ten oberen Val d'Agri am Vulturino (Abb. 3). Einen Teil der sich über 20 km erstreckenden und zwischen 1100 und 1600 m Höhe liegenden Flächen von insgesamt 2000 ha konnte ich als Begleiter des besichtigenden Forstinspektors Dott. *Cipriani* kennenlernen. Die bis 30° steilen Trias-Kalksteinhänge haben kaum noch Lockerboden, während der angrenzende Buchenwald auf tiefgründigem Braunerdeboden stockt. Die erhebliche Abschwemmung zeigen die viele hundert Jahre alten Niederwald-Wurzelstöcke auf Stelzwurzeln. Man hat an den Hängen mit kleinen Trokkenmauern sog. „gradoni" (Terrassen) angelegt, die bepflanzt oder besät worden sind. Die Eichen- und Buchensämlinge sind meist gut vorangekommen, aber auch hier gilt die Sorge des Forstmannes mehr den Nadelbäumen. Auf den vorherrschend südlich exponierten Hängen sind mit Ausnahme der Robinien, mit denen man vor allem die Erosionsrinnen befestigt hat, nahezu sämtliche gepflanzten Arten vertrocknet. Es wurden gesät: Quercus Cerris L., Qu. pubescens Willd., Fagus silvatica L. und gepflanzt: Juglans regia L., Ostrya carpinifolia Scop., Alnus cordata (Lois) Desf., Fraxinus Ornus L. Als Nadelholz wurde unter diese gemischt: Cupressus arizonica, C. sempervirens var. horizontalis Gord., Pinus nigra Arn var. austriaca. Es wird noch ungeheurer Kosten und Anstrengungen bedürfen, bis es in Jahren mit günstigen Witterungsverhältnissen einmal gelingen wird, diese exponierten Hänge und gar die Gipfel wieder zu beschatten.

Außer diesen hier kurz skizzierten Beobachtungen gewann ich bei meinen Reisen in der Basilicata neben einer erweiterten Landeskenntnis auch eine Einführung in die landwirtschaftlichen und sozialen Probleme, mit denen die Fragen der Ent- und Bewaldung, wie der Forstwirtschaft überhaupt, eng verknüpft sind. Im Augenblick ist es noch fraglich, ob die Zeit für solche großangelegten Wiederaufforstungen überhaupt schon reif ist. Wird der dann mühsam errungene junge Wald wirklich den Schutz vor Mensch und Tier finden, um heranwachsen zu können? Das Forstpersonal ist zu gering, schlecht besoldet und zu wenig ausgebildet. Erst wenn die im Gange befindliche Agrarreform das ganze Land erfaßt haben wird und sich eine Umstellung der extensiven Viehhaltung zu einem, wenn auch sicher stets gering bleibenden Futterpflanzenanbau angebahnt haben wird, wird auch eine Waldwirtschaft möglich sein, die so viel abwirft, daß die Forstaufsicht verstärkt werden kann und langsam die Schäden der Vergangenheit geheilt werden können.

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POTHOLES IN THE RIVER BEDS OF NORTH TAIWAN

Tschang Hsi-lin

With 2 fig. and 14 phot.

I. Distribution of potholes

Potholes are a very characteristic and conspicuous feature in North Taiwan. Some occur along the coast and are of marine origin. For instance, at the coast of Lao-mei, near the famous "stone gate" (sea cave), there are on agglomerate many marine potholes, which vary considerably in size. But the majority of the potholes in North Taiwan are of fluviatile origin. In nearly every stream in North Taiwan one may find potholes. From my own observations during recent years (chiefly between 1954—1956). I have discovered more than 10 streamcourses bearing potholes: 1. Chilungho, 2. Szechiaotingchi (a tributary of Chilungho), 3. Nuannuanchi (a tributary of Chilungho), 4. Shuangchi (= Weishuangchi, a tributary of Chilungho), 5. Chingmeichi, 6. Tachichienchi (a tributary of Chingmeichi), 7. Shihtingchi (a tributary of Chingmeichi), 8. Peiszechi, 9. Hengchi, 10. Shuangchi (= Tingshuangchi), 11. and 12. two short streams north of Aoti.

Among the localities mentioned above, the potholes are particularly well developed in Chilungho and Chingmeichi regions.

