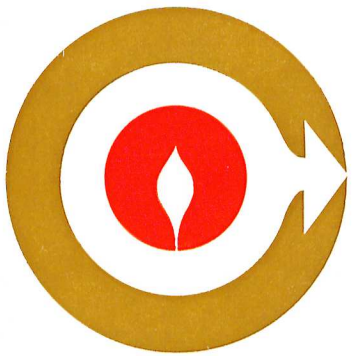


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Report of Stage Three: The Seminar-Conference Toronto August 6-16, 1967



The Centennial Study
And Training Programme
On Metropolitan Problems

Programme d'Etudes et de Stages
sur les Problèmes Métropolitains
à l'Occasion du Centenaire

THE CENTENNIAL STUDY
AND TRAINING PROGRAMME
ON METROPOLITAN PROBLEMS

BUREAU OF MUNICIPAL RESEARCH
TORONTO, CANADA

REPORT

of the

SEMINAR-CONFERENCE STAGE

held at

YORK UNIVERSITY

TORONTO, CANADA

AUGUST 6-16, 1967

Prepared by Simon Miles, Associate Director

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PREFACE

It was not the original intention of the Secretariat to publish separately a report on the Seminar-Conference stage of the Centennial Study and Training Programme on Metropolitan Problems. It was thought that material derived from discussions at the Seminar-Conference could be adequately treated by being incorporated into the findings of the entire programme which will be published in the Spring of 1969. However, we received many requests, especially from those participating in the Seminar-Conference in August, 1967, for a summary report of the discussions that took place during the ten days spent at York University. This report is in response to these requests.

It should be stressed that this report is not in the form of a proceedings: given the structure of the Seminar-Conference as described in the Introduction, we did not believe that such a format would offer the most informative presentation.

The object of this report is to indicate what the Seminar-Conference added to the original study papers and the group reviews by way of an understanding of the complex and inter-related nature of all aspects of (what we have chosen to call, for want of a better term) the comprehensive planning process in the metropolitan context. Given this objective, the presentation of the report is based upon the elemental sequence of the comprehensive planning process. This is followed by comments on what was said on the management of the metropolis. Thus, the report is a complete reshuffle of material generated at the Seminar-Conference. However, this reshuffling is consistent with the approach of the Conference which was designed to build up to an understanding of the comprehensive planning process. In this manner, the report attempts a reconciliation of the views expressed at the Seminar-Conference: something which could not be accomplished at the Seminar-Conference itself due to the lack of time between sessions.

One of the greatest problems confronting us in the writing of this report was the choice of a term to describe the on-going relationship between all systems operating in the metropolis or, more colloquially, the "ticking" of the metropolis. Different terms have been used in the past to describe what we believe to be essentially the same thing. While we would like to believe our justification of the choice of the term the "comprehensive planning process" is defensible, we realize that the problem is more one of a weakness of language than concept. As the report indicates, we have selected a term which has been used previously in many different ways. We believe that the meaning of the term as it is

used here is the broadest interpretation yet given. Certainly, the process is truly comprehensive in that it is all-embracing, and hopefully this becomes apparent in the text of the report. One point on which we are fairly confident is that the use of the adjective "comprehensive" has been extremely casual in the past in that it has been used to describe plans and planning that are by no means comprehensive. Thus, the reader of this report is urged to set aside any previous concepts of comprehensive planning. On the other hand, we do accept that another term may be as suitable, or more so, to describe what we are attempting to describe here. International and inter-disciplinary acceptance of common terminology is an area which requires a great amount of work.

It may be appropriate to make reference here to the desire to develop a permanent international body to work on metropolitan problems. Judging by the international recognition accorded the Centennial Programme, we are confident that the approach, which we utilized in attempting to come to grips with an understanding of the problems confronting our major metropolitan areas, was justified. The desire of the study groups to continue their association in the form of a new international organization provides concrete evidence of the concern for the state of the metropolitan environment and the recognition of the utility of the approach that we have adopted to date. The new association, to be known as the International Association for Metropolitan Research and Development, is already attracting the interest of other metropolitan areas. To date, six additional metropolitan areas have shown great interest in joining us in our continuing activities.

Throughout this programme, the Secretariat has received much assistance from many organizations and individuals in all parts of the world. The official co-operation of the United Nations Public Administration Division has been of particular significance. We very much appreciate the generously given and valued advice of Mr. Emil Sady of the Division. At the conference, we were honoured to have as our speaker for the closing banquet, Mr. C. V. Narasimhan, Under-Secretary-General and Chef de Cabinet of the United Nations. A summary of Mr. Narasimhan's remarks appear in this report.

However, to acknowledge all of those who have made this programme successful would require a list running many pages in length. Due acknowledgments for the entire programme will be made in the findings. Here I should prefer to simply limit my appreciation to those who directly assisted me in the preparation of this report. These include persons at the conference who were responsible for preparing the summary reports of each discussion and who worked long hours into the night to distil these into succinct statements that could be used for discussion purposes at later stages in the conference. My particular thanks are due to Meyer Brownstone and David Smith in assisting with the organization of the presentation of this report. Their comments on the draft, plus those of Dominic DelGuidice, Michael Goldrick, Emil Sady and Ernest Weissmann, proved to be most helpful. However, I do accept all responsibilities for any misinterpretations of the discussions that this report may convey to those who participated in the Seminar-Conference.

Simon Miles

Toronto, September 1968

I INTRODUCTION

1. Three "explosions" — knowledge, population, and technology — have presented our world with new problems and possibilities. The development of our cities into metropolitan areas is an organic growth made possible by the expansion of knowledge and technology. The growth has produced some benefits and has the potential for many more, but it has also sharpened conflicts, increased dangers, multiplied complexity and raised doubts about the institutional arrangements whereby men have tried to order their lives.

2. The Bureau of Municipal Research in Metropolitan Toronto decided that an appropriate way for it to celebrate Canada's Centennial in 1967 would be to initiate an international study of this phenomenon. The study was designed to produce insights, through comparative analysis, into methods of coping with the difficult, complicated, interlocking sets of problems associated with the growth of the metropolis in modern society. As a result, forty metropolitan areas around the world embarked upon, and are still engaged in, the Centennial Study and Training Programme on Metropolitan Problems. This document is a brief report on the third stage of the programme, the Seminar-Conference which met in Toronto in August of 1967.

Design of the Programme

3. The programme was organized in four stages:
- Stage I: the production of the eleven basic study papers;
 - Stage II: the preparation of the review papers by the local study groups;
 - Stage III: the Seminar-Conference;
 - Stage IV: the preparation of the findings and the follow-up by local groups.
4. Those organizing the programme considered that increased understanding, that is, new perceptions coupled with knowledge, was a prime requisite for creative solutions and that only an inter-disciplinary approach would yield such understanding. Thus, throughout the programme, such

an approach was utilized: in the selection of authors for papers; in the composition of the local groups in each participating metropolitan area; in the preparation of the review papers; and, in the organization of the Seminar-Conference sessions.

The First Two Stages

5. In the first stage, the programme was initiated by the Toronto Bureau of Municipal Research, participating groups in forty metropolitan areas in various parts of the world were brought into the study and basic study papers commissioned. In the second stage the forty study groups prepared basic information on their metropolitan areas, reviewed one of the study papers, and selected and briefed their team of six (normally) to attend the Toronto Seminar-Conference. These two stages had three objectives.

6. One objective was to provide a comparative analysis of the main problems of metropolitan areas. The authors of the eleven study papers were selected from various disciplines and different countries. (The papers were not, however, regarded as definitive.) Apart from one general paper, each of the other basic study papers dealing with a particular problem or topic was subjected to review by four study groups chosen so that differing cultural backgrounds, political systems and stages of development would be reflected in the review papers.

7. The second objective was to establish in each of the participating metropolitan areas a study group composed of representatives of various areas of specialty and different interests from the local community. These study groups were expected to initiate study in their own areas and to brief their team to be sent to the Seminar-Conference by discussion of the background papers. In addition, each study group prepared a review paper: an in-depth study of one of the basic study papers as it related to the other papers in the context of their own metropolitan area.

8. The third objective was to create the nucleus for a continuing organization engaged in the study of metropolitan problems.

The Third Phase-The Seminar-Conference

9. A memorandum to the leaders of the discussion groups, which constituted the working units of the Seminar-Conference in August, described the purpose and method of working of the groups as follows:

“The Seminar-Conference in Toronto is the third stage in the development of this programme and its main function is to extend and deepen those changes in perception without which no creative or imaginative solutions will be found. In preparation for the Seminar-Conference, participants will have read the basic study papers, assisted in preparing a review paper, and engaged in discussion of metropolitan problems within their own study group. In the process, the

participants will have learned a good deal but even more importantly will have discovered many new questions or extensions of old ones. All will have become increasingly aware that there are few experts and no ready-made answers to the issues posed by the growth of metropolitan areas.

“New questions reflect new perceptions. The purpose of the Seminar-Conference is to raise and explore new questions, new understandings, and new ways of thinking and acting on the issues involved. This may best be done in direct, face-to-face discussion and for this reason, the Toronto sessions are being held. They will bring together men and women from different disciplines, different cultures, and different social philosophies. The free exploration of these differences in experience and perception is the main purpose of the Seminar-Conference.”

10. In this way, it was hoped that the Seminar-Conference discussions would lead to a greater understanding of urban management and of the complex nature of comprehensive planning and its application in the context of the metropolis. To facilitate this understanding, it was necessary to examine first the more familiar areas: the major services required in the metropolis and the structure required to provide these services. The Phase I discussions dealt with transportation, education, housing, utilities, health and welfare, and planning, although planning could perhaps have been regarded as a structural element. Also, each of these services was considered in terms of its demands on the structural elements of governmental organization, intergovernmental relations, administration, public participation and finance. In Phase II, the discussions focussed on each of these structural elements. This provided the opportunity to consider the structure necessary to meet the demands expressed in Phase I. From these discussions the participants proceeded to a consideration of how these elements may be integrated in a comprehensive planning process (Phase III).

11. Although it was admitted that comprehensive planning was desirable, it was readily agreed that it hardly existed at the present time, and that the present process was more in the nature of an urban management process that rarely advanced beyond “ad hoc” arrangements in meeting service demands. The integration of all the structural elements was a necessity not only within the metropolis but within the nation as a whole. This provided the challenge in Phase III.

12. The composition of the discussion groups reflected the need to bring together men and women with different training and backgrounds. In each phase of the conference there were twelve discussion groups. Thus, in Phase I, two groups would focus on any one of the six topics on the services required in metropolitan areas. In Phase II, three groups would focus on any one of the four topics relating to the structural elements of the machinery that provides the services discussed in Phase I. To ensure the maximum exposure of individuals to new ideas generated at the conference, group membership was restructured between phases. Both Phases I and II commenced with respectively six and four concurrent general sessions at which the author of a paper and a panel representing the study groups which had reviewed that paper discussed in a

general way its substance. The purpose of these sessions was to provide for clarifications and corrections, and as far as possible to provide everyone with a common starting point for the detailed discussion that was to follow.

13. Two additional inputs, in the form of plenary sessions, were scheduled for the Seminar-Conference. The conference opened with a plenary address on social goals designed to indicate the quality of human society that may be achieved in a metropolitan area. The second plenary address, which preceded the discussions by all groups on comprehensive planning, was expected to provide the framework for those discussions.

14. During the Seminar-Conference, the rapporteurs, who were members of the staff of the conference, prepared reports on the findings of the discussion groups. These reports were distributed to all participants. Although it proved impossible to produce these in time for them to be reviewed fully by the Seminar-Conference as a whole, most of them were discussed and revised by the respective discussion groups and were available for general review on the final day of the Seminar-Conference together with a tentative report on comprehensive planning.

15. The physical setting and social arrangements were designed to support the discussion process. The residence facilities at York University, with its seminar rooms, dormitories and meal arrangements, provided the needed degree of isolation and informality. The conference lounge was a pleasant place for relaxed talk. The social activities arranged for all participants and for family members who were not taking part in the discussions made an additional contribution to the friendly atmosphere.

16. At every stage the design of the programme focussed on growth in understanding as a prelude to creative action, and this growth in understanding was seen as a function of an interaction process. In the preliminary stages, apart from the interaction within each study group, the papers prepared by the authors were reviewed in depth by the study groups. At the Seminar-Conference, the sessions were initiated by a further confrontation of the authors and representatives of the review groups. During the Seminar-Conference, the reports of each phase of the discussion were reproduced and made available to participants as they moved into the next phase. Within the discussion groups, participants were face-to-face with men and women from other parts of the world. The focus at the Seminar-Conference was on direct discussion, and the intense degree of involvement achieved was supplemented by written materials and by the supportive physical and social setting.

II THE DISCUSSIONS

Comprehensive Planning

17. As is explained in the Preface to this report, it was extremely difficult to define in precise terms, and even more difficult to convey vividly, the on-going relationship between all systems, operating (in this instance) in the metropolis, that contribute positively or negatively to all aspects of its development. Short of inventing a completely new term, again difficult, it was impossible to avoid some confusion over the meaning, or meanings, of the term selected.

