a brush, a car body, a toy, fabrics, tubes, bowls or plastic film), the matter presents itself unceasingly as a picture puzzle in the mind of the observer. This is due to the total versatility of plastic: we can use it to form buckets as well as pieces of jewellery. That's why we are constantly astonished by and are constantly dreaming of the proliferation of the material, in view of the connections we are amazed to discover between the single source and the multiplicity of its effects. It is a happy astonishment since mankind measures its power by the range of possible conversions, and plastic bestows on us the euphoria of an enchanting glide through nature.

But there is a price to be paid for this, and that is that plastic, sublimated as a movement, hardly exists as a substance. Its constitution is negative: it is neither hard nor deep. In spite of its usefulness it has to be content with a neutral quality of substance: resistance – a condition that demands infallibility. It is not fully accepted within the order of the “big” substances: lost between the elasticity of rubber and the hardness of metal it does not attain one of the true products of the mineral order: foam, fibre, plates. It is a congealed substance. Regardless of its particular state it keeps its flaky appearance, something vague, creamy and solidified – an inability to attain the triumphant smoothness of nature. But above all it gives itself away by the noise it makes, that hollow, weak tone. Its sound destroys it; just like its colours, for it seems only

to be able to retain the markedly chemical red, green, and it keeps only the aggressive. It uses them just like a name which is only in to show shades of colours.

The popularity of plastic bears witness to a movement regarding the myth of imitation. As its imitations are – from the historical point of view – middle-class tradition (the first clothing imitation from the early years of capitalism). Up to now imitation was always pretentious, was part of simulation, not application. Imitation aims to cheaply the most precious substances: precious silk, feathers, fur, silver – all the world's luxuries. Plastic does without this, it is a household substance, the first magic matter that is ready for ordinary use. It is ready because it is precisely this ordinary nature its triumphant reason for existence. For the artificial aims at the ordinary, not the extraordinary. At the same time the ancient function of nature has been defied: nature is no longer the idea, the pure substance has to be rediscovered or has to be imitated. As a substance, more abundant than all the world's raw materials, plastic replaces them all, even the invention of shapes. A luxury item is always on the earth and always reminds us in an especially clear way of its mineral or animal origin, of the nature of which it is only a topical image. Plastic exists to be used. Only in very rare cases are items invented for the pleasure of using plastic. The hierarchy of nature has been destroyed – a single one replaces the whole world could be plasticised and even imitated itself – for it seems that plastic aortas are already produced.

“Plastic” (1957)

Excerpt from: Roland Barthes, transl. after: Mythologies, Paris, 1957

The pathos of masonry

Ákos Moravánszky



Fig. 1: The intermeshing of nature and the built environment in the image of ruined masonry
Mario Ricci: "Capriccio" style with ancient ruins, pyramid and decoration

Layers

Pathos is "in" – despite its bad reputation for being "hollow", a reputation that, shadowlike, accompanies every emotional expression. Region, identity, space – terms that formerly were used with care – now take on an excessive force, probably in order to become points of reference in a rather uninteresting situation, or just to cause a sensation. And in architecture what could be more emotional than masonry? Where masonry is concerned we think of a figure with characteristics that tie the masonry to a certain place; characteristics like material, colour, weight, permanence. It is the artistic characteristic of masonry that provides the ethical and aesthetic resonance that legitimises many things. A wall with a coat of plaster or render is not necessarily masonry, regardless of how well it is built and coated. Masonry is "a structure that remains visible in its surface and works through it"¹ – regardless of the material used: natural stone or man-made bricks or blocks.

The relationship between nature and the built environment, as it was represented in the ruined masonry of the late Renaissance "Capriccio" genre, was intended to demonstrate the vanity of building and the corrupting power of death. In the end nature is waiting to take revenge for its violation "as if the artistic shaping was only an act of violence of the spirit".²

But the connection between masonry and nature can also be looked at from a less melancholy standpoint. Rudolf Schwarz described in his book *Von der Bebauung der Erde* (Of the Development of the Earth), published in 1949, the material structure of the Earth as masonry built layer by layer, starting with the seam "made from wafer-thin membranes of the universal material", from precipitation and sedimentation.³

Viewed by an unprejudiced onlooker the masonry *itself* should appear as a rather commonplace product when compared with the complex structures of high-tech industry. However, we sense the pathos quite clearly when masonry becomes the symbol for the building of the Earth, for the creation – or for homeliness as a contrast to modernisation. Brick-effect wallpaper, which decorates many basement night-clubs and discotheques, shows the sentimental meaning that attaches to masonry.

There are at least two debates about masonry: one about its surface as a medium for meaning and a boundary, the other about its mass as a product of manual work. Although both debates overlap constantly, I shall deal with them separately here.