A) Potholes of Chilungho region:

Chilungho is an eastern tributary of Tanshuiho. We have discovered more than 20 pothole localities along the Chilungho valley region, most of which occur on the main river itself. We can subdivide them into 4 sections according to the different conditions in the distribution of potholes (see fig. 1):

1. From the source of the river to Pingchi, about 5 km in length, no potholes have been discovered yet.
2. From Pingchi to Houtung, about 13 km in length, the river is quite narrow, with rocky channels and full of rapids and cascades. We have discovered 14 localities with potholes. In this section of the stream, potholes are so numerous that we may call it "a stream of potholes".
3. From Houtung to Tsitu, about 24 km in length, we have only discovered 7 pothole localities along the main stream and 2 along the tributaries. The distribution of potholes seems rather sparse, but near Juifang and Nuannuan we have found many well developed potholes.
4. From Tsitu to the stream mouth, about 55 km in length the stream enters the Taipei Basin, sluggishing and meandering. There are very few potholes except along the tributaries.

B.) Potholes of Chingmeichi region:

Chingmeichi is an eastern tributary of Sintienchi, which also is a tributary of Tanshuiho. Chingmeichi has 2 chief sources: the eastern source is called Tachichienchi and the southern one is called Shihtingchi. We can subdivide it into 4 regions with regard to the distribution of potholes (see fig. 2).

1. Tachichienchi region: Within this region the potholes are sparsely distributed and not so well developed.
2. Shihtingchi region: Shihtingchi has 2 sources which confluent near Shihting. The eastern source is full of potholes, particularly in its lower part. The western one is called Wutukouchi, which has only 1 locality with potholes.
3. Shuangchikou region: The confluent point of Tachichienchi and Shihtingchi is called Shuangchikou. Here we found numerous potholes, both on the upper and lower parts of the confluent point.
4. Chingmeichi region proper: From Shuangchikou downstream, the potholes are few and sparsely distributed. Below Shihpikou to the stream mouth, there are no more potholes.

II. Height and location of potholes

A.) Height of potholes:

Potholes of North Taiwan streams occur between 0 and 8 m above the low stream water surface. Most of them are found within 50 cm above the water surface, becoming gradually sparse upward.

Table 1: Vertical distribution of potholes

Heigth above low water surface	a. Chilungho region	b. Chingmeichi region
1. Above 200 cm	33	10
2. Between 100 and 200 cm	20	27
3. Between 50 and 100 cm	35	34
4. Below 50 cm	96	81
	184	152

B.) Location of potholes:

We have found potholes along valley sides, on valley botton, on rapids, on confluent point, and also on boulders in the stream.

1. Potholes on valley sides: On the undercut or concave side of the stream valley, the hydraulic power and the abrasive power of running water with load are both most active, so potholes are easily carved out in those parts of the stream. In Chilungho and Chingmeichi region, we always found potholes on certain undercut side, but none or very few on the opposite slip-off or convex side.

   Along steeper valley sides (slopes) the distribution usually is irregular, but near Nuannuan, on the north bank of Chilungho, we have found some lines of potholes, quite regularly distributed (see pl. 2). These potholes are all along bedding planes which make somewhat 20° angle with the stream water surface. Each pothole is horizontal and usually elongate in form. The direction of these elongated potholes is parallel to the flow of the stream, and formed by the currents moving constantly in one direction.
2. Potholes on rocky channels: Potholes are well developed on rocky channels, particularly at the upper part of Chilungho, near Nuannuan; at the upper part of Chingmeichi, near Shuangchikou; and at Shihtingchi above Shihting (see pl. 3).
3. Potholes on rapids: At the upper courses of Chilungho, Chingmeichi and other streams, there are many sandstone rapids which either entirely cross the whole stream bed or occupy only a certain part of the valley. On these rapids, we have found remarkably distinct potholes. At the east of Juifang, where the rapids are extended from the northern bank to the stream, we have found many potholes downstream the rapids; whereas upstream, there are only a few.
4. Potholes along stream confluent: At the confluent point of streams, potholes are found frequently. For instance, at the confluent of Peiszechi (near Pinglin); of Wutukouchi (near Wutukou); of Shihtingchi (near Shihting); of Chingmeichi (near

Shungchikou) we have found many potholes, especially in the later two localities.