18. The term "Comprehensive Planning" was selected prior to the Seminar-Conference by those organizing the programme. This term embraces both the on-going comprehensive planning process that constitutes the forward motion of the planning and the series of comprehensive plans that mark the stages of on-going activity. Thus, we thought that this term came nearest to meeting our needs, although not necessarily with the interpretations previously given it.

19. An initial and partial exception was the definition of a comprehensive plan as used by Ernest Weissmann in his paper on Planning and Urban Design. This definition, developed at a United Nations meeting in Stockholm in 1961, came very near to what we were seeking and, as such, provided the starting-off point for discussions in Phase III. It is appropriate to state this definition here.

"A comprehensive plan was considered to be:

a) A model of an intended future situation with respect to: i) specific economic and social activities; ii) their location within a geographic area; iii) the land required; and iv) the structures, installations and landscape which are to provide the physical environment for these activities; and, b) A programme of action and predetermined co-ordination of legislative, fiscal and administrative measures, formulated with a view to achieving the situation represented by the model."¹

However, while it was extremely helpful to have this definition to work from at the outset, it was found lacking in that it did not spell out clearly the significance of the political and administrative structure to both the model and the programme of action. This may be the product of

¹Weissmann, Ernest, *Planning and Urban Design* (Toronto: Bureau of Municipal Research, 1967), p. 40.

generalization and perhaps the definition developed in Stockholm was conceived as embracing these elements. Part a) appears to be too heavily influenced by the physical manifestation of an economic and social plan and Part b) lacks reference to the political action, especially the informal (as opposed to the formal which is implied by reference to "legislative measures"). Thus, an adjustment might be made to this definition which might be as follows:

- a) A model of an intended future situation with respect to: i) specific economic, social, political and administrative activities; ii) their location within a geographic area; iii) the resources required; and iv) the structures, installations and landscape which are to provide the physical expression, and physical environment for, these activities; and
- b) A programme of action and predetermined co-ordination of legislative, fiscal, administrative and political measures, formulated with a view to achieving the situation represented by the model.

This definition may require some further work regarding the enunciation of the scope of the comprehensive plan. However, as it stands, it applies equally well to the metropolitan situation as to the non-metropolitan situation.

20. The term "Comprehensive Planning Process", the second element of comprehensive planning, is used to describe the process that produces and implements the plan. It should be made quite clear that comprehensive planning is a continuing process involving almost constant adjustment to a "model" as it is being developed. This adjustment is made in response to "feed-back" or reactions to either proposals, or to subsequent developments (and lack of development). In this way the implementation of the plan is seen as being part of the process of further developing the plan through modification. This still recognizes management as a separately identifiable but inter-related process.

21. The comprehensive planning process, viewed simply, is seen to consist of the following elements: the development of an information base; goal formulation; plan formulation; plan implementation and plan evaluation. Again, however, these occur concurrently rather than sequentially and are knit together by a sixth element: the network of communication linking professionals in many disciplines, institutions, governments, voluntary organizations, and individual citizens.

22. To be meaningful, comprehensive planning requires the integration of political, administrative, economic, social and physical planning. This is especially true when planning is directed to basic questions such as the allocation of resources, anticipation of desired population movement, location of industries, etc. It requires that there be effective co-ordination of planning by governmental and non-governmental institutions. It also requires that the political decision-makers have good working relationships (formal and informal) with the administrators. Integrative action and an adequate knowledge base require an inter-disciplinary approach to problems involving those in the whole range of physical and social sciences. Thus, the emphasis must be on securing mutually compatible and supportive action by a wide range of organizations having different decision centres. Machinery must exist which will bring about co-ordination of governmental and non-governmental activities (e.g. social

services and location of public and private facilities) and the various activities conducted by different levels of government (e.g. education and transportation). It must also provide for the formal and informal participation by individuals, institutions, agencies and governments in the processes of defining needs and the transformation of these into policies and programmes of action.

23. Whereas everything that has been said thus far on comprehensive planning can be applied almost anywhere, it must be emphasized that the manifestation of their total interaction and application should by no means be the same universally. The adaptation of the model to local circumstances will produce many variations. The important point to make, however, is that throughout these variations, there are found the universal elements of a basic model.

24. Having said this much on comprehensive planning by way of introduction, we are now in a better position to examine each aspect of comprehensive planning in greater detail. First, it is necessary to look at the spatial framework within which comprehensive planning is applied to the metropolis.

A) THE METROPOLITAN COMPREHENSIVE PLANNING UNIT

25. Given the framework of this report, any comment on discussion of the definition of the operational unit for comprehensive planning of the metropolis should more properly follow that on the information base. For it is not until adequate information is available that the area can be defined. However, the constant reference to this unit throughout the report indicates that it may be better discussed out of context here. As the reader will observe, although the focus of interest is the metropolitan unit, this cannot be discussed without consideration being given to the non-metropolitan units.

26. The concept of the metropolis varied in many peoples' minds, and two divergent views can be differentiated. One is that of the metropolis as the primate and "mother city" in which could be found a variety of services unlikely to be found elsewhere in the same country. Because it is the primate city, it dominates the country's politics, economy and social life. The fact that there tends to be only one such metropolis in any one country gives special character to its problems and to the way these problems should be approached. The metropolis is commonly conceived not just as the built-up area but a more abstract phenomenon with extensive spatial influence. The concept appeared to be built of activity patterns superimposed upon one another and whereas some influences or activities are of international significance, others are less extensive and provide a more tangible measure of the sphere of influence, e.g. commuting patterns. This was the concept of metropolis defined in more "scientific" terms of which much was said in Paper No. 2.²

27. The other concept of the metropolis is that of a major urban centre, but not necessarily limited to the primate city. Again, the metropolis is seen as a service centre but generally servicing only a region of the country. More important, the metropolis appears to be a more tangible

²Gorynski, Juliusz and Rybicki, Zygmunt, *The Functional Metropolis and Systems of Government* (Toronto: Bureau of Municipal Research, 1967), Ch. 1.

entity identified by a "container" — that is, it has a clear-cut boundary, for example, of a statistical unit or a political unit. This concept appears to have been developed from a general over-view of a relatively large number of metropolitan centres in any one country. For example, the Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area unit provides a definitive unit in the U.S.A. but while this conveys an image of a physical entity, it in no way conveys an image of a great centre of power as does the image of the primate city.

28. The most important point to make here is that the lack of terminological distinctions and a significant basis for differentiating between areas has led to confusion regarding the comparability of metropolitan areas. In fact, any two metropolitan areas of comparable size tend to have many problems in common, although the state of technology will greatly influence the intensity of the problem. However, perhaps because these two concepts represent only the two ends of the spectrum, it is understandable that modified versions of each were held by persons from different parts of the world. (This emerged in definitions given in the Reference Handbook on Metropolitan Areas³ issued at the conference.) With nearly all participants coming from centres of well over one million population, and many of these being primate cities, there was a tendency to favour a spatial unit for the comprehensive planning of the metropolis which would be based upon the metropolitan sphere of influence.

29. This emerged as the concept of the city region or, with large areas, the metropolitan region — an amalgamation of the two concepts outlined above and one which had been proposed by Dr. Weissmann.⁴ The reader of this report is referred to paragraphs 70 to 84 of Dr. Weissmann's paper for an elaboration of the city region concept. To summarize here, Weissmann illustrates how, for purposes of development planning, the region has become more acceptable as an operative unit for both a country with a centrally-planned economy seeking to overcome some of the difficulties inherent in detailed planning from the centre and for a country with a market economy in which planning is mainly local and urban and in which there is a growing awareness of the necessity to expand the "master plan" at least to cover the area directly influenced by, and in turn influencing, the city's development (i.e. the metropolitan region).

30. Thus, in each of these situations there emerges conceptually the picture of a nation-wide system of regions with developmental functions. Urban agglomeration is assumed to be basic to the developmental function and thus these regions are seen as being city regions. This applies whether the urban centres are large or small. (The use of the word "city" in the term "city region" should not be seen as a misnomer.) It is important that the concept is seen as establishing the "ground rules for a process (rather than a community or "regional" plan) of productive interplay among the mainstreams of development in order to produce a human condition (or "state of being") which is progressively improving as a

result of the effect of economic, social and environmental progress on each other and a result of their total contribution to human development".⁵ Weissmann concludes that what is needed is an environmental unit and a socio-economic unit reflecting the activity patterns that in turn reflect the daily lives of the bulk of metropolitan inhabitants in the world today.

31. While this interpretation hints at why it was relatively easy to reach consensus internationally, it also raises another issue that bears significantly upon the question of size and role of the unit for comprehensive metropolitan planning; that is, the planning unit devised for the metropolis must be considered as part of a system of regional planning units for the country as a whole. For while it was generally accepted that a national urban policy is required, and that metropolitan areas may require special consideration (and indeed that at least one metropolis of significant size is desirable), it was also readily agreed that the (same) national urban policy should encourage a viable environment in small cities and, in large countries, the diffusion of urban growth. Recognition of the fact that the metropolitan area is not the only region of concern and that there is a need for balanced development emerges in different approaches to the drawing of metropolitan regional boundaries. Countries with centrally-planned economies tend to restrain the growth of the metropolitan centres and encourage the growth of the smaller centres. (This is especially well-developed in Poland where growth centres fit a clear pattern or hierarchy of service centres.) Although the boundaries of the metropolitan planning area are designed for future growth, they do not anticipate unlimited growth. Countries with market economies are forced to give greater consideration to the political dominance of the metropolis as well as economic factors in approaching problems of rapid metropolitan growth. Thus, even if the metropolis is given expression as a political entity, there is a tendency to restrict its authority to the built-up area or, if for a wide area, the powers of the metropolitan authority are weakened by various devices. Although political restraints may slow down the growth of the metropolis, they are not as effective as a national urban policy backed up by physical planning and by economic and social measures to guide urban growth on a nation-wide basis.

32. Before leaving the subject of the size of the metropolitan region, mention should be made of other forces that play a part in dictating its size. The political boundaries of the metropolitan authority should be as extensive as the area of urban growth and its rural environs if financial equity is regarded as a goal. The larger the area of jurisdiction, the greater the degree of equity that may be achieved. This tends to apply whether the concern is for spreading out (geographically) the impact of the property tax (which, in many instances, is the major source of revenue for financing what are, in fact, regional services), or for ensuring that the commuter pays his share towards the upkeep of central city services, or, inversely, for ensuring that the city merchant does not harbour an undue share of the profits from his trade with those in the trade area of the metropolis. Again, the need for fiscal autonomy of the metropolis was seen as calling for a large region, although this should be regarded as a more flexible demand than the others listed here.

⁵*Ibid.*, p. 45.

³Bureau of Municipal Research, *Reference Handbook on Metropolitan Areas* (Toronto: Bureau of Municipal Research, 1967).

⁴Weissmann, *op. cit.*, pp. 39-48.

33. Also calling for large metropolitan regions is the indication that public nuisances are more easily controlled by a single authority. This is probably borne out very well with reference to crime. Although the problem of air pollution was often mentioned, it was thought that the spatial scale of operation involved indicated an intergovernmental approach to the problem rather than just an expansion of the metropolitan unit. In the discussions on intergovernmental relations, however, the view was expressed that, for simplicity of dealings between governments, an expansion of their territorial size and a consequent reduction of their numbers would go a long way to improving the present problems arising from the sheer multiplicity of bodies involved. Also expressed was the generally-felt need for an urban deconcentration policy, as part of the broader national urban policy. Such a policy should be intimately related to a policy concerning the desired size of metropolitan areas. It is quite conceivable for deconcentration to take place within the metropolitan region. However, this should be accompanied by a supportive nation-wide policy. For example, the deconcentration around Paris, Tokyo and London is being backed up by a policy for deconcentration (from any given metropolis) on a national scale. The point to be emphasized here is that to draw the line (for purposes of establishing the limits of the metropolitan region) between deconcentration taking place within the immediate sphere of influence of the metropolis and that taking place further afield, may be not only arbitrary but also difficult in practice unless there is a clear-cut physical, social and economic differentiation between satellite towns and new centres of growth. Certainly, however, the socio-economic region of a metropolis and its satellite towns would call for a very large spatial unit.

34. By way of contrast, a smaller metropolitan unit, or one constituted of relatively small, coherent units, was generally felt to be desirable to encourage greater participation in metropolitan affairs. This stems partly from the often-repeated need to encourage popular identity with a body-politic which itself requires a tangible territorial base (the most satisfactory being the relatively small unit of the built-up area). There is also the need to facilitate the active participation of citizens in the policy-making and programming of action (frequently found in developed countries) and in the implementation of plans (of more interest, although not necessarily extensively followed up, in developing countries). This requirement can be met with a two-tier metropolitan government structure which permits the metropolitan-wide body to be very extensive.

