Abstract

Among German architects active following World War I, Erich Mendelsohn is remarkable for his early projects conceived for sites far beyond the borders of his native land. Mendelsohn’s visits to Palestine, Greece, the United States, and the nascent Soviet Union resulted, too, in extensive written and graphic descriptions, many of which were published by the popular press. And although these foreign places were as diverse culturally as they were geographically, Mendelsohn’s letters, lectures, and books quite naturally reflect the designer’s own sensibility both towards architecture, *per se*, and towards something else: architecture as a constituent part of a universal “visual landscape.”

In Mendelsohn’s case, photography was a significant tool in the assembly of his travel-based narratives. Mendelsohn’s use of photographs betrays a reversal of the more typical relationship between landscape and an architect’s creative process. Rather than having drawn inspiration for new man-made forms from nature, Mendelsohn’s travel images evoked a world in which technical artifacts appear to constitute the background against which new architecture might -- or might not -- emerge.

Although most readily apparent in his book *Amerika: Bilderbuch eines Architekten* (An Architect’s Photo Album), this perspective persists throughout his second book, *Russland, Europa, Amerika*. The latter’s subtitle makes explicit Mendelsohn’s extension of the human gesture into geography's domain: “An Architectural Cross Section.” Examination of photographs taken or selected by Mendelsohn for this publication points to a formal process by which man-made things come to substitute for the landscape and its more widely-held moral properties. Other sources for comparison include illustrations by contemporary artists and architects such as Hermann Kosel, Bruno Taut, Hannah Höch, and Paul Citroen.
In its September 1927 issue, the satirical, Berlin-based magazine *Ulk* published a two-page spread by Hermann Kosel, titled “Die neue Bauform”: *the New Design*¹ [Figure 01]. In this illustration, a single, grotesque building has been formed from a collage of architectural elements. Appendages to the building, such as an over-sized ship’s ventilator and a human figure giving a military salute, have been culled from non-architectural sources; otherwise, the constituent elements of both the large building and its surrounding environment derive from modern buildings widely depicted at that time in the popular press. At the base of the large building, photographs of smaller, mostly domestic buildings have been placed to mimic the texture of the dense, contemporary city. A cartoon figure of an elderly man, dressed in overcoat and capped by a bowler hat, regards the “New Design” with apparent resignation. This figure is the only warmly-hued element in an image otherwise composed in monochrome.

At the lower right hand side of the illustration is an additional picture caption, which reads, “If only we can change ourselves into ‘twisted people,’ then we can live quite comfortably in this place.” ²

Readers of *Ulk* and its parent publication, *Berliner Tageblatt*, would likely have been somewhat less befuddled than the man in the picture. The most obvious target of this graphic satire should have been familiar to many as Erich Mendelsohn’s C.A. Herpich Sons building, most of which had been completed the year of Kosel’s photomontage [Figure 02]. As architect, too, of the Berlin headquarters of the Rudolf Mosse Publishing Company (which produced *Berliner Tageblatt*), Mendelsohn and his designs had been promoted extensively to Mosse’s readership by both print and patronage. The Herpich store’s façade renovation had been controversial among conservative city officials, and the extended battle for approval made the design and its architect emblematic of what others called “Neue Bauen.” ³

As portrayed by the jumbled, collage-like landscape at the base of Kosel’s photomontage [Figure 03], the background for this new architecture was essentially *more* new architecture, as though the process of design could be conceived as enlarging or deforming those visual elements already at hand. And so, although the magazine illustrator may have been ostensibly unflattering (if not unfair) towards Mendelsohn’s Herpich design, Kosel had made his point by making use of a visual language which derived in large part from the architect’s own well-known picture books, the first of which had been published by the Mosse Company just the year before. Inspired by the architect’s travels to the United States in 1924 and, later, to Russia, these books are

² *Nun brauchen wir bloss alle Spiralmenschen zu werden, dann muss sich's in solcher Bude ganz hutsch wohnen.*
essentially visual narratives by which the architect sought to promote his ideas about Europe’s own potential architectural development. Yet to approach their photography’s formal construction suggests another fundamental – if only implicit – concern: Mendelsohn’s view of architecture’s surrounding landscape.

2 Mendelsohn: Landscape and Context

Historians have tended to ignore the relationship of Mendelsohn’s designs to their environment, particularly for projects conceived before 1933, the year he left Germany. Writers have found ample material of interest relating to Mendelsohn’s clientele, the commercial nature of his work, his Zionism, or his relationship with other architects throughout the world. In addition – and not surprisingly – writing about Mendelsohn continues to emphasize the importance of the architect’s early sketches for imaginary projects, conceived during the last years of World War I. These drawings, many of which illustrated quasi-industrial forms, occasioned his initial notice among clients and established his reputation as a visionary architect for both public and professionals alike [Figure 04]. These early building sketches typically included no mark of a surrounding context, as though Mendelsohn’s designs were intended for a landscape neither yet constructed nor, even, yet conceived. The only exception was his rare inclusion of an arc, representing the sky, drawn above a few later sketches [Figure 05]. The effect of this gesture is exceedingly generic, and evokes mostly what Mendelsohn himself once called “tellurian and planetary things.”