5. Potholes on boulders: At the upper course of Chilungho and its tributaries, we have seen potholes even on big boulders in the stream. They are usually few in number, small in size, and shallow in depth (see pl. 5). These potholes seem to be formed after the boulders have transported there. If this deduction is correct, then the formation of potholes is only of a very recent phenomenon.

Table 2: Form of potholes

Form	Number of potholes a. Chilungho region-chiefly in Juifang and Nuannuan	b. Chingmeichi region-chiefly in Shungchikou
1. Elliptic	96	82
2. Rounded	64	31
3. Other forms	70	51
	230	164

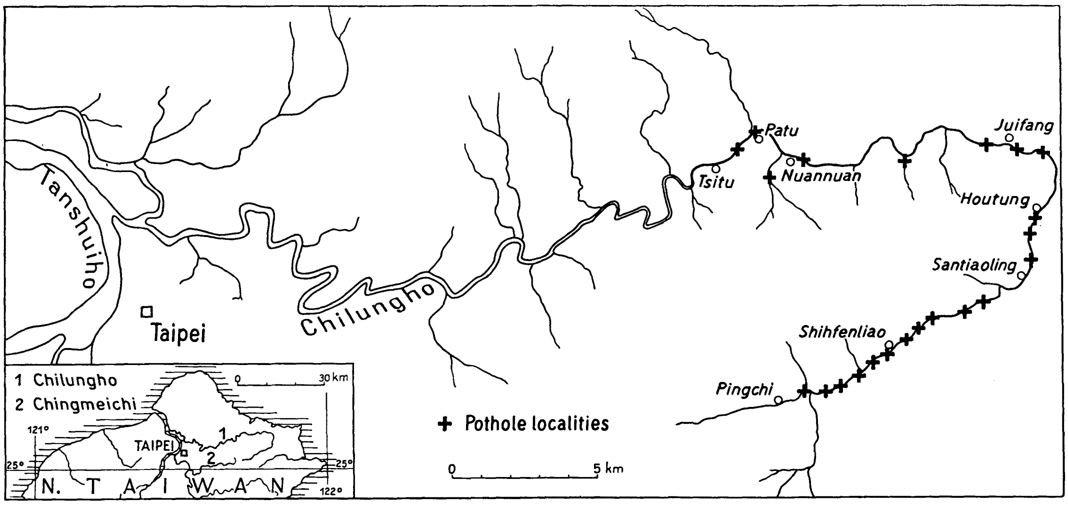


Fig. 1: The distribution of potholes in Chilungho region (N. Taiwan)

III. Form and size of potholes

A.) Form of potholes:

The surface form of potholes are highly variable, they may be rounded, oval, elliptic, bottle-gourd like, or of other irregular forms. Based on the fragmental survey measured during excursions, we found that the elliptic form is by far the most common one. The united potholes and potholes on higher altitudes are usually of elliptic or other irregular forms; simple potholes and potholes on lower altitudes are usually of rounded form.

B.) Size of potholes:

There are two ways in observing the size of potholes: the horizontal size or width of potholes and the vertical size or depth of potholes.

1. Width of potholes: In Chilungho and Chingmeichi region, so far we have taken measures, the potholes are varying in diameter from 3 cm to 440 cm; the diameter of most potholes is between 10 cm and 50 cm. United potholes are usually wider than simple ones.