35. Another factor is the area required for efficient administration of most services. Generally speaking, most discussions on the scale of operation for services favoured an efficient unit that would contain within its boundaries the area benefitting from a given service and which could also retain the flexibility of extending beyond the present built-up area as required. There was a general feeling that the single tier of metropolitan government would prove adequate for this, although at the same time, it was recognized that different services may have different areas of optimum efficiency. What was not satisfactorily answered is the need to allow for future growth. Under what circumstances should the growth take place within the present boundaries (thus permitting greater control of growth); or, under what circumstances should the boundaries move

out with the growth? There was much talk of flexibility, and generally this was interpreted to reflect support for arrangements to extend the boundary of the metropolitan authority with the area of urban growth.

36. This raised the core issue of the criteria that should be used for the precise determination of the limits of the comprehensive planning unit. This proved to be a most difficult problem. The reference to the commuter "watershed" above presents one of the more easily identifiable units. Apart from this, the area of optimum efficiency of services proved to be of greatest potential as a yardstick. However, although discussion took place on the utilization of cost-benefit techniques to measure the area of efficiency of operation, it was generally concluded that the technique is poorly developed to date. On the other hand, it was encouraging to note the optimism with which delegates viewed prospects in this field and there was a strong plea for further research to develop these techniques.

37. Other aspects of the structure of government are taken up again later in this report. Suffice to say here, in summary, that the concept of the city region as applied to the metropolis (i.e. metropolitan region) seemed to gain additional support as the unit for metropolitan comprehensive planning when the specific requirements of services and structure of government were examined in detail.

B) THE COMPREHENSIVE PLANNING PROCESS

38. The previously quoted definition of comprehensive planning, with some adjustments, provides a suitable format for presenting the Seminar-Conference discussions on the comprehensive planning process. This covers discussion of: the development of an information base; the communication network; goal formulation; plan formulation; plan implementation; and, plan evaluation.

i) DEVELOPING AN INFORMATION BASE

39. The development of a satisfactory information base is essential to the planning process and, as such, can be regarded as part of the process. All agreed that the present information base is extremely inadequate in most countries. This, in large part, explains the inability to plan comprehensively. The greater the information gap, the greater the need for a flexible plan to permit adjustment upon the receipt of further information. While the principle of up-dating and flexibility is sound, an **overly** flexible plan loses the basic quality of serving as a reliable guide. Also, without information, there is often a lack of awareness of actual social and economic needs.

40. More factual information is required on human, physical and economic resources. Social indicators have yet to be developed to match the relatively satisfactory economic indicators. Social accounting has to be put on the priority list for further development if we are to replace the present system of accounting for social productivity through economic accounting. As Professor Bertram Gross pointed out in his plenary address, "in accordance with the high principles of national economic accounting today, building a jail is productive, training teachers is not productive. Teacher training is social consumption. . . ."

41. There is also the need to reconsider the breakdown of factual information. Territorial and sectoral breakdowns should recognize and utilize the comprehensive planning unit of the metropolis. Thus, it was considered highly desirable that statistical units coincide with such units. The utilization of computer techniques for the collection, storage, retrieval and presentation of small-area data was recognized as assisting in remedying this problem.

42. An important point is the need for more information, albeit of a less factual nature, on attitudes, since these play such an important part in policy-forming and the decision-making process. Little time, however, was spent on discussing the systematic development of attitudinal surveys or of the new techniques being evolved in gaming simulation.

ii) DEVELOPING A COMMUNICATION NETWORK

43. Although the need for planners to communicate with the general public is sometimes seen as a problem of information — information, for the planner, on the people's needs; and information, for the people, on the planner's proposals and the reasons for them — the problem is really more subtle and complex. In addition the planners need to know what each is doing, and the different groups among the "people" need to understand what their various interests are. As a matter of fact, in the formulation of goals, of plans, and in the implementation and evaluation of plans, the better the level and quality of communication in every direction, the better the planning.

44. How this is to be achieved is not so readily apparent. Certainly there should be opportunities for hearings when the proposals of planners are given an airing in public. There are also other ways of organizing "feed-back" and to be effective, the "feed-back" must be organized. This may be done through many voluntary organizations, labour unions, citizen organizations, and voluntary organizations in health, welfare, education and recreation. An example was quoted of a city with eighty groups which participated in the process of examining the city's transportation problems. This seemingly unorganized participation can be self-defeating.

45. The mass media, skilfully used, can make a most useful contribution. Specific reference was made to the use of television by the Regional Plan Association in New York to conduct a metropolitan-wide survey. Although this "Goals for the Region" project utilized 5,600 citizens, considerable difficulty was encountered in getting the participation of a representative cross-section of metropolitan New York, i.e. in bringing in minority groups. The mass media may also be expected to create a general interest in civic affairs and in establishing an identity with the metropolitan area or body-politic which may be of assistance in developing a better general understanding of the nature of metropolitan problems. Many considered that the newspapers have a potentially far greater and more useful role in this matter than they now play.

46. The professionals also need to develop more and better methods of communicating with one another. In addition to conferences on metropolitan issues, more might be done in the way of exchange visits of experts between metropolitan areas. Another proposal, under consideration in the U.S.A. at the time of the conference, was that of urban

"observatories" which would utilize, in an organized manner, the resources of universities to assist governments in surveying urban problems. This was also seen as an information source of great potential.

47. The public authorities, including the universities, could also play a large role within this communication network. The universities are a major information resource and both they and the public authorities have a responsibility for public education, the facilities for carrying out this responsibility, and general acceptance from the public for implementing this role.

48. In part springing from Prof. Gross' address, there was a strong plea for a greater research effort to increase the information base. This research should extend beyond national boundaries to draw upon international experience and the wealth of ideas that already exists. Co-operation in international research programmes was seen as a way in which the study of particular needs of one area could benefit from, and contribute to, the work in other areas. The obvious need, however, was seen to be the organization of such programmes and the development of an international communication network. It is envisaged that these are two of the real values of the International Association for Metropolitan Research and Development that is now being developed as a result of proposals emanating from this Seminar-Conference. The association also expects to be well-suited to aid in the development of both national and international data banks. It was proposed that a central source of research and data on metropolitan issues be available to communities throughout the world and that this be funded by governments and foundations. The fact that the member groups represent many of those requiring an improved information base should prove to be of assistance in determining precisely what is required. (One small contribution being made by the Secretariat is to improve the Reference Handbook on Metropolitan Areas, prepared especially for the Seminar-Conference.)

iii) GOAL FORMULATION

49. The development of an extensive information base and communication network greatly assists in goal formulation. Although it is possible to observe empirically much of what is desirable, it is virtually impossible to estimate how far removed the desired condition is from the present. The same applies in giving expression to those needs, which is required as part of the process of plan formulation.

50. The fate of the metropolis is of national concern and goals affecting the metropolis are national goals or societal goals. There seemed to be almost universal agreement on this point. Society's basic goal is to improve the conditions and well-being of its members. Urban society, being part of a national society, should strive to achieve economic growth as equalized as possible throughout the nation. Life in the large or the small city must be an enriching experience for all.

51. Within this context, it was recognized that more specific goals should be expressed for the metropolitan environments. However, both territorial goals and sectoral goals should be in concord with national needs at all times and their attainment should be recognized as being subservient to the attainment of national goals. Thus, while a goal of a transporta-

tion system may be to move goods and persons, this is not an end in itself. The aim is to do this in such a way as to improve the well-being of the individual and society as a whole.

52. It had been proposed to the discussion groups that goal formulation was a product of "interest-based planning". This process requires the planners to make available resources and information to those persons, groups and institutions charged with formulating goals. Although the planners should be involved in producing goals, they should not assume sole responsibility for this. Goals should arise out of the interplay of various factions of society as provided for in the institutional arrangements of that society. The planners may have a significant role to play in this process in that they attempt to reconcile competing interests into a coherent (and consensual) whole. Individual demands and societal needs have to be adjusted one to another. It is, however, the institutionalization of interplay, especially in the final stages, that results in the decision as to "who wins" from interest-based planning being decided in a council or its equivalent. Given this process, the consensual goals called for by Professor Frank Smallwood⁶ seem easier to achieve. However, there were some reservations expressed as to whether society's real needs would emerge from the interplay of a number of interest groups which were not necessarily representative of that society. This point appears valid since, although in theory the decision of a legislative body is representative as a decision, the proposals put to the legislative body may not have reflected society's needs. Also, the council may not be representative.

53. The need for a national urban policy was discussed at length. The need grows out of the recognition of the high social costs incurred in instances of unrestricted growth unrelated to national needs and the fact that the fortunes of nations are closely related to those of their major cities. While it was agreed that the degree of detail of national urban policy planning would vary according to the size of the country, the need for national guidance was paramount. There appeared to be an obvious feeling that although metropolitan areas may be regarded as the power houses supplying the national grid, they were nevertheless not producing satisfactorily. There was a similar dissatisfaction with the social conditions of the metropolis. The key features of a national urban policy emerged from the discussions. In directing itself to the prime goals, the national urban policy would provide clear direction on: the political and administrative decision-making structure; industrial location; urban (de)concentration (matters relating to choice of growth poles, new towns, or satellite centres); the optimum size of urban centres to ensure adequate provision of cultural, social and physical requirements; manpower training (including the training of rural migrants for urban jobs); the attainment of fiscal equity among metropolitan areas and in relation to rural areas; the establishment of national minima for services; population and immigration; co-ordination of planning; research on urban matters, etc. In a federal state, certain of these directives would be issued by the provincial or state governments. Within the context of the national urban policy, the metropolitan goals could then be locally determined. Some issues relating to

which the metropolitan region would have to establish goals are: 1) level of employment; 2) standard of housing; 3) education and cultural provision; 4) optimum utilization of all services (e.g. the public transportation system); 5) overall land-use pattern; 6) overall density of population. The expression of goals as incorporated into a comprehensive plan will be discussed next.

iv) PLAN FORMULATION

54. In general terms, the answer to "what appears in the comprehensive plan for the metropolitan region?" has already been given in the definition of the plan. Here we shall look in greater depth at some of the points of major concern: the expression of goals in the plan; requirements of the plan in terms of space, infrastructure and resources; and the programming of action for the implementation of the plan.

The expression of goals in the plan

55. Goals, while they can be stated in general terms, have to be given concrete expression in the plan. In the metropolitan region plan they must be stated in terms of regional needs. There was a strong feeling that standards have to be set up as targets. These should be expressed in both quantitative and qualitative terms. However, there was also a strong caveat against the setting of standards that are unrealistic for the metropolitan region in question. Thus, international standards were generally ruled out — although an exception to this is certain health standards. Nation-wide standards, however, were accepted in general in recognition of their impact on the attainment of nation-wide balanced economic, physical and social development. Naturally, this would have to take into consideration the varying intensity of use made of services and for this reason it would be necessary to have higher standards, in metropolitan areas, of such services as transportation. As to how the standards should be arrived at, this depends very much on the service in question. In part, it is a process of measuring demand (especially where choice exists as in the case of transportation). Professor Kain's paper on transportation⁷ dealt at some length with the use of techniques for measuring consumer demand. In other cases, supply may have to be taken into account. This is the case with housing of which there appears to be a universal shortage.⁸ It was in the discussions on housing, where the needs appear most desperate, that discussion of standards was reduced to discussion of socio-economic possibilities. Because of the need to provide such basic requirements as food and capital for other services, the realization of socio-economic possibilities of housing is very limited. It is a situation such as this that brings home more forcibly than others cited, the need to consider all social, physical, economic and cultural needs in an integrated manner rather than independently. Decisions resulting from such considerations are obviously affected by societal values which will be discussed shortly.

56. The use of cost-benefit analyses was discussed as they apply to the determination of housing standards and, as has been mentioned before, the undeveloped potential for this technique was recognized.

⁷Kain, John F., *Metropolitan Area Transportation* (Toronto: Bureau of Municipal Research, 1967), see appendices.

⁸Sazanami, Hidehiko, *Housing in Metropolitan Areas* (Toronto: Bureau of Municipal Research, 1967), Ch. 2.

⁶Smallwood, Frank, *Government Administration and the Political Process* (Toronto: Bureau of Municipal Research, 1967).

57. Other considerations pertaining to standards were brought out in the discussion of utilities. The delegates agreed with Professor Hanson that utilities should be provided on the basis of economic cost.⁹ While the social responsibility of a utility was recognized, it should be compensated in its operations if it achieves certain social objectives. Naturally, policy regarding the social aspects of utilities very much affects the standards of services incorporated in the plan. Other problems pertaining to the setting of standards arise from the present inadequacy of the information base. This came out in the discussions on health and welfare standards.¹⁰ Without adequate proof of the effect of environmental pollutants on man, the establishment of standards for environmental conditions can be challenged as being somewhat arbitrary. Indeed, it might simply be a question of aesthetics. Unfortunately, there was no discussion as to whether aesthetic consideration can be considered sufficient grounds on which to establish standards (health standards or otherwise).

