The written work concerning the concept of transparency was conceived in the Spring of 1955 by Colin Rowe, educated as an architect, student of architectural historian Rudolf Wittkower, and by Robert Slutzky, painter and student of Josef Albers. At that time, both were at the School of Architecture at the University of Texas in Austin; Robert Slutzky was responsible for the teaching of drawing and color design, Colin Rowe was professor of architectural design. The essay was ready for printing in Fall of that same year; already in Winter, a second essay had been written as a sequel to the study, and a third part outlined in Spring of 1956.

Various circumstances delayed the publication of the second part (an example would be the willingness of "The Architectural Review" to accept the piece on the condition that certain sections concerning Gropius be omitted) until it finally appeared in 1964 in "Perspecta 8", The Yale Architectural Journal, slightly abridged, under the title "Transparency: Literal and Phenomenal".

The significance of this essay is threefold: Firstly, it demonstrates both a sober as well as a precise and fact-related working technique that is seldom applied to architectural works of the 20th Century. Secondly: For more than half a century, architects and critics of architecture have seen the significance of architectural development in the fact that an avant-garde necessarily brings forth what is new in a continuous, uninterrupted succession. There is, in contrast, still hardly any effort directed toward abstracting from the abundance of existing works the insights or methods which, when freed from the particular and the personal of isolated cases, become
transferable and available. Here lies the fundamental value of the work of Rowe and Slutzky: it demonstrates by way of example that theoretical bases can be obtained from what has been developed empirically. This is of particular topical interest today. And thirdly, the concept of transparency in architecture elaborated by Rowe and Slutzky demonstrates a possibility for the classification of complexity and facility that seems to us to be especially timely. Its applicability, moreover, is extraordinarily multilayered.

For these reasons, I have translated and commented on "Transparency", the basis for the translation was laid by the text in "Perspecta 8" (PR). The footnotes specify where this version deviates substantially in word or meaning from the original 1955 essay (EF). I thank Robert Slutzky for making the first text available to me. For permission to reprint the article, I thank the editors of "Perspecta".

The case is now being published in the Le Corbusier Studies of the Institute for History and Theory of Architecture of the ETH because the concept of transparency as specifically formulated by Rowe and Slutzky is demonstrated on two of Le Corbusier's masterworks - one executed building and one project - and because, thanks to this concept, it becomes possible to clarify a typical feature of Le Corbusier's architectural work that until now has never been described.

Bernhard Hoelsi (1968)

Werner Oechslin
"Transparency": The Search for a Reliable Design Method in Accordance with the Principles of Modern Architecture

On March 12, 1968, Robert Slutzky wrote from New York to Bernhard Hoelsi, who had requested information from him about the origin and development of the "Transparency" text: "Firstly, let me again thank you for your marvelous efforts re: Transparency. It is comforting to know that one can have a forum on the other side of the Atlantic, particularly when the 'literary' transparentists are so supreme these days..." These first lines lead directly to the center of the problem of Colin Rowe and Robert Slutzky's co-authored writings under the title "Transparency". Even when Hoelsi and the newly founded Institute for Zurich were preparing to publish "Transparency" for the first time in book form as the first volume of a planned series of Le Corbusier studies, Slutzky himself was not sure anymore how this writing had come about. He was suggesting, moreover, that there was no lack of "transparent" architecture in the world, and that the authors of "Transparency" were deceiving themselves if they thought they could assert the "metaphor" - their own sense of transparency, that is - against a far too literal interpretation of a term treated as a synonym for "modern".

The hope that their earlier efforts could be developed on the European side of the Atlantic - incidentally, also expressed by those in Europe - was all the more understandable. Be that as it may, in 1968, when Hoelsi was preparing the German edition of the first part, complete with commentary, what had been proposed in the mid-1950s as holding great promise for the future was apparently largely forgotten. Today, that very phase of architectural discussion, prematurely fallen prey to myth, is part of history and an object of historical reconstruction, as Alexander Caragomina has proposed in "The Texas Rangers. A Short History of a Teaching Program at the University of Texas College of Architecture 1951-1958". Caragomina views the interrupted architectural discussion that took place during the years between 1951 and 1958 as bound up with the story of the Texas Rangers. He leaves off his account with the question, "What would have happened if...?" Furthermore, in an epilogue, Caragomina considers John Hejduk, one of the Texas Rangers, who in 1981 described the episode as if the move from experiment to routine had automatically led to the decay of the idea: "After the Texas thing reached Cornell, it just dried up. It became academic. They took Corb, analyzed him to death and they...

This text was written for the French edition of "Transparency" (cf. Colin Rowe and Robert Slutzky, Transparency, ristefileitvannut, Paris: Editions du Dernier-Cerf, 1992, pp. 7ff.). Since then, a comprehensive account of the evolution of this text has been included by Alexander Caragomina in his book "The Texas Rangers. A Short History of a Teaching Program at the University of Texas College of Architecture 1951-1958" (Cambridge, Mass.: MIT Press, 1993), based on the material in the archives at the Institute. The author had the opportunity to examine the first draft of this work, for which he is very grateful to A. Caragomina. The references in the footnotes to the present article refer to the published book.
squeezed all the juice out of him... The warm Texas breeze hit the chill of Hhaca and then ramped it out. But each poetic image has done more to shave up the myth of the Texas Rangers than to diminish it. The story of the experiments and experiences that remain until quite recently, the only directly available theoretical evidence is the texts themselves.

Just how inadequate recollections of this event remained for far too long is demonstrated in the 1968 exchange of letters cited above. However, from Scholz's answers to Hoesli's questions at that time, it was firmly established that Rowe and Slutzky conceived of the first “Transparency” article in the spring of 1965, committed it to paper during the following months, and completed it in the summer of the same year. Immediately afterward, in fall and winter, the authors embarked on a sequel of “Transparency”, and ultimately outlined a third, never published article. And yet, the fact...

But this was not enough! The article was sent to the most important journals, without success. The Architectural Review declined publication on the basis of remarks considered to be too critical. To Hoesli, this rejection was evidently still vexing until 1968: “As I have already explained in his commentary and descriptions that would not have less aid him in his undertaking, the 1968 publication on transparency was thus intended to stand as ‘the contribution of the still inexhaustible possibilities of the Cubist aesthetic’ and ‘demonstrate the relevance and application of the concept’.”

Unfortunately the exchange of letters with Oswald makes it very clear that Hoesli’s objections to “Transparency” continued to be first and foremost a critical one. The text was then shelved until 1962, when Yale University contacted Colin Rowe about it. The first part of “Transparency” was finally published in Perspecta 8 in 1963. Thus at the time that Hoesli was working on the German edition, only the first part of “Transparency” had appeared in a published, that is, a final version. Moreover, as this version had been modified from the copy of the manuscript in his possession, Hoesli decided not only to write a commentary but to put together a “critical” edition. As if extracting the “true” text from various codices, Hoesli cited in footnotes the small deviations from his original typewritten manuscript Slutzky had sent him. The text was then edited, prepared for publication, and published. The same volume was to come out shortly, the inclusion of the second “Transparency” article by Rowe and Slutzky was not possible. It would appear for the first time in 1973 in Perspecta 13/14. But it was not included by Rowe in his own collected articles of 1976, nor was it integrated into any of the later editions of the gta publication. The reason for this decision, as far as we know, is the fact that in his 1968 commentary on the first article of “Transparency”, the examples presented in this second article—Michelangelo’s San Lorenzo façade, for instance—was not included, not a little by contingency and...
to verify their methodology for themselves. They would also avoid ending up with answers that were overly definitive or final. Instead, the emphasis was on the experimental nature of the exercise.

In an internal memorandum, sent in March of 1954 to Horace Hamilton Harris, dean of the College of Architecture, Rowe and Hosel specified the intellectual requirement of the architecture curriculum, speaking of “certain principles” as well as of “essential knowledge.”[26] They considered such requirements corollaries and orientation points, indeed the basis of a didactic approach that was, in fact, the central theme of the Texas Rangers’ program. Critical assessment of the “formal systems” of Wright, Le Corbusier, and Mies was the declared goal of the curriculum. After affirming “their form will be used with or without conscious knowledge,” Rowe and Hosel then laid down the challenge: “It is the duty of the Academy to make knowledge conscious.” This was exactly as precise as it was general in that it still left the possibilities of such a “coming to consciousness” undefined. Peter Eisenman, in an overview of the significance of American architectural journals—在他 referred to the concept of “transparency” as “still unexplored”—preached his reflections with a quotation from Protoyski: “It has not yet been said that if the door of an empirical discipline comes in through the chimney like a ghost and upsets the furniture. But it is no less true that history, if not received at the door of a theoretical discipline, creeps into the ecletr as a horde of mice and undermines the groundwork.” This variation on the theme of the eternal relationship between theory and practice also has its application with respect to the Texas program.

But in Austin, a certain poetic license was welcome, the privilege of a younger generation who did not only permit themselves a partisan point of view, more precisely, to reject certain advantages in it. Elan was injured—clearly of consciousness, for example, its capacity to decide and define the objective itself was left to time. In The Beginnings of Art, however, not published until 1962, he portrayed transparency, abstraction, and symbol as sources of both prehistoric and modern art.[27] But as early as 1944, in his foreword to Gyorgy Kepes’ volume Language of Vision, he endorsed Kepes’ desire “to put earlier demands into concrete terms and on a rational basis as they were indispensable to the basic argument.”[28] On the Texas Rangers—and at the same time condições that blinded avant-garde—“change for change’s sake.”[29] Yet, while the authors of “’Transparency”” explicitly derived their concept and its double meaning from Kepes and Moholy-Nagy, from Giedion, who was responsible for placing the theme of the dependence of modern architecture on the “hunch at the heart of Space, Time and Architecture,”[30] they selected out exactly those points of friction that were best suited to illustrating and distinguishing their own position. Later, in his German translation, Hosel critically noted that the quotations from Giedion found in Transparency should be taken potomically, as if they were insurmountable to the basic argument.[31] On the other hand, Slutzky confirmed still in 1989 that the “transparency” discussion had essentially arisen out of a critique of Giedion, and any conceptual and fundamental clarification should be sought on this basis.[32] That Gropuis’ Dessau Bauhaus should become a victim in this connection—and, as a consequence, that the public committees that were at a disadvantage—should almost have been prevented from understanding the situation of the time, when Bauhaus-oriented didactics at American schools of architecture were by this time thoroughly predominant. Consequently, the didactic goals of the Texas Rangers were diametrically opposed to those of Gropius and Breuer at Harvard. This becomes strikingly noticeable when one compares the tasks that were assigned to the students. The recipes recommended at Harvard—combining material and conceptual research with individual solutions, so as to produce “visual variety”—were later portrayed not altogether unjustly by Klaus Hildebrand as entirely meaningless in terms of a definite architectural result.[33] If at Harvard one proceeded pragmatically, on the basis of economic and constructional factors, and ultimately also on the basis of “less definable psychological requirements,”[34] then the reverse was true for the Texas Rangers, for whom “form follows form.”[35] The Harvard process of architectural “form-finding” had to be radically attacked from the standpoint of artistic premises of form. Only thus can it be explained why Rowe and Hosel went beyond, and beyond the requirements of their 1954 memorandum according to the implications of modern architecture: to Le Corbusier’s Dom-ino scheme and Van Doesburg’s series of “Counter Constructions” of 1923.[36] These images were over thirty years old at the time, but nevertheless little had occurred since that point was not already implicit in those drawings.[37]