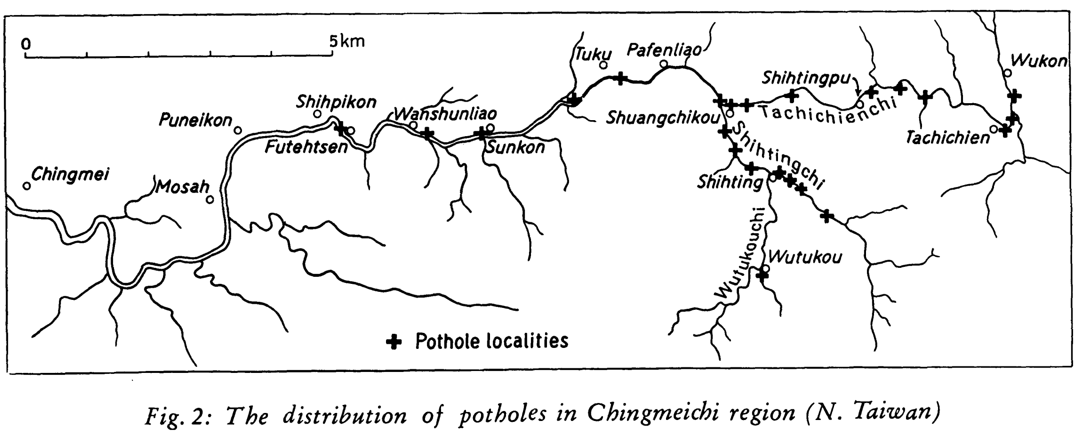
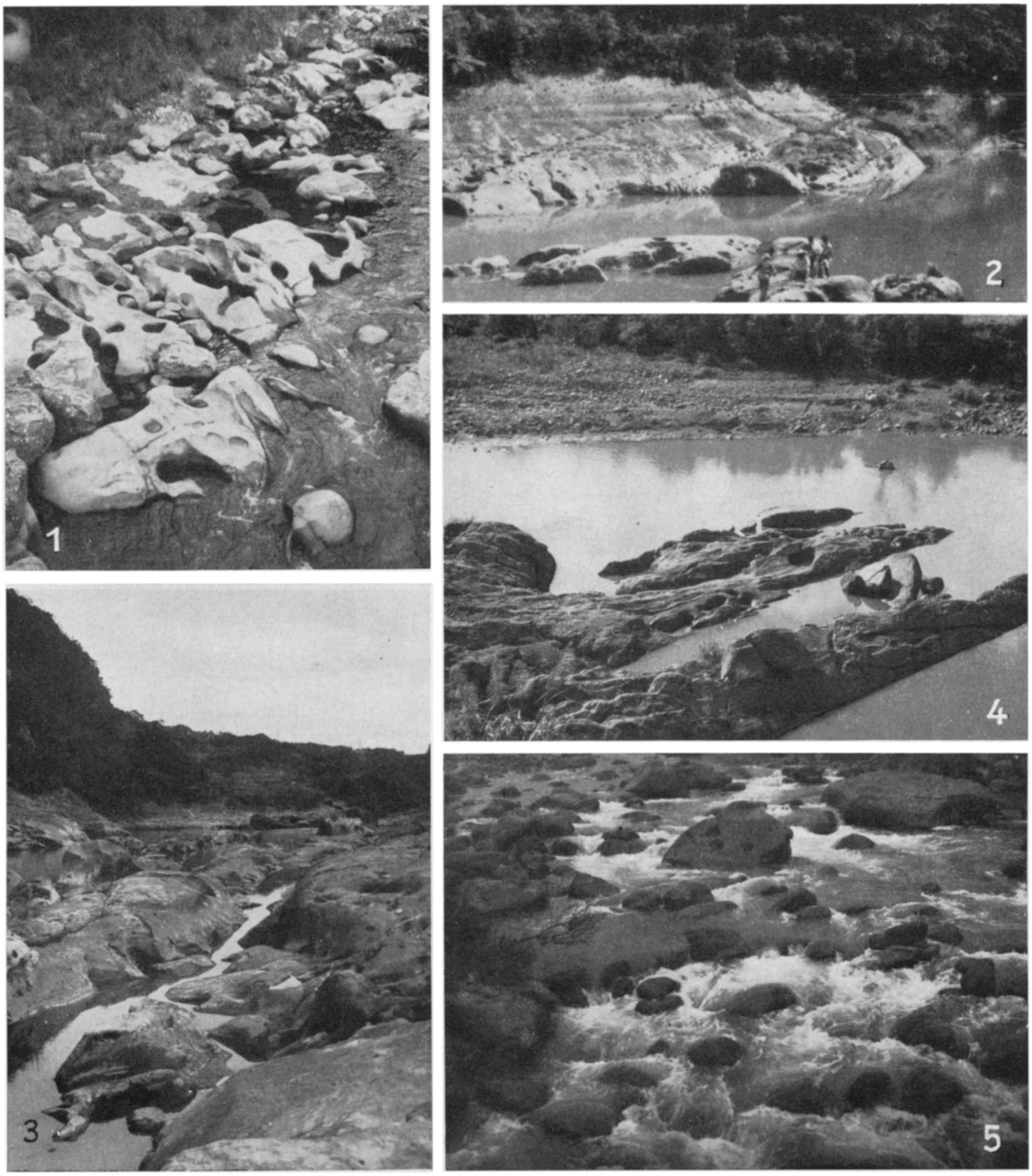
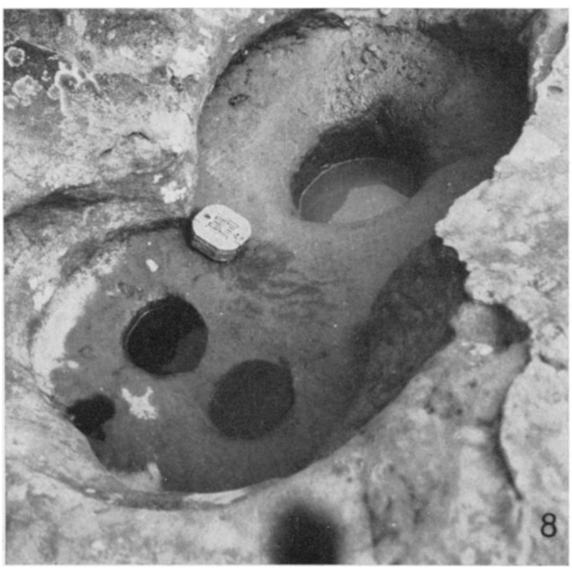