Bruno Zevi does mention, in a caption to one of those early sketches, that Mendelsohn’s work before 1933 reflects a “tenacious, intransigent, anti-naturalist approach.” Zevi continues:

We look in vain for a tree, a hill in the background, a topographical feature… Mendelsohn frees the building from its natural context and despises environmental details. Only the ground and sky are of importance to him… Owing to their character, Mendelsohn’s visions and later his constructions were both autonomous and open; they omit description and mimesis…

Zevi’s categorical insistence upon Mendelsohn’s “anti-naturalism” is belied by a series of sketches titled “Dune Architecture,” retained by Louise Mendelsohn and exhibited after her husband’s death. Executed during a visit to the Baltic Sea in 1920, these drawings are representations of the naturally-occurring sand formations which he encountered there [Figure 06]. In an interview conducted almost fifty years later, his wife would suggest

---


From Building towards Landscape
Erich Mendelsohn and a Reconstitution of Geographical Forms, 1919-1929

that “these shapes were in turn reflected in his actual working architectural drawings.”6 But Mendelsohn himself excluded these drawings from his published monographs, and so they are difficult -- as isolated examples -- to relate to his professional thinking.

Part of the challenge towards understanding Mendelsohn’s view of landscape has to do with the elliptical character of his verbal comments about the subject. Although given to write a great deal throughout his career in Germany and afterwards, Mendelsohn’s correspondence and essays were typically infused with a kind of rhetoric which had little room for description of natural surroundings. A typical example is an impressionistic account of Pittsburg, dating to his first visit to the United States in 1924. The passage shifts quickly from a description of the city’s environment to an emphasis upon artifact:

An early glimpse from the Allegheny Mountains onto the rivers, the suburbs, and the city itself. The same disorderly skyline as New York. It is a tongue of land that re-enters the waters of the Ohio River, which starts here at the confluence of the Monongahela glacial stream and the Allegheny spring waters. All amid the mists of the American Ruhr, the collieries (which line the whole length of the track from Buffalo) and Carnegie’s wells of steel.7

Rhetoric aside, a more fundamental challenge may be the fact of his best architectural work’s urban settings. The commercial designs conceived at the time of his greatest professional success – the Herpich store, the Schocken department stores, the Petersdorff store, or the Columbushaus – are those for whom urban relationships are fundamental to each building’s unique plasticity and functional logic [Figure 07]. Yet, for many of us, the architecture of cities and the morphology of their streets remain outside our considerations about “landscape,” except in the context of parks or gardens. That our understanding of landscape must include both rural and urban settings has been a repeated concern for much of the recent critical discussion about environmental design: “A landscape is a cultural image, a pictorial way of representing, structuring, or symbolizing surroundings.”8 It is, therefore, through this filter that one can begin to perceive those elements in Mendelsohn’s vision which distinguished him from his contemporaries. Furthermore, even in his first public statements, as Mendelsohn attempted to stake out a unique position vis-à-vis his contemporaries, he did so through a critique of others’ use of landscape.

6 King, Susan. The Drawings of Erich Mendelsohn
(Berkeley: The Regents of the University of California, 1969), 26.
8 Denis Cosgrove and Stephen Daniels, eds., The Iconography of Landscape
3 Words and Images: The “Oppositional Landscape”

An early example is Mendelsohn’s illustrated public lecture, “The Problem of a New Architecture,” conceived originally for his gallery show at Paul Cassirer Gallery in 1919 and given later under the auspices of the “Arbeitsrat für Kunst” in 1920. The place and audience of his lecture were themselves significant. The Arbeitsrat had been established by Bruno Taut and had been populated by many of the artists who were soon to contribute to the “Crystal Chain” correspondence, in which the faceted forms of nature were explicitly evoked as the wellspring of a new architecture. Although Mendelsohn had been affiliated with the Arbeitsrat through his connection with the related Novembergruppe, he rejected offers to participate in their gallery shows. He accepted, however, their invitation to speak about his own work.