58. Qualitative considerations, such as these, and the earlier reference to societal values, bring to the fore the question of value formation, which obviously underlies the goal formulation and the setting of standards. For this reason, the discussions on the key role of education were of particular interest. It should be noted that curriculum was not discussed in Professor Philp's paper on education¹¹, since the Secretariat had been concerned that all attention might have been diverted to this one feature of education. We must acknowledge that this may have been a mistake, since the importance of the curriculum became quite clear in the Seminar-Conference discussions. It seems, however, that the impact of curriculum on metropolitan problems was well aired.

59. An educational curriculum oriented to either the economic, cultural or social goals of society, but not to all equally, will produce a similar imbalance in the outlook and values of the children in the educational system. Unfortunately, such a choice may have to be made between these value orientations in countries with limited resources. Delegates from Ibadan illustrated this problem clearly with reference to their own situation. In Ibadan, as in many other areas represented in the programme, there is a need to provide, in rural and urban areas, a uniform quality of education and at the same time, produce technicians with higher skills than are normally provided in the public education system. Should funds be limited at the primary level to provide funds for secondary education in specialized fields? If so, at what stage in the development can the emphasis on vocational training be decreased and that on education of a more general nature be increased?

60. While no direct answers were forthcoming to these questions, it was recognized that this problem was national rather than metropolitan. To achieve a fair degree of national uniformity of standards, a higher authority (probably the central government) must assume responsibility for

overall regulation as well as a role in financing the educational system. Yet, there was a reluctance to see this regulation as the sole responsibility of a senior government. Within this structure, the metropolis must be permitted the flexibility to meet its special requirements (made of it through the presence of minority groups of all types). Again, the potential of providing special schools with the economies of scale that operate in a metropolis should be maximized. Just how to resolve the generally-felt pluralistic demands of the metropolis with the need for centralized regulation and financing was not fully answered in the discussions on education, even though the issue was posed by Professor Philp in his paper.¹² This problem will be discussed in greater detail in a later section of this report.

Spatial requirements

61. Since the discussions on the concept of the metropolitan region have been treated in considerable detail earlier in this report, it will suffice to mention here only the key dictates affecting the spatial requirements of a comprehensive metropolitan plan.

62. Strictly speaking, the determination of the territorial unit for planning programmes is part of the planning process and, from a national perspective, is an essential step in the allocation of planning space. One of the basic reasons why comprehensive planning rarely exists at the present time is that the allocation of planning space should be, but generally is not, a joint responsibility of all levels of government. In many countries, mainly those with market economies, the national government is unwilling to play its role since this requires recognition of, among other things, the metropolis as a political entity. But if comprehensive metropolitan planning is to exist there must be recognition of the metropolitan socio-economic unit. As has been mentioned, it seemed to be generally accepted that, for planning purposes, the home-work journey activity pattern provides the best indicator of the spatial extent of the metropolitan socio-economic unit.

63. Both the metropolitan area rate of growth and technological improvements in modes of transport affect the delineation of the commuter watershed. The national plan should assume prime responsibility for the general character of metropolitan growth and some responsibility for modes of technology utilized for transportation. However, the prime concern for the impact of technology in this instance, expressed by the form of transportation used for the home-work trip, should be with the metropolitan region plan. Certainly, some metropolitan transportation services are part of a national network. (This is obviously so with railways and to some extent with roads.) Rapid-transit rail services, on the other hand, are much more obviously the concern of the metropolitan plan. This is necessary if the public is to have an opportunity to express its preferences for one type of service over another, since a choice is made not only on the basis of available technologies but also on what can be afforded. Discussion of this latter point will be treated more fully when considering infrastructural requirements.

64. All this points to the fact that in most countries (exceptions being city states), at least two levels of government have a major role in

¹²*Ibid.*, especially p. 16 ff.

⁹Hanson, A. H., *Utilities* (Toronto: Bureau of Municipal Research, 1967), pp. 64-65.

¹⁰Bakács, Tibor, *Public Health Problems in Metropolitan Areas* (Toronto: Bureau of Municipal Research, 1967), and Rose, Albert, *Welfare Services in Metropolitan Areas* (Toronto: Bureau of Municipal Research, 1967).

¹¹Philp, Hugh, *Education in the Metropolis* (Toronto: Bureau of Municipal Research, 1967).

influencing the size of the commuter-watershed — itself a major criterion in the delineation of the comprehensive metropolitan planning unit. It is up to the national government to take the leading part. While that national government must give recognition to the metropolis, there seemed to be general agreement that the concentration of almost all urban development in a single metropolis was usually undesirable from other points of view and that it would prove salutary if the national government were to create counter-magnets by developing certain other cities to metropolitan size and quality of environmental services. This would simultaneously solve the problem of the dominance of one very powerful body at the metropolitan level. It is in the creation of counter-magnet centres for development that the application of central place theory becomes pertinent. Theoretically, each centre selected for such development could be regarded as the central place of the city-region or planning space. Just as the size of the planning space is proportionate to the size of its central place, so also are the distances between the central places (or counter-magnets). A national pattern of centres thus emerges. Each centre, in turn, has its own system of sub-centres around it and, if necessary, these sub-centres can perform the role of planning space centres of a smaller scale.

65. Thus, the relationship between a national system of city-regions and the national responsibility for allocation of planning space is clearly brought out. Perhaps it is Poland where this has been best developed to date. Indeed, it was in the paper by Professors Gorynski and Rybicki¹³ that the spatial demands of the administrative and political machinery of the metropolis were elaborated upon. However, for purposes of simplicity in presenting this report, comments on their proposals will be presented with discussions of the comprehensive planning machinery.

Infrastructural requirements

66. A seemingly universal problem confronting major metropolitan areas is the inadequate investment in infrastructure, a problem heightened by the equally obvious disparities that exist among areas within the metropolis. This is best seen in terms of infrastructural investment per capita. For example, despite economies of scale, areas of high-density population (daytime or night time) tend to suffer from an inadequate per capita investment. One such manifestation of this is the high-density slum area with its very much over-used facilities. It is unfortunate that the association between high population density (in terms of land area) and poor living conditions, has become so widely accepted. High-density living conditions “per se” need not result in poor living conditions. The distinction has to be made between population density in terms of land area and population density in terms of each or all of the different elements of urban infrastructure, the more important of which are power facilities, drainage facilities, fixed transportation facilities and, included with this definition, buildings.¹⁴ Because this distinction is generally not made, and the inadequate infrastructural investment is often seen as a low investment in terms of population per unit area of land, the approach to the problem of poor living conditions has generally been to increase the per capita investment ratio by deconcentration of population, i.e. moving people out

to rural areas or to new towns. While these new towns may provide adequate facilities, this approach has to be seen more as one of diluting the ills of the metropolis, rather than tackling the problem at its source.

67. This should not be interpreted to mean that new towns were ruled as being unacceptable; they were not. It was felt, however, that new investment in infrastructure is not always concentrated where it is needed. There should be an attempt to improve living conditions and maintain present densities, not merely to keep the central areas “alive”, but also to counteract the extremely high costs of deconcentration. This is particularly so in developing countries, where such costs tend to be prohibitive. In these countries it is usually preferable to invest more in the existing centres. Where so many services are being over-used at the present time (e.g. the Tokyo transportation services are estimated to be operating at 300% capacity at times), the problem becomes a question of priorities.

68. Which services should be improved first? There was general agreement that the need for basic shelter took top priority. This need, as with the basic infrastructural requirements with which it is related, is much more marked in the developing countries. The approach to the housing problem requires consideration, not only of the need to capitalize on existing services and to maximize productivity of land, but also of the minimum needs of the individual and his ability to pay for these needs. The approach which tends to satisfy the former requirements is to build upwards rather than outwards. This approach, however, has given rise to problems in some areas where high-rise housing has been found unacceptable. Instances have arisen whereby tenants would not move into dwellings “in the sky”. This provides very good evidence of the need for a stronger information base — in this case information on popular attitudes, as referred to earlier. Another basic approach tends to meet the latter requirements of the individual, rather more than it does those of economic productivity of land and services. This involves the provision of the minimum necessary amount of private (internal) living space and a compensating maximum amount of public (external) space which is communal.

69. It was generally agreed, however, that either approach required large-scale development if schemes were to be comprehensive and that this, in time, required either nationalization of land or the exercising, by the municipal authorities, of powers of expropriation. More will be said on land requirements in a later section.

70. Deconcentration of population also requires the concomitant deconcentration of jobs. This again is extremely difficult to achieve, especially in developing countries, precisely because of the high infrastructural investment required to make such a move attractive to, and productive for, industry and commerce.

71. The Japanese approach to this problem is of interest. The theory maintained is that conditions can best be improved in the metropolis if land uses are separated. This separation of functions obviously demands a very good communication network between land-use zones. Thus, investment in metropolitan transportation is seen as being of high priority.

¹³Gorynski and Rybicki, *op. cit.*, see especially Chs. 3 and 4.

¹⁴Sazanami, *op. cit.*, Ch. 3.

72. The case of Japan also provides us with a good example of the approach to the apparent dilemma that emerges when one proposes both concentration within the metropolis and also the building up of counter-magnets as was referred to earlier in this report. The Japanese approach is to develop the counter-magnets (such as Nagoya) in the context of the larger metropolitan region. That is, the desired aim is to concentrate activities of the Nagoya metropolitan region within the built-up area of Nagoya. Infrastructural development is therefore designed to further this aim. Thus, for the larger region to prosper, Nagoya must prosper and all the efforts of the region are concentrated in Nagoya. This in turn helps to develop Nagoya as a counter-magnet to Tokyo.

73. However, the heavy capital investment required for development of infrastructure calls for very careful programme budgeting. Whereas urban areas in some countries, such as the United States, may plan for obsolescence, participants from underdeveloped countries felt that this approach to them would be a waste of resources. This pointed to a desire on the part of these participants to support heavy initial investment in infrastructure that would last a relatively longer period of time. Naturally, it is the funding of this heavy initial investment in, say, housing that proves to be the greatest problem. On techniques of reducing the costs of housing, some interesting comments were made to the effect that while the building industry might be efficient, nowhere was there evidence of an actual reduction of costs, and increase in standards, in the production of dwelling units.

74. The foregoing has an impact on the structure of metropolitan government. The enormous costs involved in making any investment in infrastructure, plus the area-wide nature of so many services, often call for the acceptance of service responsibilities by a metropolitan-wide governmental body. This could be either a single-purpose or multi-purpose body, although, providing the services were satisfactory, there was a general favouring of the multi-purpose body. The only justification offered for single-purpose bodies is that they may be politically more acceptable and may be a step toward the formation of multi-purpose bodies. Contradicting this view, however, was that experience tends to indicate that the existence of single-purpose bodies generally makes reform more difficult to achieve at a later date.

75. Another argument in favour of the multi-purpose body is that it facilitates the establishment of priorities between services. It has already been stressed that all urban services should be regarded only as means to achieving societal goals and that an excellent service is not an end in itself. A multi-purpose body can help retain this perspective, which tends to get lost with a single-purpose arrangement. It is this latter situation that may result in a transportation or water authority attempting to dictate future direction of development. Again, there is always the need to consider the entire system of a service rather than part of a system on its own. Transportation provides the best example of this. As Professor Kain's paper pointed out, there is a tendency for too much attention to be given to the main haul of a transportation system (e.g. the rail car portion of a rapid-transit system) and not enough to the feeder and distribution elements (generally motor vehicles) at either end of the main

haul. This shortsightedness naturally negates the utility of, in this case, the main haul of the system. In summary, therefore, the co-ordinated provision of any one service and the integration of service priorities in terms of planning and financing to meet the desired goals of society are facilitated through a multi-purpose body as opposed to single-purpose bodies.

Resource requirements

76. A major element in the formulation of plans is to ensure the adequate supply of resources necessary for the development and implementation of the plan. These resources fall into the general categories of physical, human and financial resources. This report is limited to discussion of these resources as they pertain to the development of the metropolis.

77. **Physical resources.** The only physical resource to be discussed here is land and, as such, discussion of land as a natural resource is excluded. Also excluded, therefore, is discussion of the natural products of land: wood and minerals, as used for construction materials or power; and food. The suitable utilization of construction materials or power were discussed in the context of their relationship to infrastructural requirements. The planning of the production of these resources, and of food, are part of the comprehensive national plan within the context of which one should view the comprehensive planning of the metropolis.

78. As a resource, land is, with few exceptions, relatively static. Land cannot be produced easily nor can it be expended. Exceptions to the rule obviously do exist; the best examples being the production of land through the creation of polders in the Netherlands, and the loss of land through coastal and riverine erosion experienced in all parts of the world. However, despite this relatively static supply, the demand for land in metropolitan areas increases as economies expand.

79. Thus, the problem facing those devising a metropolitan area land-use policy is to increase the productivity of existing land. Essentially, this involves determining the optimum use of the land and providing conditions that make that usage possible. Determining optimum use presents many problems, with both the market economy and the planned economy having their drawbacks. Again, theoretically, under such conditions any increase in demand for land by any one sector of the economy would result in an overall change of land values and a considerable shuffling of land uses. Although the land-use pattern is not that sensitive to changes in land values and the market has generally had to operate within the strictures of some controls, considerable wastage of buildings and infrastructure has been experienced because of the volatile nature of the land market in areas where competition for land is strong.