Thus, despite the American presence of Giedion and Harvard, the starting point for the Texas Rangers was distinctly linked to the beginning of the modern movement in Europe. There, at the.root itself, problems could best be detected and further elaborated. It is said, that Hosel especially liked to point out that the first generation that had matured with the modern period and that with this maturation had assumed a particular obligation no longer merely to expound modernism as a creed or doctrine, but to systematically and methodically research it with the aim of helping it prove its validity and gain acceptance.[38] So strong, objective was at least set up as a goal, although naturally not a completely new course. De Stijl had long ago waved the banner of “pure art” and well had already propagated the “objective validity” of the new architectural results in his International Architecture in 1925—even if coupled with a wholly different subject matter. In America, too, it had been impossible for a long time to ignore that the “cultural revolution” had already begun and that the origin had become the cultural revolution.
themselves lose with the avant-garde and thus were free of a future-oriented pan­
philic rhetoric affords a more representative picture of the general state of archi­
tecture and architectural criticism in the USA. In his portrayal of the develop­
ment of the School of Architecture at Columbia University through his 1946 work "The Academic Architecture of Columbia in the USA," Theodore K. Rothenberg entitled the chapter concerning the years 1933–1954 "Revolution and Clarification." But it quickly becomes clear that this revolution was confined to the "implications of the contemporary materials and methods of construction" and, incidentally, relied on the thesis—by this point long since revised and supplemented by Gedion himself—that new spatial concepts would be guar­anteed by the new technical requirements.24 Here one finds again the reintroduc­
tion of the Vitruvian "synthesis of commodity, firmness and delight."25 Initi­
tives relating to the design curriculum, on the other hand, were reduced to the general, misconceived formula of "form conceptions in three dimensions," inci­
dentially without disowning in any way the Beaux-Arts tradition.26 Similarly, in
York, in 1950—the same year Josef Albers was named director of the Depart­
mort of Design—Assistant Professor Richard Adams Ratliff came out with a text­
book under the promising title Introduction to Functional Design, part of the great
tradition of such textbooks since the turn of the century; however, absolutely noth­
ing of the "Cubist revolution" is to be detected in it.27
These, then, are indications—along with Herdeck's serious criticism of the curricu­
lum at the Harvard Graduate School of Design—of the situation of the archi­
tectural situation in the USA in the early 50's, a situation characterized by, the
way, to cite Werner Seligman's review of the time, by the prevalence of
"hypothetical paradoxologies and warped surface structures."28 Once looked at in this
way, the Texas Rangers' undertaking can probably be seen as directed to a revi­
sion of the history of the origins of modern architectural form, considered as trans­
scending all limits of time, and to the expression of the design methods that form it. This necessarily involved a look back into history—which may be rather sur­
prising from today's view. This also meant that those in Texas had to disengage
their own activity and objective from direct connection with the architecture of
their own day in favour of a new view and assessment of the origins of modern
architecture a generation in the past. It is also symptomatic of this moment of con­
sciousness, of recourse to history, that a remarkable literary was being assembled
in Austin at this time. The works of Lautner were required for it, of which, in
fact, no doubt the highest graphic standards.29 Doubtless more important how­
ever was the quickly spreading "modular" emphasis—which at least since the "Pro­
portions" congress at the 1951 Triennale in Milan and under the influence of
Rudolf Wittkower's Architectural Principles in the Age of Humanism, made pos­
sible a new and unabashed approach to history on the basis of geometrical
geometrical standards.30
In Austin, the signal was understood. The no longer satisfactory defin­
tion of an architecture based on variable social impacts, among other things, led to a preoccupation with immanent formal design processes, if not neces­
sarily to formalism. Hoesli would argue with these developments later, in 1960, the year of the publication of "The Architect," an attempt to shift the exten­
dition in architecture to a focus of interest in the study of the relationships of
other direction in architecture elsewhere. A confidential letter to Hoesli from Adolf
Müller-Vogt testifies that this particular aspect—the formal completeness of the archi­
tect's design—was not a "deductive form" from given phenomena, but in particular interest though in obvious contradiction to the tendencies of that time.31
There was a further, even more "surprising" aspect of this form-related orien­
tation on the part of the Texas Rangers—"style." Of course, the con­
cept of an "International Style" had broken the taboo against style much earlier
and placed modern architecture under an equally notorious stylistic classification. However, according to Werner Seligman, it was not this source for Hoesli but a dif­
cendent one that was the trigger for related thoughts. Matthew Novick's Origins and
Trends in Modern Architecture of 1952.32 Hoesli concluded from this article that
modern architecture should be conceived as a homogeneous and self-con­
tained phenomenon, therefore as "style." Such a conception was, according to him, at
the same time, a prerequisite for deriving (didactic) rules. Naturally, Hoesli was
hardly concerned in a scholarly way with style and concepts of style—certainly not at all with art historical concepts of style. On the other hand, Wölflin's "funda­
mental concepts" and theoretical ideas, for example, had had an effect far outside
art history, and time and again demonstrably influenced architectural discussion.
Such was also the case with the notion of "style." Art history was long since famil­
iliar with "the timelessness of essential intellectual concepts—at least since the
beginning of the modern period—and the claim to understand art historical develop­ment as a logically (or psychologically) necessary self-development of specific
problems," might indeed have provoked Hoesli's interest, had he been closer to
art history.33 His concern, however, was certainly not to rethink art history from
the ground up. This might explain the sometimes evident indication that charac­
terizes his transformation of such concepts into practice. It is then even more
remarkable, how clearly the Texas Rangers differ in their specific approach to
modern architecture (form, say, the Smithsons, who confined themselves to the
fixed formulation of primarily prototypical characteristics ("white", "cubic," "autom­
sизм") in The Heroic Period of Modern Architecture, conceived, accord­
ing to their own declaration, in 1955–56, exactly the same time as the Texas phe­
nomenon. Conversely the Texas Rangers, in their orientation toward didactic
goals, were occupied with essential characteristics, and in this sense with general
principles.
However, while Rowe and Slutsky's "Transparency" strictly confined itself
to an analysis of chosen historical examples, Hoesli, on the other hand,
because of his insistence on extending the argument to a design method, was occu­
pied—instead of any possible ambiguities—with this issue his whole life long.
The metaphorical—and not literal—interpretation of "transparency" guaranteed from
the beginning that broad uses of the word would be predicted. Yet they could not
entirely be avoided. Just as Slutsky labelled Gedion's comparison of the Dessau
Building and the Picasso's Architectural "as symbolic figuration," so would the new
interpretation of Le Corbusier—seen largely through Cubist glasses—also be read in
such a "deterministic" way.34 One of Hoesli's students later wrote that he had consid­
ered the strict methods Hoesli had taught—"discipline, reason, perseverance, and
order"—as abstract principles, some had understood, wanted to understand, or
even misunderstood. Hoesli's statements to the effect that the "architectonic pro­
duct" was now "determinable."35 Prior to writing his commentary and addendum to
the 1969 Transparenz, Hoesli had publicly outlined his ideas on different occa­
sions in his inaugural lecture at the ETH Zurich, February 4, 1961, he argued against interpreting modern architecture exclusively as a product of "form follows function," seeking to salvage from its 40-year evolution, "formal laws and for­
nal systems" that had their own innate principles of development.36 And when in
1975 he again took up "transparency" as the theme for a seminar within the Depart­
mort of Architecture at the ETH, the formula "transparency as an organization of
form" was of particular importance to him.37 That this could lead to determinism
and prescriptive results may be seen from his 1966 addendum. Yet if the tended
toward such a model, then this was a result of his primarily didactic intentions, as
evident in his 1975 lessons on "transparency," sketched out in a logical succession
or this conviction - can be made.

A thoroughgoing significant teaching of design, qualified the efficacy of concluding the

Texas Rangers, having called all architects, busier's
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Thus, Hejduk, when recently

question in an interview, "How do you teach architecture?", answered, "Doxologically by a question of "transparency" as a general principle. This we have obviously reached with this one, had it permitted a very simple approach to a teaching of design built on the principles of modern architecture. History.

In a letter to Hejduk dated September 26, 1983, Hejduk, who professed to be amazed by Hejduk's vivid memory of the time in Texas, wrote: "It was during a discussion of architectural education in the USA and abroad ... I distinctly remember a visit by you to the University of Texas, and at the same time completed. Yet the new and altered positions of Hejduk and Eisenman, whose intellectual pedigrees spread quickly in the unfocused environment following the Austin experiment, cannot be understood without this background.

What has gone lost...

For the younger architects, this is a thoroughgoing significant teaching of design, qualified the efficacy of concluding the Texas Rangers, having called all architects, busier's
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What has gone lost...
penetration" - this time, however, with refer-
ence to the responses of illustrations in
Hicks's community. The rally was held in
Zurich as a "response" and became the
theme of some seminars. Lettuce, April 13,
1968, from N. Peronato to AR. Vogt.
Vogt, Director of the gla Institute, from Vogt to
Peronato, May 20, 1968; from Peronato to
letters are in the Hocks Archives, Institute
g! , ETH Zurich.
10. The "unintentionality" of Giacomo Beeckman's Rome and
Shostak occasioned an article by Howard
Tuttle, as recently as 1989 ("Giancanna"
1989, 35, pp. 640). Compare to Shostak's
monument at the time: a product of the
conditions of the day. Below...
duced here - not without a certain epistemological
understanding - as "an example of constructo-
lit for modern architectural criticism that
the authors feel will help to place this no-
tionally important subject on a more rigorous
level."
12. In addition to this, we also have the account in Shostak's letter of March 12, 1965: "This one line in 1962. Yack estab-
lished contact with Colin who was, as my memory is correct, back at Cornell. He had some reservations about allowing J. Hartwell (the then editor of the journal) to make de-
finitions and changes to an unsigned short-
ened version of his paper. In turn, J. was
petitioned to improve the project-
ancial work he had received from Shostak.
13. And with, for a few meetings with J.B., to which compositionally
he objected which felt I had to a limit.
Transparency fundamentally
ness. Of course, the original had more life
and the published illustration was quite
poor... but as the whole I think I ended up rather happily.
14. Colin Hock, Archives, Institute g! ,
ETH Zurich, M (24 pages, paginated 1-24),
"Orbits," "Plates," "Edited, "Original
Text, Transparenly received from Bob
15. As apparent from a letter to Adult Man Vogt of February 13, 1968 (com-
pare note 15), I had been enthusiastic about this idea. "Your wonderful ideas
were good and convincing that in fact we will have to start on it immediately."
16. Letter from Hocks to Vogt, Feb-
uary 12, 1968, Hocks Archives, Institute g!,
ETH Zurich.
17. Ibid.
18. Letter from Hocks to Stott, May 7, 1968, in part from the Hocks Archives, Institute g!, ETH Zurich. Stott is quoted in a letter of April 11, 1969, about Hocks's "sculpture" (as architecture) - a letter
about L. Corbusier's "Corbusier Center" from the point of view of the Cubist ideal.
19. Letter from Oswald to Hocks, February 21, 1969. The full letter - especial-
ly the section on "Transparency" - con-
tains notes and marks by Hocks. Next to
the sentence "Transparency is at the same
time medium and message," for example, com-
tact "Corell's idea... good, very important." After his return from Zurich on March 1, 1969, Oswald took part in the preparation of the publication of transparency.
20. This introduction from Oswald,
1969, is.
21. Hocks Archives, Institute g!,
ETH Zurich.
22. Colin Stott and Robert Shostak,
23. In the letter already cited (note
17), Hocks writes "Weiss's 
"the second article
more memory if it is that it is extreme,
and that it is still extreme.
24. In this he differed strongly from
Stott, who had been educated in art history and
invented this in the history of phill-
nel.
25. With respect to Hocks's commit-
ment, rather than from, "behavioural
ostion," Colin Hocks's letter on may 11, 1969, includes:
"... the work on "the architectural
portunity of the structure of architectural..."" at least as tech-
ical as a synthetic method and a
bombed by the Nations," in Reasons 19,
pp. 103 and 104, March 10 and May 3, 1954.
27. Ibid., p. 106.
28. "... an extraordinary
learned in the field of Modern
Architecture," by Chadwick, Bernhard, "Cubism and mid-20th cen-
tury art," Oxford: Bollingen Foundation,
1951, p. 33.
29. Ibid., p. 485.
30. Ibid., p. 485.
31. More like the line in 1962. Yack es-
lished contact with Colin who was, as my memory is correct, back at Cornell. He had some reservations about allowing J. Hartwell (the then editor of the journal) to make de-
finitions and changes to an unsigned short-
ened version of his paper. In turn, J. was
petitioned to improve the project-
ancial work he had received from Shostak.
32. Ibid., p. 106.
33. Ibid., p. 485.
34. Ibid., p. 485.
35. Ibid., p. 485.
36. Ibid., p. 485.
37. Ibid., p. 485.
38. Ibid., p. 485.
39. Ibid., p. 485.
40. Ibid., p. 485.
41. Ibid., p. 485.
42. Ibid., p. 485.
43. Ibid., p. 485.
44. Ibid., p. 485.
45. Ibid., p. 485.
46. Ibid., p. 485.
47. Ibid., p. 485.
48. Ibid., p. 485.
49. Ibid., p. 485.
50. Ibid., p. 485.
51. Ibid., p. 485.
trans-par’en-cy (-kè-nè), a.; pl. -cys (-sèz). [ML. transparenta.] 1. Quality or state of being transparent; transparence.