The lightness: the wall, the art

No other theoretical study has formulated more new ideas regarding the double identity of masonry (and inspired a lot more) than the two volumes of Gottfried Semper's *Style in the Technical and Tectonic Arts: or, Practical Aesthetics*. The basis of Semper's system is the typology of human production methods: weaving, pottery, tectonics (construction in timber) and stereotomy (construction in stone). These four types of production correspond to the four original elements of architecture: wall, stove, roof and substructure (earth fill, terrace). What is important here is the ontological dimension of this breakdown: those four elements are not formally defined, but rather are aspects of human existence. It is remarkable to witness the flexibility that the seemingly rigid breakdown of architectural techniques allows with regard to the determination of its components. Even a mere sketch would be beyond the scope of this article. At this point it is important to establish that masonry artefacts could be products of the two "original techniques" – weaving and stereotomy. Tectonics, "the art of joining rigid, linear parts"⁴ (an example of this is the roof framework), is alien to masonry.

Semper's observations were influenced by the remains of walls discovered during excavations in the Assyrian capital Nineveh, which he saw in 1849 when he visited the Louvre. In his opinion these masonry fragments confirmed his clothing theory: the wall as boundary is the primary element, the wall as a load-carrying element in the construction is of secondary importance. The stones forming the surface of the Assyrian masonry (the remains at least) were assembled horizontally on the ground, painted, enamelled, baked and only then erected. In his manuscript *Vergleichende Baulehre* (Comparative Building Method) Semper wrote: "It is obvious that clay brick building, although already well established in Assyrian times, was not focused on construction. Its ornamentation was not a product of its construction but was borrowed from other materials."⁵ This theory still provokes – and inspires – us today because of its apparent reversal of



Fig. 2: The wall as a boundary element is the primary function, the masonry as loadbearing element the secondary function.
Nineveh, excavations of town walls between 1899 and 1917



Fig. 4: Stereotomy and marble-clad masonry
Otto Wagner: Steinhof Church, Vienna (A), 1907



Fig. 3: Lightweight rendered facade over heavyweight masonry
Jozef Plečnik: Sacred Heart of Jesus Church, Prague (CZ), 1939

cause and effect. It is the appearance of the masonry, its wickerwork-like surface, that determined the technique, and not vice versa. Semper states that the knot is “the oldest technical symbol and ... the expression of the earliest cosmogonic ideas”,⁶ i.e. the prime motif of human *tekhnē*, because a structural necessity (the connection of two elements) becomes an aesthetic, meaningful image. The effect of an oriental carpet is based on the rhythmic repetition of its knots; the whole surface is processed uniformly. Art is always a kind of wickerwork: a painter – no matter if he or she is a landscape painter of the 19th century or an “action painter” like Jackson Pollock working in the 1950s – works uniformly over the whole of the canvas, instead of placing coloured details onto a white surface. Only this calligraphy allows us to experience masonry. “The mesh of joints that covers everything, lends ... the surface not only colour and life in a general way but stamps a sharply defined scale onto it and thereby connects it directly with the imagination of human beings”, wrote Fritz Schumacher in 1920.⁷

Although Semper’s theory regarding the textile origin of the wall has its roots in historicism and has been misunderstood and criticised by many representatives of the modern theory of material authenticity, it still influenced the aesthetics of masonry in the 20th century. Naturally, this fact cannot always be attributed to the direct influence of Semper’s theory. But in the architecture of Vienna the acceptance of Semper’s ideas is unmistakable and even today architects like Boris Podrecca still feel bound by this tradition. Above all, it was the group led by Otto Wagner who interpreted Semper’s theses early on in an innovative way. The facades of the Steinhof Church (1905–07) and the Post Office Savings Bank (1904–06) in Vienna are structured according to Semper’s distinction between lower, stereotomic and upper, textile bays.

A pupil of Wagner, the Slovene Jože Plečnik interpreted these themes in a new way, as can be seen in his works in Vienna, Prague, and Ljubljana. “New” here means that he integrated his knowledge about ancient forms with virtuoso competence: distortions, alienations, borrowed

and invented elements balance each other. The facade of the Sacred Heart of Jesus Church in Prague, designed by Plečnik (Fig. 39) according to Plečnik’s plans, is clearly divided into a lower, brick-faced and upper, white-rendered bay. The facade of the library of the university of Ljubljana (Fig. 41) is also a membrane of stone and brick. In the facade of the University Library in Ljubljana (Fig. 41) the combination probably symbolises Slovenia’s position between Germanic and Mediterranean building cultures.