With little apparent irony, Mendelsohn drew his first two lecture slides from Taut’s Alpine Architecture [Figure 08]. In the published version of the lecture, Mendelsohn identifies Taut’s drawings with the first of “three very different ways of realizing this future [architecture, which] will eventually merge…”

I am going to read to you what the artist felt when he visualized it. ‘In the deep valley between crystal-edged, carved mountains, one can see from above, through the transparent glass vault, into the room with its supporting columns’ … Here the ideal experience is placed above the spatial one.12

Mendelsohn then drives his point home with a reference to The Cathedral Star [Figure 06b]. “It is liberated from any architectural vision… Here is the call: Create symbols, not forms.”13

Mendelsohn’s references to Taut’s drawings are among the few mentions of landscape-based form throughout this lecture. In his direct quotation of Taut’s own evocative language, Mendelsohn pointed his audience’s attention towards the identification of landscape with a wellspring of feeling, not of form. From this perspective, landscape was not a meaningful context from which a design might derive its shape or its organization.

9 James, op. cit., 26.
10 Zevi, op. cit., xix.
11 Beyer, op. cit., 51.
13 Ibid.
14 Mendelsohn’s only other such mention of natural forms is, significantly, a reference to drawings by Hermann Finsterlin, another member of the “Crystal Chain”: “[T]he restrained energy of such utopian spatial fantasy plays with the image of organic nature, in which a snail’s shell is placed in a tower instead of a glazed cupola, or the swelling of humus-laden earth is forced into an architectural posture.” Ibid., 18.
Rather, for Mendelsohn, Taut’s words and drawings pointed back towards a source of an architect’s emotion, the expression of which was purposeful only as a spur to his or her personal impulse towards a design. To harness this impulse in the creation of “New Architecture,” two other factors would be required: increasing abstraction of spatial geometry and greater reliance upon material characteristics and technical means. Mendelsohn’s lecture ends, in fact, with a strong emphasis upon the latter. But the architect does allow that “all three impulses are necessary.”

Yet one should not assume, like Zevi, that Mendelsohn’s concept of the landscape remained static during any one period throughout his career. For if, in 1920, Mendelsohn had explicitly omitted what Zevi calls “mimetic” content from his scheme for a new architecture, within three years Mendelsohn came to promote mimesis of an alternative kind. But rather than calling for architecture’s visual analogy to natural forms, derived from the landscape, Mendelsohn instead proposed a systemic analogy.

The occasion was the second of his extant promotional lectures, given in four cities throughout Holland in November, 1923. Mendelsohn had made a visit to that country two years before, and so his awareness of Amsterdam and Rotterdam’s increasingly divergent architectural cultures influenced a significant part of his presentation. In a letter to his wife earlier that year, Mendelsohn wrote that

Analytic Rotterdam rejects vision. Visionary Amsterdam does not understand analytic objectivity. Certainly the primary element in architecture is function, but function without sensual contributions remains mere construction. More than ever do I stand by my program of reconciliation. Both are necessary.

To effect this reconciliation, the architect resorted to a common biological trope, that of a building as an organism. Throughout the speech, titled “The International Consensus on the New Architectural Concept, or Dynamics and Function,” Mendelsohn refers to both machines and buildings as organisms, investing the term with the positive values of vitality, integration, and balance. As a rhetorical technique, reference to “organism” provided an easily-understood example by which to embody his titular concepts “dynamics” and “function.” An organism is often motile, of course, and its metabolism is both metaphorically and literally dynamic. A thing alive also obviously functions, and yet its function rests integrally with its physical form. So in his presentation of 1923, Mendelsohn refers to his most famous building in these very terms: “The Einstein Tower, without question, is a clear architectural organism. That said, there are reasons why it is

---

15 Ibid., 20.
16 James, op. cit., 55.
18 Beyer, op. cit., 60.
not a purely functional organism. But it seems to me that one cannot take any part away from it, neither from its mass, nor from its motion, nor even from its logical development, without destroying the whole.”

The use of such a metaphor was not, of course, unique to Mendelsohn. Architects throughout Europe and the United States had made reference to “the organic” for over a century. And within the community of Berlin architects known as “The Ring,” of which Mendelsohn was a founding member, the notion of an organic source of architectural form would soon come to signify a process by which such form might be developed. What is key, however, is that Mendelsohn’s use of this metaphor extended from individual entities to a geographical one – the city. His 1923 lecture continues with the following proposition:

If the close unity of the terms ‘function’ and ‘dynamics’ is true for the cell, the individual building, it is all the more so for the multi-cell system of the city. For even its smallest unit is not a disinterested spectator but a co-operating agent in the movement, and the street becomes, because of the speed of traffic, a horizontal track leading from focal point to focal point. The city of the future itself becomes a system of focal points that is, in panorama, the very fabric of space. Seen in this way, the biggest city of the modern world is, unlike the spatial miracles of the best old towns, an inorganic agglomeration of the most contrary elements. The cubist repetition of individual skyscrapers does not change this. But our era has before it, as few others in history have had, the need to create new cities, or at least to plan them.