80. In a planned economy, optimum use may be nearer to being achieved in that there exists a far more effective system of control of land-use through the nationalization of land and that this is backed up by a system that can ensure development according to the land-use plan. However, without a market mechanism it is impossible to know whether the land-use plan is optimal in economic terms. It was recognized that cost-benefit analysis could replace the "market" as an indicator. Mention should be made here, therefore, of the techniques being developed in Poland in

this field. The replanning of Skopje in Yugoslavia, provided the testing ground for the "threshold" optimization technique developed by the Polish planners working on that United Nations mission. The technique involves cost-benefit studies of different land-use patterns. It is understood, however, that the technique suffers the normal problems in that it is underdeveloped in the social accounting aspects. However, since this technique is now being applied in Warsaw, it should be possible to refine it as experience is gained.

81. The determination of the optimum use of land in a metropolitan area and the metropolitan land-use plan that emerges from this process, must take into consideration the same factors, whatever the system utilized. These are the physical factors of availability of land according to location and size of land parcels — which will obviously be subject to technological changes with the requirements of expansion. There are the economic factors of the existing uses and services in the metropolitan area and also the costs of providing additional services. There are also the social factors which will affect such decisions as the broad patterns of land-use, the relationship of one use to another and how much land should be given over to any one use. Also to be taken into consideration may be certain existing restraints, such as the use of land for revenue purposes. Apparent conflicts that might arise between, say, the existing transportation system pointing to a linear development, and the socially desirable pattern of small communities, can only be reconciled in terms of the goals set.

82. Once the allocation of land-use is decided upon, it is necessary to ensure availability of land and provide a means by which land may be acquired. These two elements were generally considered to be closely related. The discussions on housing generally concluded that nationalization (or at least intermittent expropriation) of land was necessary if large tracts were to be assembled thus enabling large scale and economical housing developments to take place. However, the same would apply to other land uses. While it was recognized that nationalization of land solved many problems, it was readily accepted that this measure was not essential for all land.

83. There was reference to the Land Bank that had been started in Peru. In this instance, the Peruvian government has acquired about 20% of total developable land in the country. There are areas that have been set aside for occupancy by low-income people, and measures have been devised to encourage individuals to improve their own conditions. The land naturally remains in governmental ownership. There was also reference to the use of the land bank system in parts of North America.

84. Powers of expropriation were thought to be essential to all levels of government and should be incorporated into planning legislation. With a properly developed comprehensive plan, there should be no conflict between governments as a result of several levels of government exercising powers of expropriation in a metropolis.

85. Once measures have been devised to ensure the availability of land, it is necessary to ensure that the optimum potential is realized. (This will obviously have been assumed in the original calculations of allocation of optimum land-use and must be followed up.) Beyond the normal

system of financial priorities, this is seen to call for the maximizing of present technologies and the sponsoring of innovation through the encouragement of research. Quantitative improvements were called for in the further development of public buildings (especially schools) for multiple use and the development of multi-story schools and factories. Qualitative improvements in the environment should also be regarded as part of the process of realizing the optimum potential use of land.

86. There was some debate on the advantages of mixed land uses as opposed to separated uses. The Japanese case for separation of land uses has been put forward earlier. There were protagonists of mixed use, however, especially on the grounds that it brought greater interest into the city — but also it was necessary in the smaller self-contained community within the (polycentric) metropolitan region. The discussions on education also mentioned the new techniques that had not been sufficiently thought out, but which would have an impact on the form of the city. For example, the development of new communications networks and correspondence systems for mass education could do away with the educational institutions in their traditional form.

87. The impact of legislation should also be mentioned here. The availability of condominium legislation in many countries has permitted higher-density development of freehold dwellings, which still seem to remain more popular than those in leasehold. Those representatives from countries without condominium legislation generally felt that it would be desirable and that it would assist in increasing the productivity of land in cities. Indeed, this is understood to be a major reason for introducing condominium legislation into Puerto Rico, where land is scarce and individuals wish to own their dwellings.

88. If there is to be an optimization of land-use in metropolitan areas, the techniques for determining use require that decisions pertaining to the whole metropolitan area be made from one office. Naturally, this points to land-use planning being a function of a metropolitan region authority. It was further agreed that while this authority could co-ordinate economic development planning and physical planning, it would provide separate departments for these two activities in order to ensure that physical planning was not dominated by economic development planning. Below the level of the metropolitan region there should exist local planning bodies responsible for the detailed action plans. More will be said on this in the section on programming for action.

89. **Human resources.** Just as there is a need to maximize the potential of land as a resource, so there is the similar need for a far better utilization of our human resources. Discussions ranged from the present unemployment and underemployment of present skills to the vital need to re-train and re-educate those from all levels of society as technological advancements reduce the utility of their present-day skills (i.e. underemployment of potential skills). All these aspects of maximizing the potential of human resources affect all economies and technologies although, as has been observed earlier, the acute strictures imposed by limited financial resources have affected developing countries far more than developed countries in tackling this problem. Despite the present-day facility for international inter-change of technological innovations, only the more developed coun-

tries are in a position to capitalize upon every technological advancement. Yet to do so requires constant retraining of their human resources and whereas their need is not as great, in absolute terms, as is that of the developing countries, it is as necessary in terms of making maximum use of the technologies available.

90. Perhaps it is necessary to make the distinction between the up-dating of an individual in his own field and retraining for another career. Whereas the former process must be accepted as necessary, there is much scope for reducing the requirements of the latter. Essentially, this latter retraining process is aimed at redressing a present imbalance between skills required and skills available. It is this imbalance that the comprehensive plan should be able to eliminate in large part. The sectoral and territorial breakdown of economic data, to which earlier reference was made, would provide the required information on the quantitative and qualitative characteristics of the desired work force at any point of time within the scope of the plan. Understandably, planning for future employment requirements, as incorporated into the plan, was seen as a national responsibility. Earlier reference has been made to the desire of local governments to have senior governments assume the greater share of education costs where this is not being done. However, whereas senior governments should bear the responsibility for anticipating demand for skills, setting general guidelines and maintaining overall control, it was felt that the metropolitan region and local authorities should be responsible for re-training the rural/urban migrants and immigrants. The local authority is more likely to be sensitive to the potential of the individual and be able to react to his needs in the context of the local needs of the metropolis. There are obvious exceptions to this (e.g. Negroes in the southern United States and Indians in Latin America).

91. Problems arise in rural areas where the central government has to ensure that a child's education will equip him for an urban life if he so wishes it. For it is in this way that much of the later retraining can be avoided. The implications of these demands of the government are more pertinent at the national level where the emergence of a labour force has to be balanced with employment requirements in the various sectors of the economy.

92. **Financial resources.** In order that all aspects of metropolitan management may be discussed together in a later section of this report, discussion here is confined to financial resources as they relate to formulation of the comprehensive plan. It should be stressed here, however, that the problem of assuring adequate financial resources is not always one of a lack of funds, it is usually also a matter of lack of financial planning and management. Indeed, in more developed countries where adequate funds do exist, it is this latter problem that is the area that requires attention. Naturally, in the developing countries, the problem is compounded with lack of both funds and planning and management.

93. Reference has been made already to the positive contribution of a metropolitan-level government body to the solution of several financial problems facing metropolitan areas. It was agreed that a metropolitan-wide body, with financial sources adequate to enable it to discharge its

responsibilities, could offer financial stability and viability to the sub-metropolitan units and reduce fiscal competition between these lower-tier units.

94. Of greatest relevance to plan formulation are: a) that sources of funds be made available; b) that these sources be used according to the principles of both horizontal equity (equal taxes for equal services) and vertical equity (taxation according to ability to pay but with equal services); and, c) that national fiscal policy not be unduly weakened by whatever system of metropolitan finance is adopted. These issues, introduced in Lady Hicks' paper,¹⁵ were discussed at length by participants and are examined here.

95. **The availability of sources of funds** or, more simply, the matching of expenditures with revenues is probably the greatest of these problems.

96. On the question of borrowing vs. current financing for capital projects, it was generally agreed that while current financing was more desirable, borrowing, once utilized, was difficult to avoid. To change from borrowing to current financing requires that during the period of transition, the present community bears the burden of amortizing past debts, meeting present expenditures, and financing future needs. Due to heavy debts facing most municipalities in metropolitan areas, this transition is made all the more difficult. Inflation was seen by many as the justification for borrowing, although such borrowing itself may feed inflation. The risk taken is that the rate of inflation may not remain high over a long period of time.

97. It was accepted that metropolitan-wide bodies require heavy capital outlays if they are to capitalize on the economies of scale, or if they are to be in a position to make a large purchase of, say, an extensive tract of land at the opportune moment. If such outlays are to be financed by borrowing it was felt that it would be cheaper for the metropolitan government to borrow from itself by establishing a capital fund. This fund was seen also as offering a considerable saving to sub-metropolitan governments, which would pay higher rates for loans in the external market. Similarly, low-interest loans from senior governments to local governments were seen as a highly desirable means of reducing the cost of borrowing. Again, the cost of borrowing does have some significance for governmental structure. Metropolitan-wide bodies are in a better position to compete in the money market than are sub-metropolitan units, by reason of their size, fiscal resources and better management.

98. Given that some borrowing was accepted as inevitable, there was agreement that there is much room for improving the sources of current revenue available for financing the metropolis. The traditional sources of revenue examined were the taxes on real property, income, sales, vehicles and various user charges. The tax on real property received greatest attention, mainly because of its extensive usage, although it was precisely the great reliance on the property tax that was questioned by so many. While the tax has the advantages of ease of collection and stable yield — two major concerns of most taxing authorities — it has

¹⁵Hicks, Ursula K., *Financing Metropolitan Government* (Toronto: Bureau of Municipal Research, 1967).

many disadvantages. Among them are inflexibility, economic lag, regressiveness and inequity (in the absence of frequent and sound reassessment). With the rapid development and change taking place in metropolitan areas, it is virtually impossible for reassessment to keep pace with changes in property values. Similarly, with the decline of agricultural employment, continually fewer members of society own property that is related to their source of income, probably the most just basis of taxation.

99. Discussion of the income tax was limited to consideration of a low-rate income tax or payroll tax. Despite its ability to tap the concentration of high incomes earned in the metropolis, it is generally an unsophisticated base. It was unfortunate that discussions did not compare the impact of the property tax and the income tax on the visual environment. The desperate desire to obtain increased assessment, and the abandonment of environmental values, are in large part products of the heavy reliance on the property tax for local revenue. The heavy reliance on the income tax, as administered by the central government in Sweden, removes incentives from local authorities to seek more development solely for the sake of increasing the municipal assessment. Environmental qualities naturally benefit.

100. The sales tax was favoured in that it tends to be in accord with the concept of the socio-economic region, especially if the taxing jurisdiction is extensive. Yet some loss might be experienced in a small tax jurisdiction, and the tax is likely to be regressive unless only luxury items are subject to it. Also, especially in developing countries, there is the problem of collection. An ingenious solution to this problem has been found by Brazil. Each sales receipt is a ticket in the national lottery. Revenues have increased markedly since the introduction of this idea.

101. Both the income and sales taxes are directly related to national economic activity and it was felt that they are perhaps better left in the control of the senior government for purposes of regulating the economy. Use by a metropolitan-level government should be controlled by a set ceiling or by some established relationship to national economic policies.

102. The motor vehicle tax is seen by metropolitan authorities as one source of revenue of which they should have a greater share. At the present time, revenues from licences, fuel and purchase of vehicles is largely retained by senior governments.

103. While the general feeling was that the above sources of current revenue should be retained as a diverse tax base for a metropolitan region authority, there was a similarly strong desire to see a greater use of senior government grants. Basically, this is for two reasons. The first is that grants from senior governments permit metropolitan or sub-metropolitan authorities to retain administration of services that they would otherwise, for lack of financial resources, have to hand over to the senior government. (It is questionable whether this is adequate justification for surrendering responsibility for a service.) If a governmental unit achieves a satisfactory balance between the efficient provision of a service and popular access, there is a strong case for permitting that authority to administer the service. The question then arises as to whether the

authority should be financially accountable for that service. While this might be desirable, the limitations of the present sources of current revenue make it virtually impossible to apply this criterion to the providing of all municipal services. Thus, the attraction of grants. What is possible, and often utilized, is that the senior level of government determines the standard of the service, the lower level of government is responsible for administering the service and the senior government then exercises its prerogative to review the performance of the local government through various institutional arrangements (e.g. plans) and also provides the mechanism for public appeal.

104. The second reason for favouring grants is that they provide an excellent method of achieving greater equity among metropolitan areas with different resources. At the same time, this process provides a vital link between metropolitan and national socio-economic policy objectives as expressed in the comprehensive plan. The greater degree of central government participation is viewed favourable because that level becomes more aware of the needs of the metropolis, but with some reservation since heavy financial commitment on the part of the central government is bound to be accompanied by more intensive supervision. However, reference has been made several times throughout this report to the fact that more services have to be shared and that the central government has to become more involved in metropolitan affairs. This financial involvement was seen as one of the most significant elements in developing better relations between levels of government, thus facilitating the comprehensive planning process.