Fig. 2: The distribution of potholes in Chingmeichi region (N. Taiwan)



Location of potholes:

Pl. 1: Potholes on the valley-side, N.bank of Tachichienchi, Shuangchikou. Pl. 2: Potholes on the valley-slope, N.bank of Chilungho, near Nuannuan; Pl. 3: Potholes on the rocky channel, near Nuannuan; Pl. 4: Potholes on rapids, N. bank of Chilungho, near Juifang; Pl. 5: Potholes on the boulder, in the Shuanchi Stream, a. N. tributary of Chilungho.



Types of potholes: tributary of Chilungho near Jaifang, near Nuannuan

Pl. 6: Simple pothole, in the Szechiaotingchi, a. s.; Pl. 7: United pothole, N. bank of Chilungho; Pl. 8: Compound pothole, N. bank of Chilungho.

Table 3: Width of potholes

Diameter	Number of potholes	
	a. Chilungho region-chiefly in Juifang and Nuannuan	b. Chingmeichi region-chiefly in Shungchikou
1. More than 200 cm	7	3
2. Between 100 and 200 cm	31	17
3. Between 50 and 100 cm	58	65
4. Less than 50 cm	134	81
	230	166

2. Depth of potholes: Potholes of Chilungho and Chingmeichi region varying in depth from 2 cm to 285 cm. The depth of the majority of potholes is between 10 cm and 50 cm.

Table 4: Depth of potholes

Depth	Number of potholes	
	a. Chilungho region-chiefly in Juifang and Nuannuan	b. Chingmeichi region-chiefly in Shungchikou
1. Over 200 cm	1	1
2. Between 100 and 200 cm	11	5
3. Between 50 and 100 cm	29	24
4. Below 50 cm	175	131
	230	161

IV. Types of potholes

E. Ljungner [1]) distinguishes between three different types of potholes according to a mechanical-hydrological point of view:

1. Riesentöpfe mit schalen- oder schraubenförmigem Boden
2. Riesentöpfe mit schalenförmigem Boden, die zylindrisch sind, aber keine Schrauben aufweisen
3. Riesentöpfe mit zylindrischen Wänden und Weinflaschenboden.