2. That which is transparent; esp., a picture or other matter for exhibition, made upon glass, thin cloth, paper, porcelain, or the like, intended to be viewed by the aid of light shining through it; hence, a framework covered with thin cloth or paper bearing a device or devices for public display and lighted from within.

3. [esp.] A burlesque title of honor; — a literal translation of the German title of honor Durchsichtigkeit; as, His Transparency, the Duke.

trans-par’ent (-sènt), adj. [F. and ML.; F. transparent, fr. ML. transparenta, -enizes, pres. part. of transparere to be transparent, fr. L. trans- across, through + parere to appear. See appear.] 1. Having the property of transmitting rays of light, so that bodies can be seen through; transparent to light; diaphanous; pellucid; as, transparent glass or pool; a transparent green or gray; — opposed to opaque, and usually distinguished from translucent.

2. Pervious, as to any specified form of radiant energy; as, transparent to X or heat rays.

3. Luminous; bright; shining. Poetic.

4. So loose or fine in texture or open in mesh as not to conceal what lies beyond; sheer; sausy; as, a transparent fabric or yoke.

5. Figuratively: a Readily understood; perspicuous; clear; as, a transparent literary style. b Easily seen through; perfectly evident; unclosed; detected as such without effort; as, a transparent forgery or trick; transparent flattery or hypocrisy. c Guileless; open; free from pretense; as, he is as transparent as a child.

Webster's New International Dictionary. Second Edition

Colin Rowe and Robert Slutzky

Transparency: Literal and Phenomenal*

* This text was first published in the Yale Architectural Journal perspective 8, 1964.
of each other. Transparency however implies more than an optical characteristic; it implies a broader spatial order. Transparency means a simultaneous perception of different spatial locations. Space not only recedes but fluctuates in a continuous activity. The position of the transparent figures has equivocal meaning as one sees each figure now as the closer now as the further one*.

By this definition, the transparent ceases to be that which is perfectly clear and becomes instead that which is clearly ambiguous. Nor is this meaning entirely esoteric one; when we read (as we so often do) of “transparent overlapping planes”, we constantly sense that rather more than a simple physical transparency is involved.

For instance, while Moholy-Nagy in his Vision in Motion continually refers to “transparent cellophane plastic”, “transparency and moving light”, and “Ruben’s radiant transparent shadows”*, a careful reading of the book might suggest that for him such literal transparency is often furnished with certain allegorical qualities. Some superimpositions of form, Moholy tells us, “overcome space and time fixations. They transpose insignificant singularities into meaningful complexities...transparent quality of the superimpositions often suggest transparency of context as well, revealing unnoticed structural qualities in the object”). And again, in commenting on what he calls “the manifold word agglutinations” of James Joyce, or the Joycean pun, Moholy finds that these are “the approach to the practical task of building up a completeness from interlocked units by an ingenuous transparency of relationships”*. In other words, he seems to have felt that, by a process of distortion, recomposition, and double-entendre, a linguistic transparency – the literary equivalent of Kepes’ “interpenetration without optical destruction” – might be effected, and that whoever experiences one of these Joycean “agglutinations” will enjoy the sensation of looking through a first plane of significance to others lying behind it.

Therefore, at the very beginning of any enquiry into transparency, a basic distinction must be established. Transparency may be an inherent quality of substance, as in a glass curtain wall, or it may be an inherent quality of organization. One can, for this reason, distinguish between a literal and a phenomenal transparency.

Our feeling for literal transparency seems to derive from two sources: from cubist painting and from what is usually designated as the machine aesthetic. Our feeling for phenomenal transparency probably derives from cubist painting alone; and a cubist canvas of around 1911 or 1912 would serve to illustrate the presence of both orders, or levels, of the transparent.

One may be skeptical of those too plausible explanations of cubism which involve the fusion of temporal and spatial factors. As Alfred Barr tells us, Apollinaire “invoked the fourth dimension... in a metaphorical rather than a math-
A late Cézanne such as the _Mont Sainte-Victoire of 1904-06_ (Fig. 1) in the Philadelphia Museum of Art is characterized by certain extreme simplifications. There is a highly developed insistence on a frontal viewpoint of the whole scene, a suppression of the more obvious elements suggestive of depth, and a resultingly transparent figure standing in a relatively deep space, and only subsequently does he redefine this sensation to allow for the actual lack of depth. With Braque the reading of the picture follows a reverse order. A highly developed interchanging of light sources, tipping forward of objects, restricted palette, oblique and rectilinear grids, and propensities toward peripheric development are all characteristics of analytical cubism. In these pictures, apart from the pulling to pieces and reassembly of objects, perhaps above all we are conscious of a further shrinkage of depth and an increased emphasis which is now awarded to the grid. We discover about this time a meshing together of two systems of coordinates. On the one hand, an arrangement of oblique and curved lines suggests a certain diagonal spatial recession. On the other, a series of horizontal and vertical lines implies a contradictory statement of frontality. Generally speaking, the oblique and curved lines possess a certain naturalistic significance, while the rectilinear ones show a geometrizing tendency which serves as a reassertion of the picture plane. Both systems of coordinates provide for the orientation of the figures simultaneously in an extended space and on a painted surface; while their intersection, their overlapping, their interlocking, and their building up into larger and fluctuating configurations permits the genesis of the typically ambiguous cubist motif.

As the observer distinguishes between all the resultant planes, he may become progressively conscious of an opposition between certain areas of luminous paint and others of a more dense coloration. He may distinguish between certain planes to which he is able to attribute a physical nature allied to that of celluloid, others whose essence is semiopaque, and further areas of a substance totally opposed to the transmission of light. And he may discover that all of these planes, translucent or otherwise, and regardless of their representational content, are implicated in the phenomenon which Kepes has defined as transparency.

The double nature of transparency may be illustrated by the comparison and analysis of a somewhat atypical Picasso, _The Clarinet Player_ (Fig. 2), and a representative Braque, _The Portuguese_ (Fig. 3), in each of which a pyramidal form implies an image. Picasso defines his pyramid by means of a strong contour; Braque uses a more complicated inference. Thus Picasso's contour is so assertive and so independent of its background that the observer has some sense of a positively transparent figure standing in a relatively deep space, and only subsequently does he redefine this sensation to allow for the actual lack of depth. With Braque the reading of the picture follows a reverse order. A highly developed interchanging of
horizontal and vertical gridding, created by gapped lines and intruding planes, establishes a primarily shallow space, and only gradually is the observer able to invest this space with a depth which permits the figure to assume substance. Braque offers the possibility of an independent reading of figure and grid. Picasso scarcely does so. Picasso's grid is rather subsumed within his figure or appears as a form of peripheral incident introduced to stabilize it.
In the first we may receive a pre-vision of literal transparency, and in the other, of phenomenal transparency; and the evidence of these two distinct attitudes will become much clearer if a comparison is attempted between the works of two slightly later painters, Robert Delaunay and Juan Gris.

Delaunay’s *Simultaneous Windows of 1911* and Gris’ *Still Life of 1912* (Figs. 4, 5) both include objects that are presumably transparent, the one windows, the other bottles. While Gris suppresses the physical transparency of glass in favor of a transparency of gridding, Delaunay accepts with unrestricted enthusiasm the elusively reflective qualities of his superimposed “glazed openings”. Gris weaves a system of oblique and perpendicular lines into some sort of corrugated shallow space; and in the architectonic tradition of Cézanne, in order to amplify both his objects and structure, he assumes varied but definite light sources. Delaunay’s pre-

occupation with form presupposes an entirely different attitude. Forms to him – e.g. a low block of buildings and various naturalistic objects reminiscent of the Eiffel Tower – are nothing but reflections and refractions of light which he presents in terms analogous to cubist gridding. But despite this geometrizing of image, the generally ethereal nature of both Delaunay’s forms and his space appears more characteristic of impressionism, and this resemblance is further reinforced by the manner in which he uses his medium. In contrast to the flat, planar areas of opaque and almost monochromatic color which Gris invests with such high tactile value, Delaunay emphasizes a quasi-impressionistic calligraphy; and while Gris provides explicit definition of a rear plane, Delaunay dissolves the possibilities of so distinct a closure of his space. Gris’ rear plane functions as a catalyst which localizes the ambiguities of his pictorial objects and engenders their fluctuating values.
Delaunay's distaste for so specific a procedure leaves the latent ambiguities of his form exposed, without reference, unresolved. Both operations might be recognized as attempts to elucidate the intricacy of analytical cubism; but where Gris seems to have intensified some of the characteristics of cubist space and to have imbued its plastic principles with a new bravura, Delaunay has been led to explore the poetical overtones of cubism by divorcing them from their metrical syntax.

When something of the attitude of a Delaunay becomes fused with a machine-aesthetic emphasis upon physical substance and stiffened by a certain enthusiasm for simple planar structures, then literal transparency becomes complete; and it can perhaps be most appropriately illustrated by the work of Moholy-Nagy.

In his Abstract of an Artist Moholy-Nagy tells us that around 1921 his "transparent paintings" became completely freed from all elements reminiscent of nature, and to quote him directly: "I see today that this was the logical result of the cubist paintings I had admiringly studied." 6

Now whether a freedom from all elements reminiscent of nature may be considered a logical continuation of cubism is not relevant to this present discussion; but whether Moholy did indeed succeed in emptying his work of all naturalistic content is of some importance, and his seeming belief that cubism had pointed the way toward a freeing of forms may justify the analysis of one of his subsequent works and its comparison with another postcubist painting. Moholy's La Sarraz of 1930 (Fig. 6) might reasonably be compared with a Fernand Léger of 1926: The Three Faces (Fig. 7).

In La Sarraz five circles connected by an S-shaped band, two sets of trapezoidal planes of translucent color, a number of near horizontal and vertical bars, a liberal splattering of light and dark flecks, and a number of slightly convergent dashes are all imposed upon a black background. In Three Faces three major areas displaying organic forms, abstracted artifacts, and purely geometrical shapes are tied together by horizontal banding and common contour. In contrast to Moholy, Léger aligns his pictorial objects at right angles to each other and to the edges of his picture plane; he provides these objects with a flat, opaque coloring; and he sets up a figure-ground reading through the compressed disposition of these highly contrasted surfaces. While Moholy seems to have flung open a window on to some private version of outer space, Léger, working within an almost two dimensional scheme, achieves a maximum clarity of both "negative" and "positive" forms. By means of restriction, Léger's picture becomes charged with an equivocal depth reading, with a value singularly reminiscent of that to which Moholy was so sensitive in the writings of Joyce, and which, in spite of the positive physical transparency of his paint, Moholy himself has been unable to achieve.