Louis Henry Sullivan compared the effect of a building built with bricks made from coarse-grained clay to the soft sheen of old Anatolian carpets: “a texture of innumerable highlights and shadows, and a rich, warm appearance”.⁸



Fig. 5: A weave of natural stone and clay bricks
Jože Plečnik: University Library, Ljubljana (SLO), 1941

As its name alone indicates, Frank Lloyd Wright's invention, "textile block" construction, tries to achieve the fabric-like effect of precast blocks made of lightweight concrete. In 1932 he wrote an article in which – distancing himself from the sculptor-architects – he called himself a "weaver" when describing the facades of his buildings in California, e.g. La Miniatura or Storer Residence (1923): "The blocks began to reach the sunlight and to crawl up between the eucalyptus trees. The 'weaver' dreamed of their impression. They became visions of a new architecture for a new life. . . The standardisation indeed was the soul of the machine and here the architect used it as a principle and 'knitted' with it. Yes, he crocheted a free wall fabric that bore a great variety of architectural beauty. . .



Fig. 6: Decorated brickwork
Louis Henry Sullivan: National Farmers' Bank, Owatonna (USA), 1908

Palladio! Bramante! Sansovino! Sculptors, all of them! But there was I – the 'weaver'."⁹

Ancient and Byzantine masonry and the religious architecture of the Balkans show in many different examples how the surface of the masonry becomes a robe when decorations are used instead of a structural configuration with pilaster or column orders, e.g. by inserting glazed ceramic pins or small stones into the mortar joints. These buildings manage without a facade formulated with the aid of openings and sculptural em-



Fig. 7: Wright's second "textile block" house in Los Angeles
Frank Lloyd Wright: Storer Residence, Hollywood (USA), 1923

bellishments and instead favour the homogeneous impression of the masonry fabric. In the late 1950s the Greek architect Dimitris Pikionis designed the external works to a small Byzantine church on Philopappos hill,

near the Acropolis in Athens. His plans included a footpath, an entrance gate and other small structures. Here, Dimitris worked, even more than Wright, as a "weaver", knitting together landscape, existing and new elements to form a colourful story.

Carlo Scarpa created a similar work with historic wall fragments and new layers at the Castelvecchio in Verona. Dominikus Böhm, Rudolf Schwarz and Heinz Bienefeld also used decorative masonry "clothing", often with inclined courses, brick-on-edge courses and lintels in order to illustrate that the shell is independent of the foundation. The facades to the Markus Church in Björkhamen (1956–60) designed by Sigurd Lewerentz demonstrate yet another strategy: the horizontal bed joints are as high as the masonry courses themselves. For this reason the brick wall exudes a "calm" expression, as if it was made of a completely different material to that used for the construction of, for example, the Monadnock Building in Chicago – an ancient skyscraper which, in the era of frame construction, was built in brickwork at the request of the building owner. In this building the enormous compressive load could be visually expressed.

The textile skin corresponds to the idea of the "decorated shed" propagated by the American architect Robert Venturi. The Venturi practice, an imaginative workshop of



Fig. 8: The interweaving of the structure and its surroundings
Dimitris Pikionis: Landscaping and refurbishment of St Dimitris Lumbardiaris Church, Philopappos hill, Athens (GR), 1957

post-Modernism, strives for a rational (according to American billboard culture) separation between the building and the medium conveying the meaning. The facades of many buildings designed by this practice employee large-format panels covered with a floral pattern that leave a naive, ironical impression. The decorative brick facades of the Texan architectural practice of Cesar Pelli also underline that the outer skin is a shell – like almost all masonry, at least since the oil crisis, when the new thermal insulation regulations made solid masonry quite uneconomic.

In the works of SITE, the architecture and environmental arts organisation led by James Wines, masonry as a kind of shell becomes a symbol for the consumer society; its character as a false, glued-on decorative layer



Fig. 9: Historical wall fragments, new layers
Carlo Scarpa: Reconstruction of the Castelvecchio, Verona (I), 1958–74



Fig. 11: The world's tallest self-supporting brick facade
Burnham & Root: Monadnock Building, Chicago (USA), 1884–91, expanded by Graham, Greenwald and Roche, 1893



Fig. 10: Bed joint widths approaching the height of an individual brick
Sigurd Lewerentz: Markus Church, Björkhagen near Stockholm (S), 1960

peeling away from the substrate was featured in department store projects. Such preparatory work was obviously necessary in order to pave the way for all moralising about clothing as an illusion, about the mask as a mask. In today's architecture the materiality of masonry is often perceived as a myth, in line with SITE ideals, just a bit less pithy. The headquarters in Winterthur (1999) by Urs B. Leiser and Adrian Meyer asks whether a facade system based on industrial technology and consisting of prefabricated masonry panels, still needs the pathos of masonry or – perhaps on closer inspection and the knowledge of its unusual precision and the joints between the panels – whether it comes closer to the modern ideal of a material that has freed itself from manufacturing (as proposed by Ernst Neufert). The loadbearing structure of the monument block in Baden designed by Urs Burkhardt and Adrian Meyer (2000) consists of the masonry of the tower, the concrete service tower and the in situ concrete structure. The distinctive floor edges allow for the stacking of individual storeys, which is done by displacing the masonry panels and large window openings in relation to the storeys.

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