105. Both conditional and unconditional grants were thought to be quite acceptable, providing that an appropriate degree of programme determination and control is retained by the lower levels of government. Obviously this depends not only on the percentage of total local revenue derived from grants but also on the manner in which the grants are made. Conditional grants, while extremely desirable for ensuring that national standards be met, tend to limit the discretionary powers of the receiving authority. Another aspect of the conditional grant that was disliked was the matching grant condition that the offer might require or imply. This tends to force the benefitting authority to commit its own funds to projects that may distort local priorities. Unconditional grants, while much more favoured by the receiving authority, were subject to criticism in that they can be easily misused and also can discourage development of local revenues. Being open to such criticism, they tend to become subject to limitations, thus becoming, in effect, conditional grants. This normally reduces their value to the user.

106. If senior-level grants are to play their part in the comprehensive plan, it must be assumed that they will have an assigned role to play. The same must be said for other sources of revenue. A major objective of the comprehensive plan is to satisfy identified areas of need. Essentially, this is the objective of the national (minimum) standards set by the national plan. This objective can only be achieved by applying the principle of vertical equity.

107. **The principle of vertical equity** involves the unequal treatment of unequals through the redistribution of income. It is the redistribution of

income to meet specific needs that is the function of the conditional grant. However, while delegates thought that this was highly desirable as an objective, there was a strong feeling that it could lead to too great a diversion of the financial resources of the metropolis to other parts of the country. This was based on two grounds. First, there was a concern that whereas tax capacity (incomes, in this instance) may well be higher in the metropolis, there may also be a correspondingly higher degree of tax effort (exploitation of the tax resource) in the metropolis. Second, this erosion of the financial resource of the metropolis by the central government was seen as imposing strict limitations on the ability of the metropolis to be discriminating in the spending of locally-generated resources. For it was seen as highly desirable that there should exist a strong degree of flexibility, on the part of the metropolis, in being able to encourage local initiative in the improvement of environmental conditions.

108. While such improvements can be justified **according to the principle of horizontal equity**, i.e. if one metropolitan area can afford improved services (beyond the national minimum) it should be permitted to tax itself additionally for their provision, it is questionable whether the sources of taxation used by the metropolis (mainly regressive taxes, especially the real property tax) should be used to pay for such improvements. The argument put forward is that the metropolis should have greater access to non-regressive taxes, such as the income tax. By utilizing a progressive income tax for additional local revenue, the metropolis would be furthering intra-metropolitan vertical equity. Also, the metropolis should not only have access to non-regressive taxes but the central government should also be limited in the extent to which it can call upon the revenue potential of the metropolis. This brings us to the third issue relating to national fiscal policy.

109. However, while it was recognized by all that **national fiscal policy should not be unduly weakened**, the issue tended to be examined in a somewhat different light; namely, to what extent should the metropolis be given fiscal autonomy over its own financial resources. Most delegates felt that the unfavourable differential between the contributions of the metropolis to the gross national product and what it received in return by way of benefits was far greater than was justified given its needs as outlined in earlier sections of this report. It was felt by a majority of the delegates (perhaps somewhat selfishly given the rural poverty in many countries) that a greater percentage of financial resources should remain within the metropolis rather than be transferred to other areas in the form of grants. The percentage of revenues generated by the metropolis that remain within the metropolis for its own use varies tremendously. In the western world, it averages 15%, in Poland it is about 30%, while in Yugoslavia it is estimated to be 65%. Obviously, there is much scope for improving the situation in some countries if one believes that local discretion over disbursement of locally generated funds is desirable. On the other hand, it was recognized that the needs of the rural areas could not necessarily be met by rurally generated fiscal resources, especially if rural needs were related to the urban economy and way of life. The earlier reference to the need to educate children presently living in rural areas for an urban way of life provides an example of this call on outside

revenues. As was indicated earlier, it was generally felt that many of these needs (such as education) should be financed by a senior government given the prevailing structure of government in most countries.

110. However, as has already been pointed out, some of this apparent conflict is eliminated if the metropolitan regions designed for comprehensive planning are large enough to incorporate not only the built up urban area but also the hinterland that comprises the balance of the socio-economic region. The larger the region, the greater the degree of both horizontal and vertical equity possible within the region. The problem, although it is not insoluble, is that those charged with disbursing funds across the metropolitan region might neglect the needs of the rural parts of the region.

The comprehensive planning machinery and the coordinated action programme

111. Thus far we have examined both the process by which societal goals are given expression and the inputs of infrastructure and resources required to make possible the realisation of those goals. It is now necessary to turn to the problem of developing a comprehensive planning machinery which will permit the coordinated programming of action for the realisation of the plan.

112. This machinery has both formal and informal structural elements. It is the mechanism by which individuals, groups and institutional bodies communicate with, and relate to, one another to bring about the plan. It is crucial to societal development and in many ways is an expression of society. The machinery that does not facilitate individual and institutional communication in the planning process will lead to frustration; similarly, the absence of an ordered relationship will produce confusion, a non-productive plan and obstruction to a society's development. The precise form of the comprehensive planning machinery will obviously vary according to the society which it is designed to serve. Management, to be discussed later, will make use of much of this same machinery and will make its own demands on structure.

113. Within this context, this section of the report comments on the attributes and characteristics of planning machinery as it provides for political, administrative, fiscal and legislative coordination of the local, metropolitan and senior government activities pertaining to the realisation of the comprehensive metropolitan plan. Additionally, the integration of non-government activities is another function of this machinery. Many of these desirable attributes have emerged in earlier parts of this report; here their inter-relationships and contributions to coordinated action are considered.

114. Perhaps the most desirable characteristic of the comprehensive planning machinery is that it should recognize the oneness of the socio-economic metropolitan region. While the concept of this region varies according to local conditions, and there may well be disagreement locally on the precise delimitation (further work is needed in this area of study), a rough approximation of the metropolitan region is certainly attainable.

Concrete expression of the metropolitan identity must exist if the public is to perceive metropolitan problems as a metropolitan responsibility. Similarly, the administration must be structured in such a way that it can tackle such metropolitan problems on a metropolitan-wide basis.

115. There are many ways in which this metropolitan identity can be achieved. Politically, it is highly desirable that metropolitan-wide legislative body exists to decide upon metropolitan-wide issues. According to the size of the metropolis, this can be either a one-tier or two-tier structure. (A three-tier structure was thought to defeat the objective of co-ordination in all but a very large metropolis where it may be justified on the basis of permitting greater population participation.) The choice of the number of tiers, the size of the metropolitan tier and the functions it should be assigned should be guided by the need to make the metropolitan tier the most important governmental unit in fact and in the minds of the public. Additionally, greater popular identification with the metropolis can be achieved through direct election of metropolitan councillors. It was thought to be less confusing for the electorate if, in the instance of the two-tier system, the local and metropolitan legislatures utilized electoral districts with coterminous boundaries.

116. A general-purpose metropolitan body was strongly favoured over a number of special agencies. Only with a general-purpose body will consensual goals be enunciated. The expression of such goals was regarded as being a key to achieving identity for the metropolis. Special agencies, particularly prevalent in the utilities and services fields, often acquire considerable powers and yet are normally not politically responsive. They can form an impediment to the establishment of a general-purpose metropolitan form of government by providing an alternative method of performing functions over a wide area. Control becomes difficult, and their functions are not coordinated with related functions of other government organizations. They were seen by delegates as a good substitute for a more democratic and responsible metropolitan approach, often owing their existence to the difficulty of creating a general-purpose body. Their existence is often justified on the (dubious) claim that they are technically efficient and free from political influence. The proliferation of this type of formal agency was generally regarded as confusing to the public and militating against effective participation.

117. The general-purpose body offers the advantages of greater comprehensibility; it should also, however, be adaptable to the many demands made of it. As was indicated earlier in the report, it was generally agreed that comprehensive planning is interest-based and that the reconciliation of conflicting metropolitan-wide interests should take place in the metropolitan legislature. The formal structure that exists to provide access to this arena of reconciliation should be able to accommodate the occasional desire for expression on the part of many pressure groups and institutions that are not part of the formal decision-making machinery. While the formal machinery might be designed to accommodate direct participation, through councillors or committees, etc., it could not be expected to cater to all, and especially temporary, interests.

118. Discussions on the precise size of sub-metropolitan governments

were limited since this would vary according to local conditions. However, in any two-tier system, the lower-tier units, which should be of approximately equal population, should probably be about 100,000 to 250,000 in population judging by existing examples.

119. These figures were thought to represent a balance between the dictates of service efficiency and participation, a balance that was sought throughout the discussions on the politico-administrative structuring of the metropolitan machinery and its relations with local and senior levels of government. It is of interest to note, however, that participatory values were generally given priority consideration. This may be quite understandable if one appreciates the fact that the need for a metropolitan form of government is in turn the product of the need for a metropolitan administration to operate at the new scale of urban living made possible by technology. If technological advances are not to be the sole dictates of our form of government, participatory values must be retained.

120. This issue came to the fore in the discussions on the paper entitled: "The Functional Metropolis and Systems of Government".¹⁶ This paper did not accept that the politico-administrative structure of the metropolis would have to accommodate itself to physical form as dictated by technological change. Instead, the authors adopted a novel and refreshing approach in seeking a form of future metropolis, in terms of physical and politico-administrative structure, which would permit a maximum of public participation without loss to the efficient functioning of the metropolis. While the reader of this report is referred to that paper for an elaboration, it is of interest to summarise their views here and to add their own and others' comments made at the conference.

121. The authors saw the forces of space and time as leading to greater centralization of responsibility. While accepting this in part, they were not content to see present trends continue. In terms of time, with the speed of development today and the resulting change, we are becoming more future-generation-oriented. The conflict of future-oriented and present policies is felt more at the local level than elsewhere, and there is a tendency to shift the responsibility for resolving the conflict away to the less sensitive level of central government (less sensitive, that is, in terms of access). In terms of space, the individual is part of a community of a larger scale. Given the nature of urbanization and increasing density, local functions tend to become regional and regional functions to become central. Technical services, especially, become more centralized. There is a severe loss of interest at the local level where, the authors maintain, only the educational, basic housekeeping and socio-cultural activities remain.

122. While there is little that can be done about the consequences of the forces of time, adjustments can be made to tackle the centralization resulting from spatial consideration. For while centralization is quite acceptable for plan formulation, implementation should be decentralized where possible. To this end the authors presented an indication of the

¹⁶Gorynski and Rybicki, *op. cit.*

assignment of plan formulation, plan implementation and plan supervision (evaluation of service management) functions, as related to long-term perspective planning, giving due regard to time and scale. This is shown in modified form in Figure No. 1. Only those functions which can be easily assigned are indicated in Figure No. 1. The empty boxes are areas in which further thought is required.

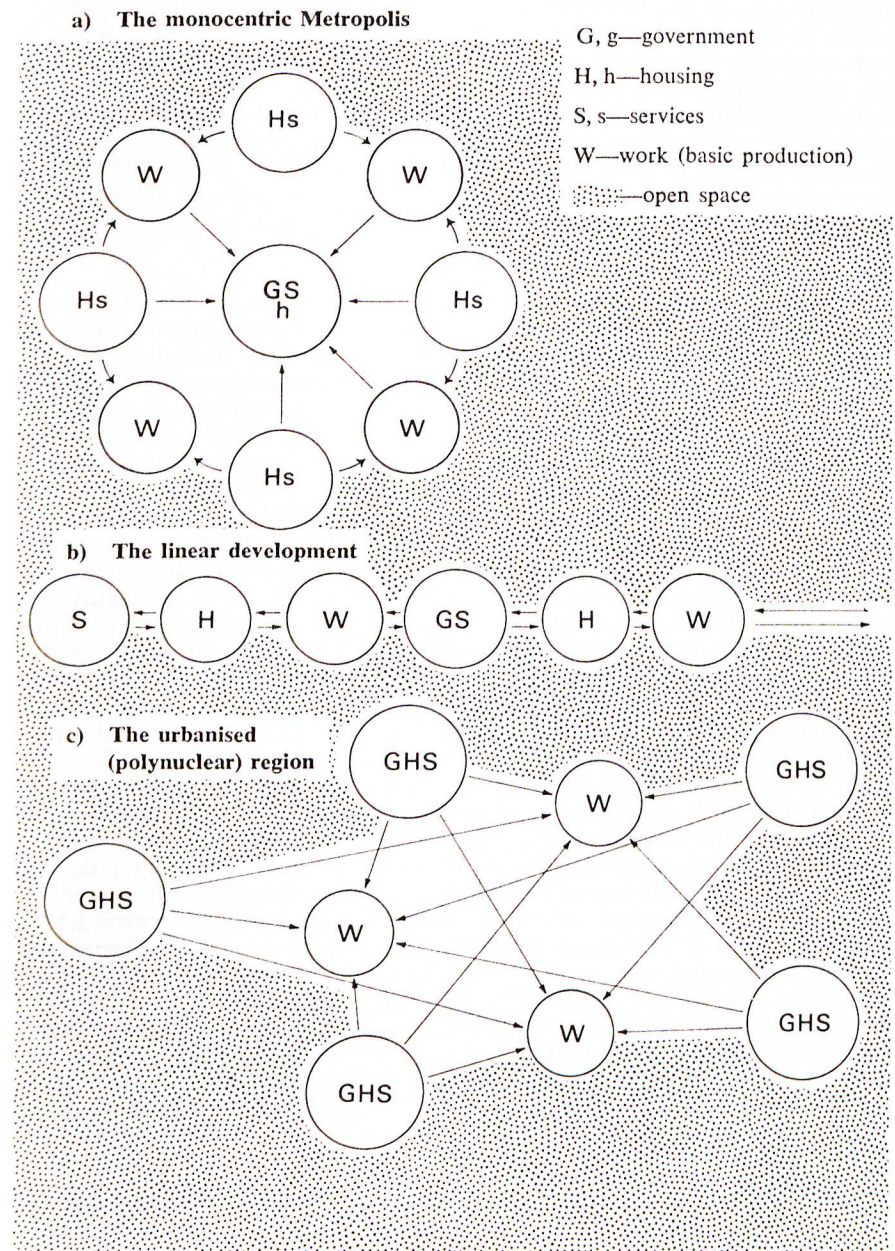
FIGURE 1
The Allocation of Responsibilities for Elements of the Long-Term Comprehensive Planning Process