For in spite of its modernity of motif, Moholy's picture still shows the

proximity, and discrete superimposition, Léger leads the eye to experience an inexhaustible series of larger and smaller organizations within the whole. Léger's concern is with the structure of form, Moholy's with materials and light. Moholy has accepted the cubic figure but has lifted it out of its spatial matrix; Léger has preserved and even intensified the typically cubist tension between figure and space.

These three comparisons may clarify some of the basic differences between literal and phenomenal transparency in the painting of the last fifty years. Literal transparency, we notice, tends to be associated with the trompe l'oeil effect of a translucent object in a deep, naturalistic space; while phenomenal transparency seems to be found when a painter seeks the articulated presentation of frontally displayed objects in a shallow, abstracted space.

In considering architectural rather than pictorial transparencies, inevitable confusions arise; for while painting can only imply the third dimension, architecture cannot suppress it. Provided with the reality rather than the counterfeit of three dimensions, in architecture literal transparency can become a physical fact. However, phenomenal transparency will, for this reason, be more difficult to achieve; and it is indeed so difficult to discuss that generally critics have been willing to associate transparency in architecture exclusively with a transparency of materials. Thus György Kepes, having provided an almost classical explanation of the manifestations we have noticed in Braque, Gris, and Léger, appears to consider that the architectural analogue of these must be found in the material qualities of glass and plastics, and that the equivalent of their carefully calculated compositions will be discovered in the haphazard superimpositions produced by the reflections and accidents of light playing upon a translucent or polished surface.

And similarly, Sigfried Giedion seems to assume that the presence of an all glass wall at the Bauhaus (Fig. 8), with "its extensive transparent areas", permits "the hovering relations of planes and the kind of 'overlapping' which appears..."
in contemporary painting"; and he proceeds to reinforce this suggestion with a quotation from Alfred Barr on the characteristic "transparency of overlapping planes" in analytical cubism.

In Picasso's "Arlequin" (Fig. 9), the picture that provides the visual support for these inferences, such a transparency of overlapping planes is very obviously to be found. There, Picasso offers planes apparently of Celluloid, through which the observer has the sensation of looking; and in doing so, no doubt his sensations are somewhat similar to those of a hypothetical observer of the workshop wing at the Bauhaus. In each case a transparency of materials is discovered. But

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tension, while Gropius permits his translucent surface the appearance of hanging rather loosely from a fascia which protrudes somewhat in the fashion of a curtain box. At Garches we can enjoy the sensation that possibly the framing of the windows passes behind the wall surface; at the Bauhaus, since we are never for a moment unaware that the slat is pressing up behind the window, we are not enabled to indulge in such speculations.

At Garches the ground is conceived of as a vertical surface traversed by a horizontal range of windows (Fig. 11); at the Bauhaus it is given the appearance of a solid wall extensively punctured by glazing. At Garches it offers an explicit indication of the frame which carries the cantilevers above; at the Bauhaus it shows somewhat stubby piers which one does not automatically connect with the idea of a skeleton structure. In this workshop wing of the Bauhaus one might say that

Gropius is absorbed with the idea of establishing a plinth upon which to dispose an arrangement of horizontal planes (Fig. 12), and that his principal concern appears to be the wish that two of these planes should be seen through a veil of glass (Fig. 8). But glass would hardly seem to have held such fascination for Le Corbusier; and although one can obviously see through his windows, it is not precisely here that the transparency of his building is to be found.

At Garches the recessed surface of the ground floor is redefined on the roof by the two freestanding walls which terminate the terrace; and the same statement of depth is taken up in the side elevations by the glazed doors which act as conclusions to the fenestration. In these ways Le Corbusier proposes the idea that immediately behind his glazing there lies a narrow slot of space traveling parallel to it; and of course, in consequence of this, he implies a further idea—that bound-
ing this slot of space, and behind it, there lies a plane of which the ground floor, the freestanding walls, and the inner reveals of the doors all form a part; and although this plane may be dismissed as very obviously a conceptual convenience rather than a physical fact, its obtrusive presence is undeniable. Recognizing the physical plane of glass and concrete and this imaginary (though scarcely less real) plane that lies behind it, we become aware that here a transparency is effected not through the agency of a window but rather through our being made conscious of primary concepts which "interpenetrate without optical destruction of each other".

These two planes are not all; a third and equally distinct parallel surface is both introduced and implied. It defines the rear wall of the terrace and the penthouse, and is further reiterated by other parallel dimensions: the parapets of the garden stairs, the terrace, and the second-floor balcony (Fig. 10). Each of these planes is incomplete in itself or perhaps even fragmentary; yet it is with these parallel planes as points of reference that the façade is organized, and the implication of all is of a vertical, layerlike stratification of the interior space of the building, a succession of laterally extended spaces traveling one behind the other.

This system of spatial stratification brings Le Corbusier's façade into the closest relationship with the Léger we have already examined. In Three Faces Léger conceives of his canvas as a field modeled in low relief. Of his three major panels (which overlap, dovetail, and alternatively comprise and exclude each other), two are closely implicated in an almost equivalent depth relationship, while the third constitutes a cullfase disclosing a location which both advances and recedes. At Garches, Le Corbusier replaces Léger's concern for the picture plane with a most highly developed regard for the frontal viewpoint (the preferred views include only the slightest deviations from parallel perspective); Léger's canvas becomes Le Corbusier's second plane; other planes are either imposed upon, or subtracted from, this basic datum. Deep space is contrived in similar culflase fashion with the façade cut open and depth inserted in the ensuing slot (Fig. 11).

One might infer that at Garches, Le Corbusier had indeed succeeded in alienating architecture from its necessary three-dimensional existence, and in order to qualify this analysis, some discussion of the building's internal space is necessary.

On first examination this space appears to be an almost flat contradiction of the façade; particularly on the principal floor (Fig. 13), the volume revealed is almost directly opposite to that which we might have anticipated. Thus the glazing of the garden façade might have suggested the presence of a single large room behind and it might have inspired the belief that the direction of this room was parallel with that of the façade. But the internal divisions deny this statement and instead disclose a principal volume whose primary direction is at right angles to that which might have been presumed, while in both principal and subsidiary vol-

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So much might be said for a reading of the internal volumes in terms of the vertical planes; a further reading in terms of the horizontal planes, the floors, will reveal similar characteristics. Thus, after recognizing that a floor is not a wall and that planes are not paintings, we might examine these horizontal planes in very much the same manner as we have examined the façade, again selecting Three Faces as a point of departure. A complement of Léger’s picture plane is now offered by the roofs of the penthouse and elliptical pavilion, by the summits of the freestanding walls, and by the top of the rather curious gazebo—all of which lie on the same surface (Figs. 11, 14). The second plane now becomes the major roof terrace and the coulisse space becomes the cut in this slab which leads the eye down to the terrace below. Similar parallels are very obvious in considering the organization of the principal floor. For here the vertical equivalent of deep space is introduced by the double height of the outer terrace and by the void connecting living

room with entrance hall; and here, just as Léger enlarges spatial dimensions through the displacement of the inner edges of his outer panels, Le Corbusier encroaches upon the space of his central area.

Thus throughout this house there is that contradiction of spatial dimensions which Kepes recognizes as a characteristic of transparency. There is a continuous dialectic between fact and implication. The reality of deep space is constantly opposed to the inference of shallow space; and by means of the resultant tension, reading after reading is enforced. The five layers of space which throughout each vertical dimension divide the building’s volume and the four layers which cut it horizontally will all from time to time claim attention; and this gridding of space will then result in continuous fluctuations of interpretation.

These possibly cerebral refinements are scarcely so conspicuous at the Bauhaus; indeed, they are attributes of which an aesthetic of materials is apt to be impatient. In the workshop wing of the Bauhaus it is the literal transparency that Giedion has chiefly applauded, and at Gareches it is the phenomenal transparency that has engaged our attention. It with some reason we have been able to relate the achievement of Le Corbusier to that of Fernand Léger, with equal justification we might notice a community of interest in the expression of Gropius and Moholy-Nagy.

Moholy was always preoccupied with the expression of glass, metal, reflecting substances, and light; and Gropius, at least in the 1920s, would seem to have been equally concerned with the idea of using materials for their intrinsic qualities. Both, it may be said without injustice, received a certain stimulus from the experiments of De Stijl and the Russian constructivists; but both were apparently unwilling to accept certain more Parisian conclusions.

For seemingly it was in Paris that the cubist “discovery” of shallow space was most completely exploited, and it was there that the idea of the picture plane as a uniformly activated field was most entirely understood. With Picasso, Briois, Gries, Léger, and Ozenfant we are never conscious of the picture plane functioning in any passive role. Both it, as positive space, and the objects placed upon it, as negative space, are endowed with an equal capacity to stimulate. Outside the Ecole de Paris this condition is not typical, although Mondrian, a Parisian by adoption, constitutes one major exception and Klee another. But a glance at any representative work of Vandesly, Malevich, El Lissitzky, or Van Doesburg will reveal that these painters, like Moholy, scarcely felt the necessity of providing any distinct spatial matrix for their principal objects. They are prone to accept a simplification of the cubist image as a composition of geometrical planes, but are apt to reject the comparable cubist abstraction of space. For these reasons their pictures offer us compositions which float in an infinite, atmospheric, naturalistic void, without any of the rich Parisian stratification of volume. And the Bauhaus may be accepted as their architectural equivalent.

Thus in the Bauhaus complex, although we are presented with a composition of slablike buildings whose forms suggest the possibility of a reading of space
by layers, we are scarcely conscious of the presence of spatial stratification. Through the movements of the dormitory building, the administrative offices, and the workshop wing, the first floor may suggest a channeling of space in one direction (Fig. 15). Through the countermovement of roadway, classrooms, and auditorium wing, the ground floor suggests a movement of space in the other (Fig. 16).

A preference for neither direction is stated (Fig. 17), and the ensuing dilemma is resolved, as indeed it must be in this case, by giving priority to diagonal points of view.

Much as Van Doesburg and Moholy eschewed frontality, so did Gropius; and it is significant that, while the published photographs of Le Corbusier's (Fig. 19) tend to minimize factors of diagonal recession, almost invariably the published photographs of the Bauhaus (Fig. 18) tend to play up just such factors. The importance of these diagonal views of the Bauhaus is constantly reasserted by the translucent corner of the workshop wing and by such features as the balconies of the dormitory and the protruding slab over the entrance to the workshops, features which require for their understanding a renunciation of the principle of frontality.

The Bauhaus reveals a succession of spaces but scarcely "a contradiction of spatial dimensions". Relying on the diagonal viewpoint, Gropius has exteriorized the opposed movements of his space, has allowed them to flow away into infinity; and by being unwilling to attribute to either of them any significant difference of quality, he has prohibited the possibilities of a potential ambiguity. Thus only the contours of his blocks assume a layerlike character (Fig. 18); but these layers of building scarcely act to suggest a layerlike structure of either internal or external space. Denied the possibility of penetrating a stratified space which is defined either by real planes or their imaginary projections, the observer is also denied the possibility of experiencing the conflict between a space which is explicit and another which is implied. He may enjoy the sensation of looking through a glass wall and thus perhaps be able to see the exterior and the interior of the building simultaneously; but in doing so he will be conscious of few of those equivocal sensations which derive from phenomenal transparency.
nom: the narrow block. But here again similarities cease, for while the Bauhaus blocks pinwheel in a manner highly suggestive of constructivist compositions (Fig. 17), in the League of Nations these same long blocks define a system of striations almost more rigid than that at Garches (Fig. 20).