With little conceptual preparation, Mendelsohn has transformed his organic metaphor. What had been an integral, material phenomenon – a building – becomes instead a constituent element of a spatial continuum. To be sure, each building (that is, each cell) is seen to participate in the life of the city as a “co-operating agent.” And this point provides the basis for a comparative proposition. “The city of the future” engages the “fabric of space,” but contemporary cities do not. Mendelsohn’s description of the contemporary urban landscape is, for once, succinct: “an inorganic agglomeration of the most contrary elements / [t]he cubist repetition of individual skyscrapers…”

The image which accompanies this passage is a view of the tip of Manhattan [Figure 09]. An aerial view, the scene supports no apparent geographical orientation, as if the rules of perspective have ceased to apply in “the biggest city of the modern world.” Intriguingly,

19 Mendelsohn (1992), op. cit.,33.
21 Ibid., 77ff.
22 Mendelsohn (1992), op. cit.,33.
the visual character of the photograph supports a double meaning for Mendelsohn’s use of the word “cubist.” On the one hand, the bulk of each skyscraper is primarily rectilinear, and so its random-looking placement against the many others reinforces each building’s prismatic, cubic characteristic. On the other hand, the relative anonymity of each building and the group’s crowded placement suggest many facets of a single thing, akin to the visual language of painterly Cubism, to which the term obviously relates. Akin, too, are the layered contrasts evoked by collage [Figures 10a & b], especially in photomontages promoted by Berlin’s Dada artists throughout the period of Mendelsohn’s early career.

But for further illustration, Mendelsohn points instead to Le Corbusier’s Contemporary City for Three Million Inhabitants [Figure 11], published only the year before. Referring neither to the project nor the architect by name, Mendelsohn presents the scheme as follows:

In this French plan the paths of the main highway superbly sustain the rapid traffic in their horizontal placement and their cubist self-containment. The highway cuts through the suburbs and the city in a straight line. Yet the dominance of the central city district betrays too obvious a scheme to be able to impart to the organism of the entire system the inescapable vitality of our modern era. In addition, the high-rise buildings are placed abruptly upon the plane, without connection to the other ‘cells.’

The aerial perspective of Le Corbusier’s image is similar to the previous view of New York – elevated, as though taken by an airplane – yet this scene is dominated by the effect of one-point perspective. Once again, Mendelsohn describes as “cubist” those elements whose relationship appears articulated and disjoint, although here the word relates most obviously to the rectilinear geometry of the illustrated buildings.

Mendelsohn alludes to the scheme’s exaggerated functional zoning, which in his view undermines the premise of an urban organism’s “vitality.” Le Corbusier’s towers seem to Mendelsohn independent and without physical (or even visual) continuity, and are therefore indistinguishable from New York’s skyscrapers, criticized in the immediately-preceding passage. So instead of illustrating a way forward, Contemporary City

---

23 Reyner Banham, Theory and Design in the First Machine Age (Cambridge: The MIT Press, 1982), 253; Stanislaus von Moos, Le Corbusier: Elements of a Synthesis (Cambridge: The MIT Press, 1982), 223. Une Ville Contemporaine pour 3 Millions d’Habitants was first shown late in 1922. But the image included by Mendelsohn in his Complete Works (1992) appears to be a photograph of the diorama which appeared in the Pavillon de L’Esprit Nouveau no earlier than 1925. It is unknown which image was actually presented by Mendelsohn in Holland.

24 Mendelsohn (1992), op. cit., 33-34.

embodied for Mendelsohn merely urbanism’s status quo, a datum against which his own “New Architectural Concept” would rise.

What, therefore, would be the landscape upon which a future-minded architect should operate? By the time of this second lecture, given in the autumn of 1923, Mendelsohn’s vision had crystallized. A landscape could be characterized, first of all, as a “fabric of space” and would be perceived visually, and not through the experience of other senses. Its elements would be abstract (“focal points”) or else, in its basic “cellular” component, artificial. The natural landscape would have been subsumed a priori beneath contemporary civilization’s material detritus, which was essentially inorganic and without the expressiveness of human values. Indeed, Mendelsohn’s presentation evokes what might be termed an “oppositional landscape,” the visual and systematic characteristics of which could, at best, afford an architect the means for its own reconfiguration or reassembly.

4 Seen Through an “Architect’s Eye”:
The World Abroad and its Representation

It was through foreign travel that Mendelsohn sought confirmation for and counterpoint to this “oppositional landscape.” His desire to travel came from his impulse to observe, itself an ethical judgment about one’s relationship to the visual world: “Our optical perception fails frequently – mostly from habit or indifference, only rarely from incapacity.” Yet his immediate inspiration derived from the diverse architectural discourse then at large in Germany: the media-based representations of Amerikanismus, which depended upon architecture for its iconology; the conservative reaction of Berlin’s architectural establishment towards his own work and the work of his allies among the avant-garde; and the example, elsewhere in Europe, of competing architectural innovations, especially those which had already announced solutions to those problems of the New Architecture which Mendelsohn himself sought to solve.