L.—local government
R.—regional government
C.—central government
F.—plan formulation
S.—supervision
I.—implementation

Time \ space	current	medium	perspective
local	R. F.S. L. F.S.I.		
regional		C. F.S. R. F.S.I. L. F.I.	
national			C. F.S.I. R. F.S.I. L. I.

123. This assignment of responsibilities calls for strong, and therefore large, regional (metropolitan) government units capable of carrying out planning functions efficiently. This (metropolitan) regional government is then broken down into well-defined and clearly-shaped local government units sensitive to, and able to accommodate democratic participation. The metropolis can meet these demands but, whereas the traditional metropolis is a monocentric metropolis, the authors thought that a polycentric metropolis is more suitable for this type of development in the future. The diagrams in Figure 2 indicate that the polycentric metropolis can more easily combine physical structure with a politico-administrative structure to give balanced communities throughout its lower tier.

FIGURE 2
The Reconciliation of the Physical Form and the Politico-Administrative Structure of the Metropolis



Given the functions that have to be provided in the metropolis, it is likely that each of these sub-metropolitan centres will take on a character of its own. (For example, it is particularly desirable that one such centre retains the unifying characteristics of the central city of the mononuclear metropolis.) This pattern of related centres would be repeated on a national scale if the nation-wide development of metropolitan growth points, as recommended earlier in this report, is pursued. It is also of more than academic interest to note that, as with mononuclear metropolises, the specialisation of functions between polycentric metropolises might repeat the pattern exhibited within a metropolis. This is certainly the conclusion to be drawn from the classification of metropolitan areas by function, as presented in the paper by Prof. Jones and Mr. Forstall.¹⁷ Thus, there emerges a strong relationship between the metropolis as a functional unit and the nation as a functional unit. This tends to strengthen the politico-administrative inter-relationships.

124. Before leaving the discussions on the manner in which service responsibilities should be assigned, it should be stated that there was some opposition to the sharing of responsibility for any one function. Those maintaining this position preferred to have functions assigned on the basis of service efficiency. The value of the metropolitan approach (i.e. assignment of responsibility for provision of all aspects of the service to the metropolitan level of government) was seen to be justified for the provision of the following: sewage disposal, garbage disposal, major highways and bridges, metropolitan transport, air and water pollution control, housing (construction), welfare and health as regards planning and policy, airports, fire protection, police, large open spaces, cultural and recreational activities of major importance, financial borrowing. Since this is a lengthy list and makes only one major qualification (pertaining to health and welfare) it might appear that a single-tier metropolitan government might prove satisfactory. However, these views were presented not so much in terms of a dissatisfaction with sharing but more in terms of a favouring of the metropolitan level being given extensive responsibilities. The only real disadvantage of sharing was seen to exist in developing countries. In such instances, anything that detracts from the efficient attainment of national minimum standards is obviously questionable. It was proposed by some that the participatory value derived from the introduction of a metropolitan level of government (with a view to having a greater decentralization of formerly centrally provided services) might result in such a loss in efficiency. However, it can similarly be argued that the introduction of the provision of services at the metropolitan level would offer improved efficiency compared with operation by fragmented municipal units — providing that only metropolitan and central governments exist, and that the metropolitan level is not merely an additional level. This is the approach adopted in Seoul, Korea. Participatory values in this instance are fostered in other ways (e.g. public exhibitions on planning and seminars on metropolitan government — the Toronto Seminar-Conference being followed by a series of such seminars).

¹⁷Forstall, Richard and Jones, Victor, *Selected Demographic, Economic and Governmental Aspects of the Contemporary Metropolis* (Toronto: Bureau of Municipal Research, 1967).

125. The other side of this argument is that participatory values are enhanced at the level which assumes responsibilities for a function. The sharing of functions should result in participation and could also provide the basis for intensive co-operation between governments. In summary, considering the discussions on individual services as well as those on structural elements, sharing of functions seemed to be favoured with senior governments setting out policy and reviewing local programmes and lower levels of government being responsible for implementation.

126. Thus far comment on the comprehensive planning machinery has been directed to those attributes which facilitate co-operation; namely, the identification of the scope of a function, the assignment of functional responsibility, the willing involvement of individuals and institutions, and the development of a close association between physical structure and the politico-administrative structure of the metropolis and the nation.

127. It is with the discussions of national, metropolitan and local plans that we come to those elements of the comprehensive planning machinery that give expression to the priority setting and the coordination of action in terms of space and time. Naturally, without co-operation it will not be possible for all levels of government to take part in the formulation of long-term socio-economic policy-making, and neither will it be possible to achieve the consistency of decisions taken at various levels (since this implies exchange of information and coordination of activities). These are two vital elements of comprehensive planning.

128. It was generally agreed that priority setting should be focussed at the metropolitan level. As has already been stated, the metropolitan regions are regarded as the national growth points in national development. Problems affecting metropolitan development will inhibit sound national development. Thus, national governments should re-assess their priorities regarding expenditure of national resources and again the reader of this report is referred back to the earlier figures regarding local discretion over spending of locally-generated financial resources.

129. Although priority setting should focus on the needs of the metropolis, the general framework for the metropolitan plan (which will give expression to those needs) can be developed only within the context of the national plan. The national plan must be a physical and economic development plan dealing with the establishment of growth areas and sectors of the economy. The reader is referred to paragraph 151 of Dr. Weissmann's paper where he elaborates on the content of such a plan.¹⁸ Essentially, these plans must be open-ended, or flexible. They must be reviewed at set intervals which are spelled out. Time factors in the plan should be adhered to since they will be used by metropolitan and local planners as policy guides. Means of implementation must be assured beforehand. The national plan must also be flexible enough to deal with changes in the economy that may be brought about by external influences (e.g. war or international migration of labour). The metropolitan regional plan, as defined at the beginning of this report, will consist of both a general outline plan and a detailed master plan. Again to avoid repetition, these are described, along with the detailed action plans for sub-metropolitan units, in paragraphs 85-88 of Dr. Weissmann's paper.

¹⁸Weissmann, *op. cit.*, pp. 48-50.

130. The active participation and representation of senior government political parties in local government was generally felt to assist the co-ordination of policy-making between central and local governments. It also has another useful attribute in that it tends to encourage participation of the public at large. However, the seriousness of divided partisan control between levels of government could not be agreed upon and this important issue was left unresolved. The financial arrangements that exist to strengthen coordination of plans have already been elaborated upon. Legislative measures, while felt necessary, were not debated at great length. The general feeling was that legislation should always be flexible enough to permit change and experimentation. Legislation was somehow seen as rather unimportant, in comparison with participation, in bringing about co-operation among governments and between the governmental and non-governmental sectors. However, in order that this statement is not misinterpreted, it should be said that delegates from the U.S.A. felt that lack of comprehensive planning in the U.S.A. was in large part a result of the lack of supportive legislation.

131. While everything that has been said on participation applies equally to the individual, to institutions and to economic enterprises, perhaps it should be stressed here that comprehensive planning is not necessarily centralized planning but rather integrated planning. It does not call for any greater ownership of enterprises by the governmental sector, although, in the interests of society, it may well call for greater control of the plans of privately-owned economic enterprises.

132. An interesting example of the middle-of-the-road approach (i.e. between the national centralized planning approach and that of city planning under a free enterprise system) is that of Yugoslavia. There the approach is that of market planning, in which all economic enterprises are free to develop their own development plans, dispose of their profits, elect their own management, and behave like any enterprise in a market economy. The government intervenes in the market economy through such planning devices as credit policy, funds allocated for the development of underdeveloped regions, etc., although few funds are made available for future development plans. The Yugoslav government does not impose its plans but rather relies on the willingness of individuals, institutions and enterprises to accept such plans and implement them. It is to the implementation of plans that we turn next.

v) PLAN IMPLEMENTATION

133. While implementation is identifiable as a part of the planning process separate from plan formulation, there is a close two-way relationship between these two elements. The action programme of the plan indicates clearly the timing of implementation and the spatial scale of any one operation. Also administrative planning is needed to assign responsibilities for plan implementation and to develop the increased capability needed to that end. As the implementation of the plan progresses, it is evaluated in terms of the desired effect. On the basis of these observations, changes are made to the plan model and to the programme of action. Providing that the plan is a clear and all-embracing guide at any given point of time, there should be few problems with implementation.

134. However, there are two major weaknesses to any plan. First, it cannot anticipate a major change on the international scene that will affect the economic or political future of the country in question. Similarly, it cannot anticipate any revolutionary technological change in any one field of endeavour. All it can do is to provide a means by which adjustments can readily be made at the level affected by the change, thus absorbing the impact of a maleffect or capitalizing on a good effect as it relates to plans at other levels. Second, the plan cannot guarantee successful working relationships between individuals, institutions and enterprises, since this is essentially a matter of individual relationships. All it can do is provide for the most satisfactory machinery which will hopefully facilitate individual relationships.

135. It is in the market economies that the greatest challenge to the implementation of the plan is experienced. Here, the government sector has to develop a framework within which the operations of private enterprise will be known to be both conducive to the common good and, at the same time, rewarding to the private sector. In this instance, the sharing of responsibilities has to be not just between levels of government but also between the governmental and non-governmental sectors. The attempts by the French government have probably been among the most successful and probably because of the high degree of integration compared with many other market-economy countries.

136. Reference has already been made to the assignment of governmental responsibility for implementation of plans according to considerations of time and space. The lead to this discussion was given by Professors Gorynski and Rybicki in one session and was pursued further in discussion of Professor Duprés paper on Intergovernmental Relations.¹⁹ The general conclusion was that lower levels of government should be given major responsibility for plan implementation providing there is provision for supervision by senior governments. Where the private sector plays a part, the question of which level, or levels, of government it should work with will depend on the scale of the project in question. For example, the day-to-day operations of a privately-owned utility involve liaison more with local authorities, whereas expansion plans may affect the metropolitan government. Further, the maintenance of national standards of service or the need for any international dealings (e.g. power supply or telephone linkage) require decisions being made by the central government. This rather obvious illustration is given only to indicate that essentially there is the same need for contact with different levels of government whether or not the ownership of the utility (or any other service) is governmental or non-governmental.

137. In both the market economy and the planned economy, the detailed action plans are formulated and implemented at the local level. The responsibility of the senior governments is to ensure that the long-range and medium-range plans will materialize over the given period of time. The key to their strategy, and also to local government strategy where private enterprise is involved, is to identify the appropriate levers of development which once "pulled" (i.e. implemented) will initiate further development by lower levels of government and/or private enterprise.

¹⁹Dupré, J. Stefan, *Intergovernmental Relations and the Metropolitan Area* (Toronto: Bureau of Municipal Research, 1967).

Obversely, the refusal to "pull" the levers and maintain the "status quo" is just as effective a control. It was agreed that these development levers decline in number with the extension of the time horizon and the space horizon of the plan. Thus, there are few levers available to the senior government, although examples of these might be port location (or the relative significance of different locations and the implications of such developments as the St. Lawrence Seaway); airport location (the location of a third major airport in S.E. England is a national rather than local issue); railway and major highway location; provision of power supply (especially significant in those countries which do not have adequate power coverage for all parts of the country); and, the selection of development areas (both new towns and regional development projects). The fulfillment of those functions for which the central government is responsible should also be seen with this strategic role in mind. For example, the location, and even precise siting, of national defence facilities and major government offices will have considerable effect upon the activities of lower levels of government and private enterprise.