In the League of Nations project lateral extension characterizes the two principal wings of the Secretariat, qualifies the library and book-stack area, is emphasized by the entrance quay and the foyers of the General Assembly Building, and dominates even the auditorium itself. There, the introduction of glazing along the side walls, disturbing the normal flow of the hall upon the presidential box, introduces the same transverse direction. The contrary statement of deep space also becomes a highly assertive proposition. It is chiefly suggested by a lozenge shape whose main axis passes through the General Assembly Building and whose outline is comprised by a projection of the auditorium volume into the approach roads of the cour d'honneur (Fig. 21). But again, as at Garches, the intimations of depth inherent in this form are consistently retracted. A cut, a dis-placement, and a sliding sideways occur along the line of its major axis; and as a space, it is repeatedly scored through and broken down into a series of lateral references - by trees, by circulations, by the momentum of the buildings themselves.
so that finally, through a series of positive and negative implications, the whole scheme becomes a sort of monumental debate, an argument between a real and ideal space.

We will presume the Palace of the League of Nations as having been built and an observer following the axial approach to its auditorium (Fig. 22). Necessarily, he is subjected to the polar attraction of its principal entrance. But the block of trees which intersects his vision introduces a lateral deflection of interest, so that he becomes successively aware, first, of a relation between the flanking office-building and the foreground parterre, and second, of a relation between the crosswalk and the courtyard of the Secretariat. And once within the trees, beneath the low umbrellas they provide, a further tension is established: the space, which is

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inflected toward the auditorium, is defined by, and reads as, a projection of the book stack and library. While finally, with the trees as a volume behind him, the observer at last finds himself standing on a low terrace, confronting the entrance quay but separated from it by a rift of space so complete that it is only by the propulsive power of the walk behind him that he can be enabled to cross it (Fig. 23). With his arc of vision no longer restricted, he is now offered the General Assembly Building in its full extent, but since a newly revealed lack of focus compels his eye to slide along this facade, it is again irretrievably drawn sideways, to

the view of the gardens and the lake beyond. And should the observer turn round from this rift between him and his obvious goal, and should he look at the trees which he has just left, the lateral sliding of the space will only become more determined, emphasized by the trees themselves and the cross alley leading into the slotted indenture alongside the book stack. If the observer is a man of moderate
sophistication, and if the piercing of a screen or a volume of trees by a road might have come to suggest to him that the intrinsic function of this road is to penetrate similar volumes and screens, then by inference the terrace on which he is standing becomes not a prelude to the auditorium, as its axial relationship suggests, but a projection of the volumes and planes of the office building with which it is aligned.

These stratifications, devices by means of which space becomes constructed, substantial, and articulate, are the essence of that phenomenal transparency which has been noticed as characteristic of the central postcubist tradition. They have never been noticed as characteristic of the Bauhaus, which obviously manifests a completely different conception of space. In the League of Nations project Le Corbusier provides the observer with a series of quite specific locations; in the Bauhaus he is without such points of reference. Although the League of Nations project is extensively glazed, such glazing, except in the auditorium, is scarcely of capital importance. At the Palace of the League of Nations, corners and angles are ascetic and definite. At the Bauhaus, Giedion tells us, they are “dematerialised”. At the Palace of the League of Nations space is crystalline; but at the Bauhaus it is glazing which gives the building a “crystalline translucence”. At the Palace of the League of Nations glass provides a surface as definite and taut as the top of a drum; but at the Bauhaus, glass walls “flow into one another”, “blend into each other”, “wrap around the building”, and in other ways (by acting as the absence of plane) “contribute to that process of loosening up a building which now dominates the architectural scene”.

But we look in vain for “loosening up” in the Palace of the League of Nations. It shows no evidence of any desire to obliterate sharp distinction. Le Corbusier’s planes are like knives for the apportionate slicing of space (Fig. 25). If we could attribute to space the qualities of water, then his building is like a dam by means of which space is contained, embanked, tunnelled, sluiced, and finally spilt into the informal gardens alongside the lake. By contrast, the Bauhaus, insulated in a sea of amorphic outline, is like a reef gently washed by a placid tide.

The foregoing discussion has sought to clarify the spatial milieu in which phenomenal transparency becomes possible. It is not intended to suggest that phenomenal transparency (for all its cubist descent) is a necessary constituent of modern architecture, nor that its presence might be used like a piece of litmus paper for the test of architectural orthodoxy. It is intended simply to give a characterization of species and also to warn against the confusion of species.

Bernhard Hoesli
Commentary

In 1948 Henry-Russell Hitchcock's book *Painting Toward Architecture* was published in New York by Duell, Sloan & Pearce. Until the subsequent appearance in 1964 of "Transparency", by Colin Rowe and Robert Slutzky, there was no further work in English concerned exclusively with aspects of the connection between modern painting and architecture.

Hitchcock, writing in 1948, considered it essential to explain, by way of introduction, the uniqueness and significance of abstract painting and to contrast his theme historically with the 19th Century; he was then able to characterize the main currents of development in painting and architecture in a predominantly descriptive manner. Thus Frank Lloyd Wright, Le Corbusier, Gropius, Oud and Dudok, Mies van der Rohe and ultimately Niemeyer, Japanese woodcuts, Cubism, Léger, Mondrian, Arp, Klee and Miro are all similarly mentioned, while the 20's in Paris, De Stijl and the Bauhaus receive special attention. In every argument, ideas and observations rely heavily upon the completeness of the references and
chronological ordering for their significance; if we therefore disregard digressions into possibilities of the “integration” of modern works of art and the “new architecture”, it would appear that Hitchcock is interested first and foremost in differentiating between the various climatic zones and symbiotic relationships within the Modern Movement.

As a conclusion to this survey, two theses emerge which prove themselves sooner, however, in the consequences of the above than the subsequently revealed premises; theses which form the basis of the entire study, and which should provoke and stimulate the goal-oriented “toward” in the title far more than they substantiate or prove it. The intention, no doubt, is not to be polemic but rather mildly pedagogic. The first of these theses is embodied in the declaration, not exactly new at that time, that “the central meaning and basic value of abstract art, whether painting or sculpture, is that it makes available the results of a kind of plastic research that can hardly be undertaken at full architectural scale.” The studio or workshop of the fine artist is to be conceived of as a laboratory, so to speak, where experimentation and research take place. The second thesis states that the forms of the “New Architecture” whose decisive impulse for being arose from new technical methods and a new consciousness of social responsibility, could only have crystallized owing to the catalytic effects of Modern Art: “But these forms remained generally invisible (except in the work of Wright), unrealized and merely implicit, until catalytic contact with the experiments of the advanced artists of a quarter century ago brought them to crystallization.” And it follows from this that the study of abstract art not only has the capacity to help us understand how the forms of contemporary architecture are brought into being but also has the power to further influence their development.

It should be obvious why this work, hardly known any longer today, has been gone into here in some detail: it concentrates concepts and ideas which grew and spread in the two generations following 1918 and reminds us of the climate that continued to exert a strong influence for many years after 1945. The thoughts that form the basis of this work and the knowledge which has been condensed into the foregoing theses are not mentioned here in order that we may test their suppositions and import. Rather, they have been brought up because, within the narrow framework of this theme, they document – as intact and unshakeable qualities of a concept of the Modern and its development – the pragmatic goal-orientation of thought and empiricism of method in which the complex and intrinsically contradictory legacy of the 1920’s developed in the period after 1945.

Seven years after the appearance of Hitchcock’s overview, “Transparency” was written. There is an unmistakable shift in mood from the first sentence: where the earlier work expanded and suggested, this one contracts and defines; where Hitchcock is content with enumeration and description, Rowe and Slavisky strive for differentiated clarification of concepts and for conclusions that require nothing less than precise observation and the ability to draw the necessary distinctions. There is nothing in the later work of the almost imploring urgency with which the new forms of expression in painting and architecture were brought to the reader in 1948 – a matter-of-fact acquaintance with these forms was much more tacitly assumed by 1955. And above all, Hitchcock sees all the forms he is itemizing as elements of a present and continuing development of the new and unique that will lead to an ideal result in the end. He sees his own task in this process as that of bringing all these new expressions of form, certainly still confusing and difficult to survey but all thoroughly welcome and equivalent in effect, into relationship with one another, to explain them and to substantiate them through study and reflection. In contrast to this, an exploration into transparency ensues upon material no longer embedded in controversy, requiring no justification, and dating from a period of development perceived as belonging to the past.

Its grasp reaches into the present through the distance of history, and if it is not bereft of passion, the intensity of its engagement arises nevertheless from a valuation of the already existing and not from a welcoming of the new. Certainly differences in age and temperament may well be exerting their influence here – crucial, however, is the understanding that a significant climatic change has taken place: The “Modern Movement” is now history. With this detached and impassioned distinction between a phenomenal (figurative) and a literal transparency, the authors also differentiate between two kinds of “modern” architecture. With this they demonstrate that the “modern” is not homogenous, that its manifestations are not the same in kind or in worth. And this discernment in turn implies that distinctions must be made between totally differing requirements and intentions, that empirical thought and pragmatism suffice neither for the study nor for the production of architectural achievements. Sullivan’s “every problem contains and suggests its own solution” and “the vital idea was this: that the function created or organized its own form” (The Autobiography of an Idea) proves to have been as grave a seduction into confusion as it was an inspiration. The requirements of the commission and the location are no more than modified factors upon which the application of a theory can work. The process of defining and clarifying the concept of transparency reminds us that architecture exists only in relation to a theory of architecture.

Exactly defined, this twin concept of actual and apparent transparency appears above all to be a precise tool for the study of architecture. It distinguishes between Essence and Appearance in the concept of transparency, and refers to the relationship between Content and Form in architecture – and to the still enormous question of whether a building is, or whether it means.
Applying the concept of transparency in the figurative sense to buildings from Le Corbusier's first creative decade reveals essential insights into the principles of his spatial organization and makes it possible to expose and comprehend a characteristic uniqueness of the Le Corbusier spatial effect. The dialectic between full corporeality and the illusion of shallow space, the multiple interpretational possibilities of his formal relationships, the classification of form and function in his buildings—these have never been made clearer. And indeed made clear from the object itself, without benefit of "extra-architectural" association. The concept of transparency, as defined by Rowe and Slutzky, becomes a tool for study; it makes understanding and evaluation possible. But it also becomes immediately and simultaneously an employable operative means enabling the intellectual ordering of form during the design process, as well as its graphic representation.

Le Corbusier's purist image is correspondingly built up in layers in the Cubist tradition. The attempt to break up the formal organization clearly and unambiguously into actual planes demonstrates that it is impossible to fix all the forms clearly in space. It is typical of transparency in the figurative sense that the situation of individual forms in space is ambiguous.

In general: Transparency arises wherever there are locations in space which can be assigned to two or more systems of reference—where the classification is undefined and the choice between one classification possibility or another remains open.

...the façade [is] cut open and depth inserted in the ensuing slot" (p. 38).

"The reality of deep space is constantly opposed to the inference of shallow space" (p. 41). This is perceptible at every point in space: the observer can see himself in relation to one or the other order, "and by means of the resultant tension, reading after reading is enforced."
In the ideal plan for Saint-Dié, the arrangement of layers is parallel to the Meurthe Valley; from the cross view it can be seen that the silhouette of the Vogesen landscape has been incorporated into the architectural order, transformed into the "rear plane", and that "frontally displayed objects" have been clearly presented "in a shallow, abstracted space" (cf. pp. 30 and 32).