One is reminded that Mendelsohn was himself neither a critic nor a cultural historian. He was, of course, an architect, and as such his interest to describe the world around him was essentially twofold. Mendelsohn sought to promote his point of view among the general public, which included clients and supporters in the press. And he sought to define with precision the parameters affecting his own designs. The extent to which the former afforded opportunities for the latter may have been unique among German architects during the 1920’s. Many of his clientele were businessmen whose interests straddled

26 Miles David Samson, “German-American Dialogues and the Modern Movement Before the ‘Design Migration,’ 1910-1933” (PhD. diss., Harvard University, 1988) 183ff. Samson places Mendelsohn and his contemporaries, such as Martin Wagner, in the context of an older German debate concerning Kultur and Zivilisation.

industry, publishing, advertising, and even political propaganda. Men such as Lachman-Mosse and Salman Schocken in Germany, or even Pinchas Rutenberg in Palestine, occupied unique social and economic positions. Their businesses’ bases in emergent mass markets had encouraged their realization that customers’ own material environment could be a rich medium for promotion. Their willingness to subsidize Mendelsohn’s travel (and the resulting published narratives or architectural projects) reflected not only a faith in Mendelsohn’s visual acuity but also, more fundamentally, an intuitive affinity for the increasingly visual premise of mass media.

The outline of Mendelsohn’s 1924 visit to the United States has been well established by other writers. Mendelsohn’s first book, *Amerika: Bilderbuch eines Architekten*, has itself drawn even greater attention, having attracted the notice of architects, critics, and historians from the moment of its original publication in 1926. One writer has called *Amerika* “the twenties’ most sophisticated and most comprehensive attempt to use photography to decipher the metropolis – not only identifying the major forces shaping it but vividly conveying the new kinds of spatial feeling it engendered.” For the Russian designer El Lissitzky, a friend of Mendelsohn’s, the volume “thrills us like a dramatic film. Before our eyes move pictures that are absolutely unique. In order to understand some of the photographs you must lift the book over your head and rotate it [Figure 12].”

Visits to New York, Buffalo, Detroit, and Chicago brought Mendelsohn in direct contact with many of the structures already known to the architectural avant-garde, including skyscrapers, grain silos, automotive factories, and commercial buildings [Figure 13]. What made Mendelsohn’s book so influential was the directness with which he presented his material. With little support from verbal captions, *Amerika* illustrated these subjects with a compositional sensibility legible to its European audiences as the formal method of the avant-garde: haphazard juxtaposition, attenuated proportion, and asymmetrical placement within the picture frame. Jean-Louis Cohen has written of a cultural “horizon of reception,” relating to established German perceptions about the United States, yet one must include among those expectations too the “visual language” of modernism. In

---

29 Samson, op. cit., 183.
his selection of photographs for *Amerika*, Mendelsohn was among the first to apply that language to subject matter which itself embodied modernity.\(^{34}\)

In his travels to Russia, the first of which occurred in 1925, Mendelsohn carried with him different expectations. Kathleen James has written that Mendelsohn’s perceptions of Russia were based on his identification of the place with “Eastern” spiritual values, distinct from those prevalent in the more-familiar societies of Western Europe.\(^{35}\) Such values were essentially pre-modern, and were described by Mendelsohn in his correspondence as a “yearning for salvation,” combined with an “Eastern resignation.”\(^{36}\) So it is not surprising that his photographs of Russia’s physical environment reflected his attempt to represent both. One encounters salvation, in the form of ornate, ecclesiastical architectural forms or the utopian designs of contemporary architects [Figure 14]; and one encounters resignation, in the form of crude, labor-intensive construction techniques or (for Mendelsohn) even cruder visual sentimentality [Figure 15].

Russia’s unique geographical extent also impressed Mendelsohn. One senses here another “horizon of reception,” since his mention of the Russian landscape is invariably tied to that same conceptual framework with which he sees Russian spirituality. After his second visit in 1926, he wrote to his wife that “[t]he endless space of Russia makes dream and aspiration – idea and action – impenetrable in the negative sense, infinite in the positive.”\(^{37}\) To be sure, as yet another paraphrase for “resignation” and “salvation,” these words tell us little. But his identification of these terms with a spatial experience suggests continuity with his earlier treatment of landscape. As before, for Mendelsohn, one’s experience of landscape remains essentially abstract and made possible, primarily, by vision. And, as before, Mendelsohn projects onto such abstraction opposing ideas, the dialectic of which might effect some kind of *genius loci*. In all cases, that dialectic would derive from an architect’s design, without which those elements would remain in visual and – essentially – moral conflict.