H. S. Alexander [2]) divides into three groups of potholes, according to their origin:

1. Eddy-holes (Strudellöcher)
2. Gouge-holes
3. Plunge-pool holes.

O. Ängeby [3]) on the other hand distinguishes between seven types of potholes, chiefly according to their occurrence:

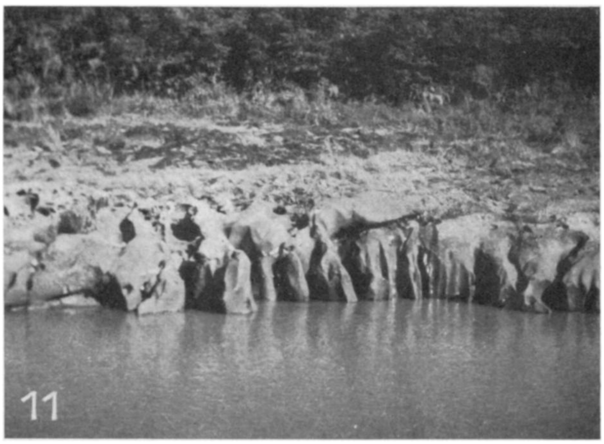
1. Leeside potholes
2. Streamside potholes
3. Plunge-pool holes
4. Potholes at a leeside corner
5. Potholes at a streamside corner
6. Gouge-holes and evorsion marks
7. Potholes with spiral furrows

The present classification is based primarily upon the form and evolution of potholes. There are three groups: 1. Simple potholes, 2. united potholes and 3. compound potholes.

[1]) *Erik Ljungner* (1927): Spaltentektonik und Morphologie der schwedischen Skagerack-Küste, Uppsala.

[2]) *H. S. Alexander* (1932): Pothole erosion, the journal of Geology, Vol. XL, Chicago.

[3]) *Olof Ängeby* (1951): Pothole erosion in recent waterfalls, Lund.



Evolution of potholes:

Pl. 9: Simple-pothole stage, Shuangchi Stream, a N. tributary of Chilungho; Pl. 10: United-pothole stage, Chilungho, near Shihfenliao; Pl. 11: Fluting stage, N. bank of Chilungho, near Nuannuan; Pl. 12: Channel stage, Chilungho, near Nuannuan; Pl. 13: Island-like remnant stage, Chilungho, near Nuannuan.

Joints and potholes:

Pl. 14: Potholes along joints, Shuangchikou.

A.) Simple potholes:

Although variable in shape, the form is in general circular or oval. They occur usually near the water surface, during the early stage of the pothole development, and mostly along the smaller tributaries.

B.) United potholes:

While evorsion is going on, two or more closely set potholes become gradually united. They may either be partially or entirely united; either of horizontal or of vertical confluence. This type of potholes occur usually during the later stage of the pothole development, and is widely distributed both along the Chilungho and Chingmeichi region.

C.) Compound potholes:

This is a special form and very interesting type of potholes. They usually consist of two or more sets, which occur in different levels. The outer larger one may be bottle-gourd like, sole-like, Chinese ink-slab like, or melon-seed like in form. They are either of simple or of united potholes. The inner potholes are usually smaller in size, and mostly rounded in shape. They may be situated on one, or on two or more (rarely) different levels. The outer one has been formed during an earlier stage of development whereas the inner potholes have been formed later on consequently. After the outer pothole has been formed, the eddy current attacking certain weak points within it, and perhaps accelerated by the solution function, the new smaller inner potholes are then carved out. They usually occur on rocky channels and rapids, where there is a large amount of running water with strong erosion power.

V. Evolution of potholes

A.) Simple pothole stage:

The initial stage of pothole evorsion is characterized by the presence of isolated simple potholes, which are smaller in size, shallower in depth, mostly rounded in shape, and sparsely distributed (see pl. 9).

B.) United pothole stage:

As the pothole evorsion process is going on, the number of potholes within a definite space is increased and they are larger in size, deeper in depth, and gradually united (see pl. 10).

C.) Fluting stage:

As the evorsion is progressing further on, the flutings then appear. These flutings are formed chiefly from the confluence of potholes deepened by vertical corrasion and usually occurred along the structural weak zone, for instance, along joints or fissures (see pl. 11).

D.) Channel stage:

Later on, the pothole-bearing mass become lower and lower, the whole mass is then detached by many channels. These channels are usually the result of the selective evorsion on the weak zone, for instance joints. In this stage, the total area of the rocky mass is still larger than the water (channel) area among them (see pl. 12).

E.) Island-like remnant stage:

Hereafter, the water (channel) area gradually widened out, the rocky mass gradually eroded away, so we can only see some island-like remnant of pothole-bearing masses scattered here and there above the water surface (see pl. 13).