In the idealized space of the layers, the long sides of the Unité assert the depth of real space.

Characteristic is employment of the axis, the strongest means by which to architectonically capture spatial depth: a deep cut penetrates the arrangement of layers from both north and south. Into the resulting depth the Centre administratif (1) and the cathedral have been inserted; compare also p. 38:

"Deep space is contrived in similar coulisse fashion with the façade cut open and depth inserted in the ensuing slot."

Hadrian's Villa is a structure of two orthogonal systems twisted away from yet against one another. Where these systems push together, seams are created between the structural groupings that could fall within two or more systems of reference. Here, however, the systems are bluntly shoved against each other (compare with the detail of the library), the seams are merely fitted together, the systems do not overlap. Only in the area of the Canopus is transparency in the figurative sense inferred.
Transparency makes possible an analogous classification of function and architectural form.

The network of streets and the system of palace grounds, parks and topographically determined irregularities penetrate and overlap.

In such visual presentations lies an approach to a study of the concept of "collage" in city planning. Colin Rowe's and Fred Koetter's study "Collage City" was first published at MIT Press, Cambridge, Mass. 1978.

The entire layout is related to two orthogonal grids turned at a 45° angle to one another. In contrast to Hadrian's Villa, there are in this case numerous points where both reference systems intersect, overlap and intricately interweave.

This gives rise to transparent organizations of form which indicate above all spatial transitions and announce the existence of possible directions for movement in space or make them clearly visible and available to choose.

At the characteristic point where the outer and inner paths to the core of the complex diverge, the observer can see himself clearly in relation to both systems of order.

The choice for one or the other path also means entry into one or the other system of geometric arrangement. Geometry as image.
The side altar niches are set off from as well as incorporated into the standardized interior, which forms the fertile ground from which transparency in the figurative sense arises: the observer is virtually suspended between the forward momentum of the nave and the opposing effect caused by the perpendicular layers of space that penetrate its length one after another.

Transparencies typically appear in Palladio's floor plan along the main axis of the composition: in this way the porch is made part both of the distinct arrangement of levels in the center structure of the Villa as well as of the segment of the axis that passes vertically through the whole complex and shapes the exterior space. For each and every interior space on this main axis, two spatial groupings are possible.

Inside this complex arrangement, which incomparably fuses constructive regularity with the diversity necessitated by functional use, transparency creates the multiple readings of possible spatial relationships and connections.
In the additive structure of the chain of Citrohan cross-sections, alignments of the lateral wall perforations create spatial relations perpendicular to the primary direction of the room segment.

Transparency permits flexibility within a formal arrangement.

The connection between the central cavity and transept arms can be read as intersection, protrusion, attachment.
The cruciform floor plan model that intensively preoccupied Frank Lloyd Wright for more than a decade after 1893 is an ambiguous form pur excellence.

In the volumetric structure, however, the cruciform does not lead to a transparency of space but rather to clear and defined intersections of prismatic structures in which at most incidental areas of space develop which can be simultaneously classified as various volumes.

The pillar as a solution to the limitations of space creates a fusion of interior and exterior space almost without transition, and allows for numerous intersecting zones that can be perceived horizontally in every possible connection. Perceived vertically, however, this ambiguity is volumetrically resolved and clarified.

Falling Water 1936**

Already in 1917 the space of the "Maison Turque" in La Chaux-de-Fonds - recalling motifs of Auguste Perret and Frank Lloyd Wright - was unmistakably built up in layers over the cruciform floor plan.


** "Falling Water" and Jean Bailing's image are layers of slabs in space. The opposition of stratification and space, however, does not disintegrate into a higher order of mutually organized form (in which only then the image would be able to..."
In a structure characteristic of Le Corbusier, horizontal layers are continuously pierced by deep, vertical cuts. Le Corbusier's pronounced and persisting preference for two-story atelier-type living spaces with inset balcony floors — typical of the earlier villa designs as well as for the living quarters of the Unity Temple — acquires new meaning when seen through the concept of transparency.

The two-story space with interior balcony is obviously charged with a kind of folkloric emotion*. However, it also embodies Le Corbusier's always provocative opposition of effects (here, the horizontal and the vertical), simultaneously postulated and overcome (here, actively sharing a common air space): transparency.

The connection between the space of two separate levels through a common expanse of air has the effect not only of optically increasing the size of small rooms but also of generating ambiguous spatial relations.
Symmetry as a means of organization is exclusive, subordinate and absolute; transparency as a means of organization places series of visual grouping possibilities in relation to one another and throws them open.

Michelangelo: Stages in the design of the façade of S. Lorenzo, Florence

The series of sketches from 1 to 4 for the design of the façade beautifully demonstrates how the distinct yet conflicting contrast between the spreading lower segment of the façade and the superimposed, elevated center portion (1) is gradually resolved.

In the last design, a situation has been reached whereby first the tectonically stratified organization of the vertical, then the horizontally laid rows of vertical elements lay equal claim to the observer's attention with a continuous interaction, all taking place within the generally unified effect exerted by the façade.

Each element in the façade organisation is ambiguous, and can be seen in always new connections of form and meaning.

Rowe and Slutzky referred to the example of S. Lorenzo already in 1955. Part of the first sequel to the 1955 study is a detailed analysis of the transparent forms in this wonderful façade; hopefully the two sequels to the present work which are mentioned in the Forward will one day be issued. 1971, in “Perspecta 13/14”, 1973. In “Perspecta 13/14”, 1971, a sequel appeared to the study of 1955, “Transparency: Literal and Phenomenal.” Analysis of the S. Lorenzo façade pp. 293-296.
The development of the façade of the High Court building is a demonstration of transparency as a means to formal organization in the frontal elevation.

To begin with, the overall form—a sprawling shaft-like structure—is defined as a vertical layer of space by a clear differentiation between the open length of the front and the closed walls spanning the sides. The framework constructed by the edge of the ceiling and the narrow rim of the end walls stretches the space into a field similar to a picture plane, thereby carving out a border.

Next, the planes implied by this framework are immediately pierced and the sculpture of the ramp system is inserted into the newly formed opening.

In the weekend house “aux Mathes” of 1935, the primary spatial tension is brought about by use of the same means and in the same way.
The first stage of development is an inventory of all structural elements; the areas of the main floor have been made externally clearly readable and function as simple itemization, addition or series – the actual constructional state of the multiple stories is clearly visible as layering (3). All relationships are clear; the horizontal series and the vertical layers remain unconnected.

In the “projet d’exécution”, the organization of the façade is radically altered: it is no longer concerned with the direct “word-to-word” expression of the spatial and constructive groundwork completed for the construction. These are now represented by horizontal and vertical formal elements woven into a complex system of form in which series and layers overlap and intersect, and it is this complex interweaving which fosters the development of transparency.

The row of supports at the uppermost level appear from the front to be part of a bulging and massively perforated concrete skin (an inversion of the horizontally curved wall of Ronchamp?), implied by the slender frontal planes of the brise-
The two layers of the facade are laid optically one inside the other, creating a sense of space containment.

The two uppermost rows of the brise-soleil imply one row of vertical formats optically intersecting or overlapping the horizontal continuity of the balcony.

Manufacture à Saint-Dié

The horizontal is related to the vertical support system through the suggestion of resistance.

The planes of the brise-soleil, pan de verre and alignment of supports that stand one behind the other are clearly separated in the Manufacture Saint-Dié; in the High Court building at Chandigarh, they appear to interpenetrate, then once again to diverge.

In this way, a "dialectic between fact and implication" (cf. p. 41) is once more produced, typical of transparencies in which the interplay of layers creates a dialectical relationship.
Towards architectural education:

An example from the architectural curriculum: To establish transparency in a system of overlapping rectangular surfaces using a number of parallels; next, to interpret the drawing as a floor plan projection and translate it into a system of interpenetrating prismatic volumes.

Credo of the "Modern": Form as result. In comparison: Form as means, as catalyst of design.

So the concept of transparency has consequences in two directions. It gives us first of all the possibility to see familiar historical structures through new eyes, and it frees us, because we allow it, to see buildings and structures in connections independent of the differences between "historical" and "modern"; secondly, it is a tool for the production of complex systems of order during the design process. The fact that this is not only possible for us but even self-evident reveals a special relationship to the development of architecture after 1918: it must be seen as history. Our familiar image of the Modern appears to be just as much a history of an orthodoxy, of canonical succession, with faithful believers, unconverted heathens and heretics, which means that "modern architecture" has been put into perspective. Before 1950, this was still unimaginable.

It already seems to be difficult to imagine oneself back in that time. At the CIAM Congress of 1953 in Aix-en-Provence, the first voices were heard in a still clumsy attempt to suggest a new relationship to the architecture of the 20's and 30's. The model of the "Villa Radius" had lost its fervent fascination and compulsion. In 1954 in London a new generation formulated, in the manifesto of the "New Brutalism", the consciousness of a new architectural climate. The "New Brutalism" demonstrated for the first time a manner of behavior for the enlightened architects. It was thoroughly familiar with the executed buildings, the theoretical writings, manifestos and unbuilt projects as well from 1918 to 1933; at the same time, separated as it was by a generation from the spread of the "New Architecture", it must have seen it as history. In Milan, too, an attempt was made to find the guidelines for the changed situation, while in Switzerland a recovery from a well-tempered passion for the Scandinavian was begun. Simultaneously, the genius Louis Kahn emerged from a period of studying the tradition of city planning in Philadelphia, and in a few years created - out of the unassailable tradition of the Ecole des Beaux Arts and the legacy of Frank Lloyd Wright, Mies van der Rohe and Le Corbusier - the foundation upon which an alternative to "Modern Architecture" quickly developed. The development since that time has also taught us to recognize the subliminal or repressed currents in architecture since 1918 and to see them anew.

Between 1950 and 1965 a threshold was crossed. Since then it seems hardly possible to hold fast to an idea of continuous linear tradition in the architecture of the 20th Century. The examination of the concept of transparency in architecture belongs - like the elucidation with which Philip Johnson, in "The Architectural Review", displays his house in New Canaan as a commentary for precedential cases, or the way Vincent Scully's article in "Art News", March 1954, proves the connection between Frank Lloyd Wright and the International Style - to the numerous symptoms announcing the end of "Modern Architecture". And it engenders the thought that perhaps the idea of the Modern in architecture is altogether failing and beginning to lose its force.

Zurich, March 1968     B.H.
Addendum
(1982)

Bernhard Hoesli
Transparent Form-organization as an Instrument of Design

In my commentary of 1968 I was first of all concerned with generalizing the concept of phenomenal transparency which Rowe and Slutsky had established by evolving it from intense contemplation and a tightly reasoned morphological analysis of two Le Corbusier buildings: the villa Les Terrasses at Garches and the League of Nations competition project.

Above all it was my intention to show that the generalization: “transparency exists where a locus in space can be referred to two or several systems of relations – where the assignment remains undetermined and the belonging to one or the other remains a matter of choice” is a universally applicable criterion for characterizing form-organization just as for instance symmetry or asymmetry. To ask if there is transparency in a form-organization is like applying a piece of litmus paper and permits the distinction and exact description of a quality which might go unnoticed or, if not, can only be circumscribed in an elaborate and cumbersome way.
To apply the test of transparency is part of a morphological approach that holds the exact description of a phenomenon as the necessary and indispensable prerequisite for any insight, understanding or knowledge. It belongs to the great tradition of systematizing effort that, say, in the case of botany, culminated in the sovereign work of Linné.

The attempt to describe buildings or urban patterns independently from their historical context, to see them side by side across periods of stylistic differences and to insist on a common quality in works from widely differing epochs, produced by distinct social, technical and political conditions may disturb or shock and dismay the historian. But of course it is not proposed to remove a particular building from its historical and cultural context; to look for transparency is merely a possibility to disengage part of its characteristic form.