Therefore, where the natural landscape is actually described verbally in his book *Russland Europa Amerika*, conceived to document Mendelsohn’s impressions of the Soviet Union, the photographs to which words refer suppress natural details in favor of architectural ones. Several of Mendelsohn’s captions evoke “the Russian sky,” the landscape, and the “blue Southern sky,” this last phrase even in photographs of buildings as far north as Moscow.\(^{38}\) Yet, at best, the visual role of landscape elements is primarily to complement the architectural elements within his photographs, either through counterpoint or reflection [Figure 16].

---

34 Phillips, op. cit., 221.
35 James, op. cit., 73.
37 Letter to Louise Mendelsohn, 11 July 1926. Ibid., 90.
38 See Mendelsohn (1989), op. cit., 62 and 74.
Published in 1929, also by the Rudolf Mosse Company, *Russland Europa Amerika* shared the same large, vertical format of the earlier *Amerika*. The content of the book was divided into several sections, and each section was named for the geographical locus of its photographs: *Amerika, Russland, Russland-Amerika, Europa,* and *Russland-Europa-Amerika*. Beginning with “Amerika,” Mendelsohn revisits several images from his previous book and attempts to draw a chronological portrait of the architecture of the United States. The first two photographs, attributed to Mumford’s German edition of *Sticks and Stones*, showed colonial-era structures: the John Ward house, in Salem, Massachusetts; and George Washington’s home in Mt. Vernon. These photographs of 18th-century structures are followed by a picture titled “Side Street,” a 20th-century view of 19th-century New York, including brownstone residences and their stoops. This photograph, taken by Mendelsohn and originally published in *Amerika*, was for the later book significantly cropped [Figure 17, above]. The effect of the altered image was twofold. The magnification of ornamental detail naturally reinforced the historical connotation of the pictures’ sequence. But, more importantly, the exclusion of the scene’s perspective focus and of its expanse of sky served to flatten the subject matter into Mendelsohn’s “oppositional landscape,” that is, the incoherent spatial and material background against which contemporary architects must operate. Subsequent photographs, too, reinforce this implicit message. In fact, most of the photographs re-used by Mendelsohn (especially plates 5, 6, and 11 – see Figure 17, below) were severely cropped for publication in the new book.

The end of this first sequence of fourteen photographs allowed Mendelsohn to draw his narrative through to the current day. Once again, Mendelsohn chose a view of New York’s skyline which lacked a clear perspective focus [Figure 18]. But with little direct reference to the picture, Mendelsohn writes

> [F]rom the world war to the ecstasy of world power. Because in America the world war is the given situation, she expands her accumulated forces to the immeasurable. The objective onlooker grabs for the victorious party, tries to make it his ally. The developed technique becomes the greatest development of power.\(^{40}\)

So with this rhetorical flourish, the reader arrives to the point where Mendelsohn’s previous volume, *Amerika*, left off: the contemporary city, once again portrayed visually as “an inorganic agglomeration of the most contrary elements.”

The second section, “Russland,” depicts almost exclusively historical architecture. All but nine of 38 photographs in this section are credited to Mendelsohn himself. Of the nine

---

\(^{39}\) Mendelsohn received the first American edition from Mumford himself, during the architect’s 1924 visit to the United States.

\(^{40}\) Mendelsohn (1989), op. cit., 34.
exceptions, six are attributed to a Russian history of architecture, one to a book on the
Ukrainian baroque, and one to Dr. Ernst Cohn-Wiener, a Berlin-based expert on the
architecture of Turkestan. Some of Mendelsohn’s photographs hearken back to
Amerika’s neck-straining perspectives [Figure 19; compare with Figure 12]. Others, on
the other hand, try to evoke a sense of Russians’ day-to-day experience. A photograph
titled “Moskau / Lubjanka” depicts a crowd of people, each going about his or her
business, in front of a heavily-ornamented façade [Figure 20]. The façade is festooned,
too, with figurative political propaganda of a similarly ornamental texture. With this
picture, Mendelsohn introduces the book’s comparative theme, for the final sentence of
the caption reads, “Russia’s people are a shapeless mass: in America everybody is his
own motor.”

In general, however, the photographs of Russland Europa Amerika evoke complexity and
intricacy, together with a moody judgment of Russia’s backwardness. But the images and
captions suggest, too, ambivalence towards attempts at modernization. A scene of a
Paris-like, commercial passage in Leningrad [Figure 21] is joined by the phrase
“industrialized oriental bazaars but without the dreamy light.” Throughout the picture
sequences, a tension between supposedly authentic Russian characteristics and newer,
foreign influences anticipates further comparisons between Russian and the United
States, drawn explicitly in the third section of the book. One image announces directly
the thematic shift. The photograph illustrates a model of Ivan Leonidov’s thesis project
for the Lenin Institute and Library, dating to 1927 [Figure 22]. Here, Mendelsohn’s
version of Russian history arrives at the present day. The caption for the photograph
reads, in part:

Revolution! / The new Russia recognizes the law of the new world. /  
Technique becomes the God. / America becomes the longing. /  
The beyond is worth nothing – the here everything.