At last, even the island-like remnant are eroded and entirely wiped away. This is the ultimate step of evorsion. From the appearance of potholes to the absence of potholes is one complete cycle of evorsion. The evolution of potholes, of course, is not necessary passing through all the stages mentioned above.

VI. Origin of potholes

Conditions that seem to favour maximum pothole development in North Taiwan streams are polygenic:

A.) Rainfall:

North Taiwan, situated in the northeastern trade wind belt — in winter strengthened by the strong northeast monsoon — abounds in rainfall; in summer there is also considerable rainfall due to the hilly nature of this region, although the summer monsoon is changed in direction. There is nearly no distinct dry season all around the year, the supply of running water is so abundant that the erosion power (both mechanical and chemical) is particularly strong, thus it favours the development of potholes.

Table 5: Rainfall (in mm) of a. Huoshaoliao (Chilungho region) and b. Shihting (Chinmeichi region):

	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII	IX	X	XI	XII	year
a.	718	568	553	347	391	421	303	376	604	782	720	790	6572
b.	193	194	243	191	287	398	280	402	436	365	261	200	3442

B.) Stream gradient:

In North Taiwan, the gradient of smaller streams and the upper part of the larger streams is rather great, for instance, though the average gradient of Chilungho is only $^1/_{221}$, the gradient of the upper course from stream source to Tsitu attains $^1/_{108}$, with many waterfalls, cascades, rapids and rocky channels, which usually cause turbulent currents when the running water flow over them, so favouring the development of potholes.

C.) Mass wasting:

Phenomena of mass wasting frequently occur at the upper courses of Chilumgho, Chingmeichi and other streams in North Taiwan due to the steepness of valley slopes. For instance, there are 22 localities of landslide evidence on left bank and 9 localities on right bank in Shihtingchi alone as observed. In these regions, streams are full of coarse loads, which will accelerate the formation of potholes.

D.) Joints:

The influence of joints to the formation and development of potholes is very conspicuous. Potholes usually occur on regions with many joints (weak zone). At first, potholes are distributed sparsely along the joints, then united, and leading to the formation of a channel. This is distinctly observed in Shuangchikou of Chingmeichi region, near Shihfenliao and Nuannuan of Chilungho region (see pl. 14).

E.) Rejuvenation:

North Taiwan has been uplifted during the recent age, and the dry up of the Taipei Lake (now the

Taipei Basin) is also a very recent phenomenon. This is evidenced by the presence of many terraces, incised meanders and valley-in-valleys along stream coarses. As the stream valley rejuvenated — both dynamic and static rejuvenation — the base level of erosion is lowered, vertical corrasion becomes stronger, and then potholes are easily formed.

ORTSPLANUNG ALS PRAKTISCHE GEOGRAPHIE

Von Hartmut Scholz

Mit 6 Abbildungen

„Der Raumplaner selbst ist kein Wissenschaftler im eigentlichen Sinn, sondern ein praktisch arbeitender Fachmann."

J. Göderitz

Local planning as applied geography

Summary: Local planning as the first level in the hierarchy of town and country planning offers a new and large field of activity to the geographer in close contact with the architect. In the development plans of towns and parishes which must be revised at regular intervals particular attention should be given to areas of new settlement which must be properly fitted into the region both as regards site and function. This holds true especially when it is intended to create new focal points in areas where so far settlement has grown in a haphazard fashion. Genuine new planning is found where manufacturing industry has made its appearance in so far purely agricultural communities of suitable transport location so that residential areas for the labour force have to be designated within reasonable distance from the place of work.

A further task of local planning can also be seen in the creation of self-contained neighbourhoods of 800 to 2000 people in towns of smaller size.

Within the framework of specific settlement planning, certain types of layout were developed particularly after the last war; they are either characterised by streets widening at the ends to allow for turning of vehicles, or by groundplans resembling those of a "green village". In the function of these housing units there is, however, no discernable change.

Mit diesem Aufsatz soll nicht der Eindruck erweckt werden, daß die Ortsplanung als gemeindliches Entwicklungsbild als ein Teil der geographischen Wissenschaft zu verstehen ist. Der Verfasser will lediglich aufzeichnen, wie im Verlauf praktischer Planungsarbeit auch die geographische Sicht ihren unverrückbaren Anteil geltend macht, ganz gleich, ob etwa der betreffende Ortsplaner oder Raumplaner seine Berufsgrundlage aus der Architektur, der Volkswirtschaft oder der Naturwissenschaft entlehnt und sich notwendigerweise mit den übrigen „landschaftsformenden" Fachrichtungen befreunden muß.