The concept of transparency invites to see differences that can provide the key to understand qualities of uniqueness or similarity. And, especially at a time when architects seem intent to consider history as a self-service store stocked with an inexhaustible supply of motifs and forms, it should be useful and might be sobering to welcome precise tools that help to reduce motif, form and effect to their "essential significant facts and forces", so that we can, starting from these, create the motifs and authentic forms out of the constituent factors of our own time conceptually, leaving out of count flattery or abuse on a perceptual level.1

With the numerous examples where phenomenal transparency once singled out can be observed, I then, in 1968, endeavoured to convey the idea that transparency defined as a state of relationships between the elements of a form-organization, can also be considered and used as a means of organizing form. That aspect should have been stressed, the idea made explicit.

Soon after the publication of my commentary schools of architecture entered the rapid "la contestation". Architecture is a form of sociology, we were told and, if concerned with buildings at all, a kind of social engineering at best. There could not possibly be an interest in architectural form, which was declared of no importance at all or "unmasked" as a device of oppression to the advantage of the interest of a ruling class and to the detriment of the common good. Interest in problems of architectural form was held in contempt; Space was denounced as architect's fiction.

Nobody can complain about a lack of interest in form today. It has come back with a vengeance. To the impairment and impoverishment of all the rest "Functionalism" is criticized because it is imputed that it considered form as result; now form is considered an agent of typology or a precedent at one's disposal.

Architectural form must claim "autonomy" - we are now told - that however it doesn't really seem to enjoy.

The idea of form as neither an end in itself nor as a result of design but as an instrument of design seems still quite difficult to grasp.

The predicament of form

One evidently creates forms in order to "designate and inform. Something that is, is designated for someone whom one wishes to inform about something that is. And he who tells wants to be understood. So there are two possibilities to corrupt architectural form: The corruption of its relation to the reality of the use and the reality to the building, to what it is - or the corruption of its nature as information.

Obviously there are several possibilities to explain the origin of form in architecture, to define the relation of form and use or to specify the connection between form and "function". They all purport to relate the inward functioning and purpose of a building to its external expression.

Now if architectural form is "autonomous", if it should be divorced from the intent and content of a building, emancipated from a palpable relation to its use - there is a loss of truth, hence morality.

Two opposing views of the relation of content and form claim our attention today, and both claim orthodoxy - one in the defensive and engaged in rear guard actions, the other in full vigour and expanding in various disguises.

There is first the supposedly "functionalist" position contending that "instead of forcing the functions of every sort of building into a general form, adopting an outward shape for the sake of the eye or of association, without reference to the inner distribution, let us begin from the heart as the nucleus, and work outward. The most convenient size and arrangement of the rooms that are to constitute the building being fixed, the access of the light that may, of the air that must be wasted, being provided for, we have the skeleton of our building." Or, as Louis Sullivan put it in the Autobiography of an Idea: "...the function of a building must predetermine and organize its form." That was based on observation of biological growth and form in nature and certainly must have been meant

as analogy. It prefurred Le Corbusier's poetic metaphor "Un édifice est comme une bulle de savon. Cette bulle est parfaite et harmonieuse si le souffle est bien réparti, bien réglé de l'intérieur. L'extérieur est le résultat de l'intérieur." That understanding of the relation of purpose and form in architecture established the connection of cause and effect. The form-reality of a building is seen as a function of its envisaged use in the sense of the mathematical term function: y = f(x), a variable depending on constants and variables, the old "form follows function".

The second, so called "rational", understanding maintains in exact opposition to the first that "function follows form". And there is a coherent argument based on observation to demonstrate the validity and usefulness of this view. Most buildings in a historical context demonstrate the basic continuity of form to which ever changing use was adapted; the Diocletian Palace of Spalato, the stadio of Domitian of Imperial Rome, the list of glorious fragments of fabric and of artifacts that bear witness is almost endless.

When the first explanation proclaims in the most radical formulation of Mies van der Rohe "we refuse to recognize problems of form, but only problems of building. Form is not the aim of our work, but only the result. Form, by itself, does not exist..." the second declares that in architecture there are only problems of form and design means to transform, to adapt form through deformation and by quoting typological form-precedent, while the usefulness of a building will take care of itself as a matter of course.

Of course this seemingly revolutionary stance in the "postmodern" late sixties was shrewdly anticipated in the early fifties in the relaxed, more sophisticated, less polemical and possibly slightly puzzled observation of Matthew Nowicki that "form follows form".

Both positions in opposition mentioned in this argument have however this in common: they both are either - or - and are concerned with establishing what has ascendancy, takes precedence or must claim priority - purpose or form.

Frank Lloyd Wright's contribution to the collection: "form and function are one" indicates a possible position outside the polemics. If rendered operative this formula can lead to the lurch that suggests the idea that form is an instrument of design. Form in architecture could be understood as instrument - neither as typologically preexisting original position to which all else has to become subordinate, nor as following from premises as result.

Use and form of a building or urban context must be understood as but two different aspects of the same thing, and to design means that they have to become fused through stubborn, patient work in a process of mutual adjustment, adaptation and reconciliation in which each is judiciously interpreted in terms of the other.

This obviously presupposes a particular attitude of mind. One has to be willing to renounce a fixed point of view, one has to be prepared to see contrasting or even contradictory notions as not necessarily excluding each other and accept that "certainty" can only reside in a temporary stage in a sustained debate in which each partner supplements and completes the other's position in a dialogue of give and take, of this-as-well-as-that.

Excursus on the concept of architectural space

Everything that is implied by the term "use", that is all activities for which a building is intended, is a manifestation in space as is everything that is implied by "form" of a building. Space can be said to be the common matrix of use and form. So it seems necessary at this point to introduce a concept of space to provide a possible reference for the further train of thought.

Concepts of space are inventions. They have their usefulness, life span and history. We can start with the axiomatic assempntation that "space" is first of all an elementary existential experience of conscious man. "Taking possession of space is the first gesture of living things... The occupation of space is the first proof of existence." We can acknowledge that this is the space of Plato: "the mother and receptacle of all created and visible... things..., the universal nature which receives all bodies... and never in any way or any time assumes a form..." It hardly neither helps nor matters to call this "natural" space. Descartes made this 'universal' space accessible in terms of arithmetic and geometry; in the second half of the 17th century, Newton succeeded in formulating the universal laws that govern in terms of physics the possible mechanics in this space. We can term this mathematical-physical space. It is homogeneous, isotropic and infinite. It seems that psychology too accepts this kind of space as the basic condition of perception. No need to point out that it possesses no animism, is not animate, that it can be neither "exploded" nor "compressed" and certainly does not "flow". It's just there. Nothing mysterious about it. It is.

8 ibid.
To create architectural space man has to interfere in mathematical-physical space in order to claim, stake out or mark a particular part of it. Thus architectural space is made noticeable, it can be experienced, it is defined. One can distinguish two different kinds of space-definition.

First: space-defining elements (e.g. walls, screens, piers, columns) set bonds to, delimit, enclose, encircle, fence in, contain, a particular piece of mathematical-physical space that can be felt henceforth. A space-boundary or space-delimitation must be created and the sensation of space-definition is determined by the measure of enclosures a space-boundary provides. One can then distinguish interior, exterior, “inside” and “outside” space and space between objects (Fig. 1).

Second: a space-defining element activates by its volumetric presence a locus in mathematical-physical space, it occupies space and thus by “dislodging space” makes that we experience space. Its corporeality suggests that we experience our bodily existence and thus experience space.

Part of the substratum of mathematical-physical space is transformed by being architecturally defined: it has become architectural space with distinguishing qualities and attributes.

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Addendum

It follows that space in terms of architecture is conceptually a continuous medium comprising the perceptually distinguished solid of mass and void of space (Fig. 2).

![Diagram of space-definition elements](Image)

From a Drexburg diagram.

As soon as we see and understand solid and void as equally participating in or equally constituent of a figure-ground continuity it is no longer necessary to insist on their perceptually antithetical nature. We know that buildings, volumes,
contain space; in architecture "solids" are only colloquially solid mass. Space inside and between architectural objects is part of the same medium, the same whole (Fig. 3a, b, c). One might suggest by hint of analogy that "volume" or solid and "space" or void are but phenotypical aspects of genotypically continuous space.

This dualistic concept of a figure-ground continuity of solid and void as complementary aspects of space is, as all evidence reveals, the concept of continuous space of Modern Architecture. Frank Lloyd Wright arrived at it empirically from about 1893 to 1906, de Stijl presupposes it for its spatial inventions, Mies van der Rohe no less than Le Corbusier conceives and works in it: continuous space is the common denominator in relation to which much of the obvious differences of their work can be assessed. It is the reference that permits distinction of species (Fig. 4).

9 Arthur Drexler says of the Barcelona Pavilion: "Interior space becomes a fluid medium channelled between planes. Interior and exterior space, no longer rigidly opposed, are now simply degrees or modulations of the same thing." Arthur Drexler: Mies van der Rohe, Ravenburg, 1960, p. 15.

And Le Corbusier notes of the Pompeian House in a remarkable sentence: "Il n'y a pas d'autres éléments architecturaux de l'intérieur; la lumière et les murs qui la refléchissent en grande

3b

3c

a. The degree of enclosure is a measure of how strongly architectural space can be felt.
b. The degree of enclosure decides on the range of the perceptual field or reference; it determines "inside" and "outside", whether figure or ground.
In view of this concept of continuous space the Nolli technique of showing the space of a square extending into the nave of a church or into the colonnade of a palazzo, though no less remarkable, seems only "natural" and obvious (Fig. 5).
Unnecessary the invention of such innocently endearing and cleverly amusing notions such as "space and anti-space" or "positive space" (for mass) and "negative space" (for void) — one a quite flirtatious and unnecessary reverence for nuclear physics, the other an only colloquially useful and not very helpful transfer of the device of positive and negative signs from arithmetic to the subject of space. There is of course no questioning the matter that is brought into focus by such attempts to distinguish nor doubting the necessity of distinction, but to term it thus seems weak, because in doing so one uses quite inadvertently a perceptual every day colloquial distinction of mass and space to presumably attain conceptual vigour. I think it worth-while to work with a general concept that admits of no exceptions but then provides for special conditions and explains them as special cases as such — rather than providing every single phenomenon with a new term that suggest a new notion. And, anyway, it may be useful to remember Bernard Berenson's impatient and slightly sarcastic passage in *Aesthetics and History*: "...So the art writing of the German-minded has been more and more dedicated to discussing space determination, space filling, space distortion, space this, space that,..."10

It may be that attention to space is the expression of an open society where plurality is accepted and recognized, where contradiction is not only tolerated but held in esteem as inherent in the condition humane and where dialogue is an indispensable technique for mutual advancement. And then, perhaps concentration on isolated objects is indulged in by a society seeking to escape complexity with the help of simplification of issues and in trying to find refuge in willingly accepted authority or in the surrender to "history". If these conjectures should not be refuted, if these assumptions are true — and, given the interest of the Neo-Rationalists in volume, their neglect of space and their unabashed concern for the solitary object even in the context of an urban situation — we may cherish the hope that a persistent avoidance of all memory of "The Moment Of Cubism"11 and a continued evasion of the barely explored and yet inexhausted possibilities of Modern space will prevail for some time to come; or we can worry and regret that the "New World of Space"12 has perhaps vanished for good.

The concept of a figure-ground relation of solid and void in *Continuous Space* permits conceptually effortless oscillation between the two opposing aspects of space, solid and void, which are not seen as mutually exclusive but mutually presupposing each other and being of equal value and enjoying "equal rights" as aspects or parts of the same whole. So buildings and spaces between buildings are seen as partners in a sustained debate protagonists in a dialogue "who progress-


sively contradict and clarify each other's meaning".14 To move at ease in the space that this dualistic concept of space describes most certainly helps the designer who has to deal with plurality, complexity, contradiction — with the manyfold demands of everyday reality.