Leonidov’s design for the Lenin Institute and Library perfectly embodies the predicament
in which Mendelsohn perceived the Russian avant-garde during his visits there. In the
photograph itself, architectural elements have been attenuated to the abstract level of
physical forces – tension, compression, and coordinate geometry. The enthusiasm for this
abstraction, graphically attractive as it was, troubled him. Like his German colleagues of
the “Crystal Chain” earlier in the decade, the most admirable Russian architects were, for
Mendelsohn, too quick to embrace a world on paper. They were too quick, as well, to
adopt European architectural trends more provocative than convincing. To find glass, for

---
41 Igor Grabar, Istoriya Architektury: Do-Petrovskaja Epocha, Moskva i Ukraina (Moscow: Knebel, 1909).
42 G. C. Lukomskij, Denkmäler Kirchlicher Architektur des XI. bis XIX. Jahrhunderts. Byzantinische
44 Mendelsohn (1989), op. cit., 84.
45 Ibid., 86.
From Building towards Landscape
Erich Mendelsohn and a Reconstitution of Geographical Forms, 1919-1929

instance, so prominently used in a project for a Kievan newspaper building [Figure 23] appeared farcical to him. Even Mendelsohn acknowledged the extremes of Russia’s natural environment, which made the extensive use of glass obviously untenable: “But during the eight winter months the temperature descends to 40 below zero – in the icy east wind…” Yet Mendelsohn’s warning extended to his entire readership, not just to his to Russian colleagues. In the preface to the book’s final chapter, he anchors what will follow with a grounded critique of his fellow Europeans’ theoretical posturing:

The world is going to laugh at Europe’s preachers of reason if they build unreasonably. Here the mental acrobat separates from the visionary, the boastful from the self-understood, the complicated from the simple, the veiled conventional from the obviously original. This separation is common law. It is independent of nation and continent and from the layers of epochs and styles. Yet Mendelsohn’s warning extended to his entire readership, not just to his Russian colleagues. In the preface to the book’s final chapter, he anchors what will follow with a grounded critique of his fellow Europeans’ theoretical posturing:

Nevertheless, Russland Europa Amerika ends with a sequence of illustrations intended to synthesize the positive qualities of each of those so-called continents [Figure 24]. From Europe, Mendelsohn selected Dudok’s columbarium at Haarlem-Westerveld and writes, “This is the way!” From Russia, he picked Tatlin’s Monument to the Third International [Figure 13, right] to represent “spiritual daring.” From the United States, Mendelsohn curiously chose two opposing images. Mendelsohn characterizes the first, a drawing of Ware and Metcalfe’s proposal for New York’s Gateway of the Nation as “bombastic.” About the second, a photograph of James Gamble Rogers’ New York Medical Center, Mendelsohn writes, “This way demands also America’s drive for something new, expressed through the organized strength of her new zoning laws.” One should note that here Mendelsohn represents even legal and procedural processes as a visual matter, subject to the same formal analysis as composition, material, or structure.

The volume’s final image, one more photograph taken from Grabar’s book of traditional Russian architecture, encourages Mendelsohn to add, “and this way] demands Russia’s genuine and mystical creativity, expressed in the splendor of the Kremlin – the Russian heart.” The exuberant “skyline” of the Kremlin’s Terem Churches, a 17th-century design, emerges up from a mundane landscape of roofs and chimneys. As the culmination of Mendelsohn’s intellectual journey to “Eastern” Russia, this image stands in counterpoint to New York’s skyline, shown at the beginning of the book [Figure 18]. And with a final written paragraph titled “Synthesis,” Mendelsohn positions his readers at the

47 Ibid., 184.
48 Ibid., 206.
49 Ibid., 208.
50 Werner Hegemann, Amerikanische Architektur & Stadtbaukunst (Berlin: Wasmuth, 1925), 64.
51 Mendelsohn (1989), op. cit., 212.
52 Ibid., 214.
confluence of all three cultural streams. The way forward, Mendelsohn asserts, depends upon their successful joining.

5 Conclusion: Architecture for the “Oppositional Landscape”

As a graphic manifesto, Russland Europa Amerika attracted the endorsement of critics for whom Neue Bauen’s increasingly strident functionalism already appeared sterile. In the United States, Lewis Mumford reviewed the book and referred to “the European tendency to isolate and caricature in architecture some single element of the modern scheme.” For Mumford, Mendelsohn’s photo essay acknowledged and challenged that tendency.