Schließlich ist es die Landschaft im weiteren Sinn, mit der sich der Ortsplaner zu befassen hat. Und ob nun im Landschaftsbild die künftige Stellung eines Baukörpers zu beurteilen ist oder ob eine die Ortslage durchdringende Grünfläche Anschluß mit der natürlichen Umgebung halten muß, bleibt letzten Endes eine Frage gestalterischen Vermögens und optischer Vorstellungskraft, die ohne landschaftliche Bindungen wohl kaum zu verstehen sind. Nicht umsonst pflegt die immer höhere Anforderungen stellende Orts- und Regionalplanung auch das „teamwork", um aus verschiedenen Fachrichtungen eine Arbeitsgruppe zu bilden, die den wechselreichen Wünschen und wirtschaftlichen Möglichkeiten besser entsprechen kann als der Einzelne, der in der gezwungenermaßen zu erledigenden Vielseitigkeit seine schöpferische Arbeit reduzieren muß.

Geographie und Landesplanung

C. Troll sagt: „Die Geographie ist Raumwissenschaft schlechthin, d. h. ihr besonderes Ziel ist es, das räumliche Gefüge der Landschaft und ihre räumlichen Differenzierungen zu erfassen, die vielseitigen Abwandlungen verstehen zu lernen, die sich aus der Übereinanderlagerung verschiedener Verbreitungsmuster geographischer Faktoren ergeben."

Er folgert im selben Aufsatz, daß die Geographie ihre umfassendste praktische Bedeutung in der gegenwärtigen Zeit in der Landesplanung habe [1]).

Die Situation der Geographie auf der einen Seite ist klar. Bei der Ortsplanung hingegen haben wir es mit der untersten Stufe des Planungsvorganges auf überwiegend gemeindlicher Basis zu tun. Bereits eine über die Gemeinde hinausgehende Bearbeitung, zum Beispiel die zwischengemeindliche Planung, die sich in Sonderheit mit dem gewichtigen Stadt-Umland-Problem auseinanderzusetzen hat, ist treffender mit Regionalplanung zu bezeichnen, während schließlich von übergeordneter Warte aus die Landesplanung auftritt, deren Begriff im strengeren Sinn noch einer strafferen Fassung bedarf, weil sie zu sehr auf das Verwaltungstechnische bezogen wird und eigentlich — soweit wir in Deutschland mit ihr zu tun haben — auf Landes- oder gar Bundesebene bezogen werden sollte. Dies aber nur nebenbei. Wichtig ist jedenfalls eine Trennung zwischen Orts- und Bauplanung. So ist auch *J. Göderitz* zu verstehen: „Es gilt zunächst die Raumplanung von der Bauplanung zu trennen. Dann sind die Phasen der Planung nach dem Umfang des jeweiligen Raumes und nach dem Veranlasser oder Träger auseinanderzuhalten. Ungewohnt wird vielen dabei erscheinen, daß das Wort „Städtebau" nicht mehr im Gegensatz zu Landesplanung gebraucht, sondern, daß dafür Stadt- und Ortsplanung gewählt ist. Auch die Dorfplanung ist einbegriffen [2])."

Von diesen grundsätzlichen Betrachtungen abgesehen, hat sich die geographische Literatur schon eingehend mit der Frage Geographie und Landesplanung auseinandergesetzt. Es ist hier nicht die Stelle, um erschöpfend über die einschlägige Literatur zu berichten. Nur soll der Überleitung halber noch dieser oder jener Hinweis erfolgen, um vor der übergeordneten Aufgabenstellung der Landesplanung auf die

[1]) *C. Troll,* Der Stand der geographischen Wissenschaft und ihre Bedeutung für die Aufgaben der Praxis. Forschungen und Fortschritte. Band 30, Heft 9, September 1956, S. 261.

[2]) *J. Göderitz,* Ausbildung und Eignung von Stadt- und Landesplanern. Schriften des Deutschen Verbandes für Wohnungswesen, Städtebau und Raumplanung. Nr. 12, 1956, S. 12.