For the present argument it would appear that a concept of space, that conceives of the world of space as consisting of the two but complementary aspects of solid and void, is the very matrix on which transparency can thrive. It is not suggested that the concept of Continuous Space is the prerequisite or one of the necessary conditions for the existence of transparency or for creating a transparent form-organization. But to work with this concept just possibly reveals an inclusive mentality refusing an "either-or" approach, a willingness and capacity for conceiving and dealing with the "as-well-as" — just as a taste for transparent form-organization might. The concept of continuous space and transparent form-organization can thus both be seen as manifestations of a frame of mind. One gives meaning to the other.

Transparency — Instrument of Design

Transparent form-organization should be considered as an instrument of design, as a technique for creating intelligible order as are for instance the use of axial addition, repetition or symmetry. Transparency as organization of form produces clarity as well as it allows for ambiguity and ambivalence. It assigns each part not only one definite position and distinct role in a whole but endows it with a potential for several assignments, each of which though distinct can be deter-

mined from time to time by deciding in which connection one chooses to see it. Transparency then is imposed order and freedom of choice at the same time. The transparent organization of ambiguities would seem a particularly useful way to create order at a time seeking emancipation from obligation, at a time of multiple and often irreconcilable conditions for a building, and perhaps contradictory expectations that ought to be met by successful design. Transparency as form-organization is inclusive; it can absorb contradiction and local singularities, such as local symmetry for instance, without endangering the cohesion and readability of the whole.

A transparent organization of space has, because it allows and even encourages multiple readings of the interconnections between the parts of a whole system of related spaces, a built-in flexibility of use (Fig. 6). (Flexibility is provided and exists through possible interpretation, through flexible use of a supply of possibilities inherent in a given arrangement of spaces and not through physical flexibility of, say, movable partitions. Again we have the life-enhancing vigour of the tension between fact and implication, between physical fact and interpretation.

Since a transparent organization invites and encourages the fluctuation of multiple readings, and suggests individual interpretation, it activates and involves. The spectator remains not observer "on the outside", he becomes part of the composition through his participation. He enters a dialogue. He has to decide and in "reading" a facade, choosing one of several possible readings of the composition he is, at the same time, in his imagination, engaged in its creation.

If thus supremacy of the visual and its individual interpretation over the subject matter is assured, then meaning could be a quality that comes into being through accruing, through sedimentation, and not be "attached" to certain forms or motifs to which meaning is thought to be attributable by association or is believed to derive from precedent. Meaning can thus consist in the ad hoc or repeated identification of the beholder with the object. Meaning then blossoms from personal involvement, it is created in the act of focusing on one of the possible readings of form relations that are latent, inherent or implied in the form-organization.

It is for these reasons that at a time of presumably pluralistic expectations, of contradictory wants, of individual needs and demands and the mannerist penchant for inversion and Allison, transparent form-organization might be of particular value and should enjoy considerable favor where the desire to create inclusive form under contradictory conditions persists.

It would seem that transparent form-organization would be the instrument of design par excellence that permits collage as an attitude conducive to artifacts resulting from a technique that would render feasible "a way of giving integrity to a jumble of pluralistic references" 15. It would materialize collage as a state of mind encouraging the "politics of bricolage", activity that "implies a willingness to deal with the odds and ends left over from human endeavor" 16. Phenomenal transparency is a means of form-organization that permits to incorporate the heterogeneous elements in a complex architectural or urban tissue, to treat them as essential part of collective memory and not as embarrassment.

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16 ibid., p. 83.
Urban repair, Spalentorstadt, Basel, Switzerland. A gap in the wall of the street had to be closed. The idea was to not only “fill” the gap but to unify the entire heterogeneous row A and at the same time unite houses 9, 11 and 13 to terminate it. Elements of texture from row A are used in a transparent organization to weave across the gap.*

*Competition entry by Hoesli, Jansen, Lueck, architects, Zürich, 1981.
A small baroque theatre, dismantled on a demolition site, has to be established on a new site with an arcaded frontage along a major artery, an alley in the back and small square to the left.*

* Student seminar work conducted under Professor B. Hoesli, Swiss Federal Institute of Technology, Zürich, 1979-80.

To posit the theatre with its main axis at an angle to the frontage accommodates the inner lobby-space in a transparent position as prelude to the theatre and extension of the square. Adaptation of the axial sequence of spaces to the direction of the street however is awkward and reduces the outer lobby-area to residual spaces that must act as poche. The main axis of the theatre put squarely perpendicular to the frontage raises the difficulty of how to relate to the square on the left. By means of a transparent organization the lobby-area becomes a rich fabric of spaces in which the two directions are accommodated and conflated. Cloak-room, sitting area, bar and kiosk as well as the spaces of the lobby act locally as spatial poche and as a whole with alternate readings as figure and ground.

This seems, with the help of transparency, a more successful solution than the previous one.
Transparency as expression of the impact of the outside forces on the object within the urban context. 

The building’s position in the urban fabric: part of the connection between train station A and administrative centre B.

*Student work conducted under Professor B. Hocchi, Swiss Federal Institute of Technology, Zürich, 1979. Author.
Basel, Switzerland: urban housing on former barracks grounds at the juncture of the medieval part of Kleinbasel and its 19th century extension.\textsuperscript{5}

Transparent organization used as device for meshing urban tissues. By the presence of the two directional systems two persistent epochs of Basel's past are united and made present in the 20th century graft. Perhaps just a bit too intellectually precious and selfconscious; acceptable more in principle than in detail.

\textsuperscript{5}Diploma project conducted under Professor B. Hoeffli, Swiss Federal Institute of Technology, Zürich, 1981–82. Author: Willy Kladler.
Venice, Italy: proposal for urban redevelopment, fair grounds and exhibition area, 1978. The special elements: two fine residential blocks, a palazzo, the church of San Giobbe, the old slaughter house.

Existing housing that must be preserved. Two directions that might become starting point for the organization in terms of geometry. A transparent organization provides the geometric system that can absorb the fragments of the existing urban fabric, the new housing and the isolated special elements.

*Exhibition "Dieci Immagini per Venezia", 1980. Entry by Bernhard Hoënsi and Assistants, Swiss Federal Institute of Technology, Zürich.
The existing structure of a former tannery must be preserved as landmark and historical monument but adapted to be used as part of a cultural meeting centre with housing and studios for resident artists and visitors, workshops, conference rooms, meeting halls. The architect has to deal with the theme of public versus private, to express himself on how he sees the relation of individual and collective life; and his design must demonstrate the proposed relation in terms of mass and space. In these two proposals the spaces for collective use – the workshops, conference rooms and meeting halls – are arranged in the old structure, whereas the individual rooms for the artists were grouped together with the studios, set apart and arranged in housing units quite like a residential area.

This is a perfectly valid solution to the problem; it juxtaposes the two parts of the programme like workers housing and factory. But if we assume that it is possible to have another vision of the relation of individual and collective life – not a separation like downtown for work and suburb for living – one might think of a Carthusian monastery or a small town as model. If we suppose that this design follows such a model there arises the question of how the kinds of spaces, public and private, for collective and individual use can be brought into conjunction yet be differentiated, while at the same time the old and the added new parts of the whole must be distinguished.

* Diploma project conducted under Professor Dolf Schnebl, Swiss Federal Institute of Technology, Zürich, 1979-80. Authors: Marcel Meili and Fabrizio Gellera.
Here the theme of individual and collective life is interpreted as a monastery-like island, introverted, with a hard contour. The spaces for collective use are assigned to the volume of the old factory, the rooms and the studios for individual use are grouped together. Roughly a rectangle and an L-shape are joined at an angle, the two directions of its sides generate two orthogonal grids that correspond to the two kinds of spaces, the more public and the private as well as to the two components old and new of the whole. The joint is a filler and only in the pivotal area of the entrance court are there traces of a possible transparent organization. Thus the whole is very much still the sum of its two parts, a compact constellation of its two main elements.

In this proposal the whole is interpreted as something akin to a monastery, a closed world in which individual living, individual and collective work are separate yet together. There is the U-shape of the individual residential units and the studios turned at an angle to the main extension of the old factory which contains the spaces for collective use. Old and new, public and private, are assigned to two directional systems that are fused in the volume of the factory. Here the union of the two kinds of spaces becomes palpably real in the multiple readings of the transparent spatial organization.

*Diploma project conducted under Professor R. Hockli, Swiss Federal Institute of Technology, Zürich, 1979–80. Authors: R. Brunschoten and St. Lacek.*
In this third case the cultural center is interpreted as a piece of urban fabric or a small town in which living and working, public and private, are mixed. The transparent organization is complete: old and new, public and private areas, collective and individual use, are inseparably interwoven in a many faceted, rich, texture – and all meanings mentioned above are stated in terms of the geometric property of belonging to the one or the other orthogonal system of directions that generate the plan.

There is identity of meaning and geometry. The sequence of the plans indicates progressively how transparent form-organization can be used to unify and differentiate within a complex yet clear organization, how meaning is present in terms of space.

*Diploma project conducted under Professor B. Hocchi, Swiss Federal Institute of Technology, Zürich, 1979-80. Author: M. Jarzombek.*
This drawing, called collage, might be seen as the synthetic prototype of plan produced in the laboratory condition of a form-exercise. It demonstrates the virtues of a transparent form-organization: multiple readings, complexity in unity, ambiguity and clarity, involvement of the user who choses and connects through participation, tangible meaning in terms of geometry.

**Education of an Architect, Exhibition catalogue, The Cooper Union School of Architecture, New York, 1971, p. 290.**
A note on poché.

Poché, literally: blackened; parts of plan or section filled with black to indicate the parts of a structure that are cut, as could be done by stippling. We may get closer to the usefulness of that resurrected term if we think of "Pouff poché", the poached egg. For if we connect the verb "pocher" with "la poche", the pocket, then "pocher" can become "mettre en poche" and the past participle "poché" could be said to signify pocketed or "bagged", put into a bag, German: eingesackt. So, then "poché" would be an ideal shape put into a bag, surrounded with tissue. And that precisely seems to have happened with square, semicircle and other ideal shapes at the bottom of the Vatican Gardens.

And if we consider the imprint of structure on the plan as ground that acts to disengage the figures of the enclosed spaces - very similar to the "black lines" in a Mondrian that are perhaps all that's left from a black field after white and color rectangles have been placed on it - one may say that the procedure here presupposes apparently a primary interest in the object-figure and that one is intent on preserving its ideal form. One can then experience each individual space one at the time and one after the other. Poché is like the mortar joints between the individual stones and blocks of a rubble-wall. Attention is reserved for the part and there is, perhaps, less a comprehensive feel for the whole.

The whole very often remains but the sum of its parts or at least attention to the individual part enjoys supremacy over attention to the whole which is rather object than field. On one hand a consciousness of parts, on the other an intuition of the whole. Poché as "joint" or transition taken as figure, obviously refers as an "inbetween" to the adjoining spaces that act against it - just as a locus in space in a transparent position that "can be referred to two or several systems". Aside from possible differences in scale one is acting in terms of mass, the other in terms of space; we recognize the joint as mass or as space, as solid or as void.

It would then appear that transparency and poché are related by inversion: in a transparent form-organization there are spaces that refer to two or several systems just as poché does as "solid" mass in a complex whole consisting of several discrete spaces. In terms of the whole their roles are equivalent, just as solid and void are in terms of continuous space. Poché is present as material, transparency as space - both are, though inverted and opposing as existence, equal as performance.