Erich Mendelsohn’s arrangement of pictures is a method of thinking, not abstract and analytical, but concrete and synthetic. The two processes are complementary; but the abstract method, formed by mathematics and fostered by finance, until recently ruled out the architectonic mode.

More recent writers have seen Russland Europa Amerika as a terminal statement of the positive phase of German Amerikanismus, after which the United States and Russia—as models by which to measure a changing German society—came under more direct attack by parties from across the political spectrum. As the work of a practicing architect, however, Mendelsohn’s book suggests a more concrete consideration. How did Mendelsohn’s own architectural design reflect the ideas put forth in his picture books? How would the constituent elements of the “New Architecture” relate to the already-existing visual environment, as documented and framed by Mendelsohn’s photographs?

In retrospect, Hermann Kosel’s satiric photomontage hit not far from its mark. Mendelsohn’s approach established a limited vocabulary of architectural elements, each of which was recognizable for its support of either the building’s signature identity or else of its surroundings. The Petersdorff store, designed and built in Wrocław (formerly Breslau) between 1927 and 1928, affords a useful example [Figure 25]. Composed of diverse architectural details, the Petersdorff store explicitly incorporated the three convergent qualities to which Russland Europa Amerika pointed: imaginative spirit, assertive use of technology, and contrapuntal composition. Just as significantly, and also in common with Mendelsohn’s other buildings conceived during this time, the Petersdorff Store contrasts those qualities against the fabric of the pre-existing surroundings. To do so successfully, Mendelsohn had first to reify that landscape with elements of the building’s own composition.

54 Ibid.
The Petersdorff store’s most noticeable feature, a glazed façade suspended above what is now Szweska Street, extends to the corner at Oławska Street and wraps around with a sharp radius to meet a wall of windows at the north side of the building [Figure 26]. The composition of the suspended façade, fully six stories in height at the corner, is largely horizontal; only the delicate bronze window mullions add a contrasting, vertical accent. But it is the rounded corner which is most striking [Figure 27]. As a recurrent motif in Mendelsohn’s work, the glazed “bullnose” was prominent in many designs. But its use had no consistent relationship to function or orientation. Instead, as in the Petersdorff store, such rounded forms were used primarily for compositional contrast to the surrounding environment, which included – as a sort of “architectural fiction” – rectilinear elements in Mendelsohn’s own buildings. The use of traditional windows, conceived as punched openings despite their frame’s innovative detailing, afforded visual consistency not with the iconic cantilevered corner but with the urban fabric at the building’s edges [Figure 28].

Mendelsohn’s designs, including the Petersdorff store, were not contextual in the sense used by writers today to describe buildings in urban settings. His buildings were not composed to match existing cornice lines or to continue the profile of existing roofs [Figure 29]. Rather, he sought first of all to afford his buildings a unique identity, distinct from either the past or the present; and, second, he chose to reinforce that identity through disjunction, not similarity [Figure 30]. And from what could such perceptions have been derived? Like “Die neue Bauform” of Kosel’s collage, Mendelsohn’s buildings depended upon the public’s constructed expectations of the urban landscape, which Mendelsohn’s photo-albums helped, in part, to create.

---

56 At the Petersdorff store, the rounded interior corner was used for customer seating; see Stephan, op. cit., 102. At the Schocken store in Stuttgart, on the other hand, a rounded element famously housed the store’s main stairs.
From Building towards Landscape
Erich Mendelsohn and a Reconstitution of Geographical Forms, 1919-1929

6 References


Boswell, Peter, and Maria Makela. *The Photomontages of Hanna Höch.*
Minneapolis: Walker Art Center, 1996.


Clair, Jean, ed. *The 1920s: Age of the Metropolis.*

Cohen, Jean-Louis. Postface to *Amerika: Livre d’images d’un Architecte,*


Cosgrove, Denis, and Stephen Daniels, eds. *The Iconography of Landscape.*


Fedorov, Sergej. “Erich Mendelsohn’s Red Banner Factory in Leningrad 1926-1928:


Grabar, Igor. *Istorija Architektury: Do-Petrovskaja Epocha, Moskva i Ukraina.*
Moscow: Knebel, 1909.

Hegemann, Werner. *Amerikanische Architektur & Stadtbaukunst.*
Berlin: Wasmuth, 1925.

Heinze-Mühleib, Ita. *Erich Mendelsohn, Bauten und Projekte in Palästina (1934-1941).*
From Building towards Landscape
Erich Mendelsohn and a Reconstitution of Geographical Forms, 1919-1929


From Building towards Landscape
Erich Mendelsohn and a Reconstitution of Geographical Forms, 1919-1929