138. Key levers available to the metropolitan or regional governments are: the provision or location of major transportation links such as expressways and rapid rail transit (including the number and location of access points); the provision of major sewer and water (and, in some cases, power) facilities; the location of major institutions such as hospitals and universities; the location of regional parks; and, the location of major shopping centres.

139. Key levers available to local government and designed to stimulate private development are the provision or location of certain health and welfare institutions, schools, local streets, sewers and water (and in some cases, power) supply, and local parks. It was agreed that housing should not be used as a lever. This list is by no means complete, since different strategies of development have to be adopted according to local conditions. The point to be made is that by utilizing these levers of development, flexibility is still provided for private enterprise and lower levels of government in pursuing their respective roles. Also while these key levers have been described more in terms of their impact on spatial development (location, etc.) the timing of implementation is obviously just as important a lever.

140. The other type of lever open to governments in the provision of financial support or incentive for development. Since this has been discussed in detail in other parts of this report it will suffice to emphasize its significance as the major means by which senior governments can assist in the improvement of conditions in the metropolitan areas (and, naturally, elsewhere).

141. Technical assistance offered by senior governments, while not a lever, is also a useful instrument in assisting in the implementation of plans. The scarcity of expertise, especially in developing countries, makes valid the concentration of specialists and consultants. This relates back to the development of an adequate communications network. The consultative capacity of universities could be improved, along with the development of a system for interchange of information between universities and other institutions in metropolitan areas.

142. Voluntary groups and individuals may also wish to participate in the implementation of the plan. Voluntary groups tend to be most active in the promotion of social welfare and cultural activities of a metropolis. While they represent a response to a felt need, it may also be said that their very presence is indicative of the unresponsive attitude of the public sector toward these services which tend to be regarded as luxuries rather than necessities. On the other hand, once voluntary agencies are established it often becomes difficult to coordinate their services without heavy financial support on the part of the government. (This is unattractive to the public sector since it is generally far less efficient than a unified governmental service.) Another problem in relying on voluntary agencies for essential services is that they are extremely vulnerable to a reduction of funds, the supply of which is a measure of the economic health of the local community.

143. The participation of individuals in self-help community development programmes was seen as being productive in a labour-intensive economy. Also, and of greater importance, such participation tends to result in a sense of community pride and can be regarded as socially productive. In cities, as opposed to rural areas, work programmes of this type tend to be small scale and require intensive supervision by involved and devoted individuals. It is in project development and evaluation, as opposed to the provision of on-going programmes, that the voluntary agencies and universities (and informal volunteer groups) can play a most constructive role.

vi) EVALUATION AND MODIFICATION OF THE PLAN

144. This is an essential part of the planning process that acquires greater significance with time. Given a good comprehensive plan incorporating all of the elements described in the foregoing sections of this report, the evaluation and modification of the plan (taken to include the long-, medium- and short-term plans) should serve to keep the plan updated. Thus, at any one time a current plan should exist. Unfortunately, what tends to happen at the present time is that new plans are developed at set intervals of time with a view to attaining what may be new goals without sufficient attention being given to the degree of success of measures utilized in the previous plan period. If, on the other hand, the evaluation of the plan accompanies the implementation and undesirable results or implementation techniques are observed, they can be tackled immediately.

145. While this may appear an enormous task, its feasibility and success is largely dependent on the existence of a "feed-back" process including public reaction to the plan being brought to the attention, by the communication network, of all those involved in plan formulation and modification.

146. As was pointed out in the previous section, feed-back can be disorganized and even when organized it is difficult to judge whether a truly comprehensive reaction has been obtained. Thus, it is of added interest here to note the attempt to simplify this process and our understanding of it through the application of systems analysis and also the use of gaming simulation. The object of these approaches is to forecast the results or

effects of plan implementation prior to implementation taking place. Although it was realized that these techniques are undeveloped at present, several delegates felt that there is much potential in their application. This is another field in which further research is needed and in which an international study programme could prove to be most fruitful.

Management of the Metropolis

147. Many aspects of management have been attended to already in discussions of comprehensive planning and as has also been explained, it is extremely difficult to draw a precise line between management and comprehensive planning; indeed it is questionable as to how successfully they can be separated conceptually. While the conference did not do justice to the various elements of management of the metropolis, what was discussed and what has not been presented earlier in this report is given here. Hopefully, this will assist in developing a better idea of the scope of management (including management of services, administrative management, fiscal management and management of the communications network) as it relates to the comprehensive planning process.

148. Management of governmental services requires coordination. This is amply borne out by reference to the staffing of the administrative machinery. Competition among sub-metropolitan units for staff (e.g. for teachers) contributes significantly to high service costs. While this competition can be reduced through planning and a subsequently more balanced distribution of financial resources, there is nevertheless enough flexibility in the use of these resources that allows for this competition to develop. If this local discretion is to remain, management must be expected to operate within the broad framework laid down by the plan. If this is not done, such items as salaries have to be stipulated by the plan thus resulting in a reduction in managerial discretion. This type of coordination can best be provided by a metropolitan region-wide authority.

149. While the establishment of salaries (and other government employment conditions) may be regarded as a function of the metropolitan government's personnel office, it was argued that the hiring of staff might better be done by department heads or those more closely involved in the work of the future employee. Apart from the greater degree of familiarity with the work, this arrangement may also help to overcome one of the major weaknesses of the planning process — its inability to guarantee good human working relations.

150. Another management function already alluded to falls under the rubric of functional accounting — that of maintaining national minimum standards. This is best done by the metropolitan or sub-metropolitan government but will require review by the senior government.

151. Management may play a special role in the large-scale development of the metropolitan region. The physical development of a new town cannot easily be accompanied by the development of an administrative and political structure. Thus, the initial administrative arrangement is to provide for a development corporation reporting directly to the central

government. However, with the introduction of a metropolitan region government it may be that this level of government could assume responsibility for the initial development of new towns. The problem of the size of the metropolitan region, especially if it is to include the area in which new towns are located, has already been mentioned.

152. With regard to fiscal management, again most of the problem areas of this function have been referred to earlier. If the financial planning is satisfactory, the maintenance of revenue sources should be free from problems. Skilled management will be required to administer the borrowing of capital, the maintaining of fiscal equity and the administration of accounting. (It is theoretically a responsibility of the planners through the plan, to ensure the provision of these skills.) Naturally, the role of the management in expressing its staff needs is crucial in the securing of adequate staff.

153. The discussions on budget preparation concluded that the frequent involvement of the public, by way of referenda or public meetings, is not an appropriate application of democratic principles in that any policies emerging from such decisions tend to be extremely short-sighted. Various procedures of budget preparation were discussed. One technique which avoids the presentation of inflated departmental budgets and which contributes significantly toward the vertical integration of financial administration is the preparation, by the metropolitan government staff, of an estimate of the total budget available relative to the national economic forecast. Once the executive committee has approved the total budget and departmental allocation, the separate departments make out their own budgets on the basis of this allocation. The key to this process would seem to be the selection of staff to draw up the original estimate. A variation upon this arrangement, with financial planning, is the necessity of the metropolitan government to obtain approval of the central government for its budget (on the basis of its relationship to the national budget).

154. Budget preparation becomes a product of financial planning if it is merely a modification of a long-term financial plan. The preparation of five-year functional spending estimates within the framework of a twenty-year programme has to be seen in this light. Performance programme budgeting was thought to be highly desirable as an aid for decision-making on objectives and major allocations, and for detailed planning and performance analysis of programmes. However, the limitations of its present development were recognized. The cost of preparing a satisfactory budget was a topic that was discussed but which did not produce any ready-made solutions.

155. The need for further development of cost-benefit analysis as a management tool and as a planning tool has already been discussed. 156. Whether the maintenance of a communication network should more properly be considered as part of the management of the administrative machine, or as a separate function, is difficult to decide. Without the network there would be no information base. The information base requires constant up-dating and as new sources of information become available they must be exploited. While the plan will indicate what information is to be made available, it will be a management function to

ensure the continuing supply of information. There was frequent reference to the need for further research to improve our information base.

157. An allied function is that of public relations. The responsibility for keeping the public informed on local issues is one which is frequently forgotten. It is in this way that the metropolitan government can do much to explain the nature of problems confronting it and obtain the necessary support for its actions. Again the co-operation of the mass-media institutions is required for this function.

158. These comments on management only touch upon a few issues raised but they do serve to indicate the scope of management as opposed to comprehensive planning.

159. In conclusion it might be said that one of the greatest problems confronting metropolitan areas is to ensure that the perspective of specialists, who are so necessary to the planning and management of the metropolis can also be broad enough for them to see how they relate to others working in the same process. This programme has been designed to reveal the nature of these relationships and the way in which an understanding of them can help in solving the problems confronting the world's major metropolitan areas. It is hoped that this summary report has made a further contribution to this understanding.

III CLOSING REMARKS

BY MR. C. V. NARASIMHAN,

CHEF DE CABINET, UNITED NATIONS

160. The United Nations, through the cooperation of the Public Administration Division, has afforded the Bureau of Municipal Research valuable and much appreciated support for the Centennial Study and Training Programme on Metropolitan Problems. The significance of this association was lent further weight on the occasion of the closing banquet of the Seminar-Conference when the Bureau was honoured to have as its guest speaker Mr. C. V. Narasimhan, Chef De Cabinet and Under-Secretary of the United Nations for General Assembly Affairs. What follows is a summary of Mr. Narasimhan's remarks.

161. Mr. Narasimhan began his statement by pointing out that cities have made a great contribution to our civilization. The great cities of ancient India, the city states like Athens and Sparta and later Rome, cities like Venice in the renaissance period, have only to be mentioned for us to remember their glorious contribution to our culture. Today the development of the megalopolis type of cities, has, however, created new problems. Merely deploring the process of urbanization will not help. Our goal should be to make the cities livable for all by tackling problems such as air pollution, the need for open space and other amenities.

162. There is no doubt that the tremendous growth of population during recent years has contributed to the seriousness of the problem of the cities. This is one of the most urgent problems facing many of the developed countries today.

163. The attitude of the United Nations and the Specialized Agencies, especially WHO, towards the population problem has changed very considerably during recent years. It has thus become possible for the Secretary-General to associate himself with the message from the Heads of State of some twelve countries in his statement of 10 December 1966 (Human Rights Day).

164. There is of course a direct relationship between population and urbanization. Not only has the growing population to be fed, but it has to be educated, trained and tended. Children and older people need recreation facilities. All adults need work and jobs. These aspects of the problem of urbanization require urgent attention, especially by municipal authorities.

165. The growth of the Megalopolis type of city also poses special problems in the nuclear age. The concentration, not only of large populations, but of key personnel in the fields of government, industry, commerce, science, medicine and education, and the great productive capacity that they represent, make large cities especially vulnerable to nuclear attack. The Secretary-General had therefore proposed and the General Assembly had approved, that a study be undertaken on the effects of the possible use of nuclear weapons and on the security and economic implication for States of the acquisition and further development of these weapons.

166. In view of the risks of nuclear attack, it is important that a special effort should be made to strengthen the peacekeeping capacity of the United Nations, to make progress in the field of disarmament, especially nuclear disarmament, and to help the United Nations attain its objectives in regard to the maintenance of international peace and security.

167. In conclusion Mr. Narasimhan said that our first goal should be peace, so that we may all live. Our second goal should be population planning so that the quality of life might be improved. Our third goal should be to make steady progress in the economic and social advancement of all peoples, as this is closely related to the first goal of peace.

IV THE CONTINUING PROGRAMME

The Original Commitment

168. The original design of the Centennial Programme allowed for a fourth stage during which time the Secretariat would produce the findings of the three previous stages and the groups would follow up on these findings and their own experiences.

169. The proposal to develop an international organization to continue the association that has developed between the metropolitan areas participating in the Centennial Programme has somewhat disrupted the original plan. The Secretariat has been delayed in producing this report and the findings of the entire programme because of the immediate need to divert considerable energies to the immediate development of a continuing programme which would build upon the already well-established and extensive network developed for the Centennial Programme. Indeed, it was not one of the original intentions of the Secretariat to produce this summary report of the Seminar-Conference stage of the programme. However, the additional commitment to produce this report was made in response to the request of the conference participants who wished to see this product in addition to the findings of the entire programme which are expected to be available in the Spring of 1969. These findings will bring together material that has been generated from all of the previous stages: the original study papers; the reviews of these papers as prepared by the study groups; and, the Seminar-Conference discussions.

The Desire for a Continuing Organization

170. Throughout the Centennial Programme, in the study papers, in the reviews and at the Seminar-Conference, there have been many references, both broad and more specific, on the need for an international organization to provide for further study and information on the metropolitan problems being dealt with in this programme. The international interchange of information and individuals was an item that frequently appeared on the agenda for discussion at the Seminar-Conference. Also, the sessions at

the Seminar-Conference that were devoted to the discussion of continuity were organized in response to a demand that had been expressed by groups prior to their sending delegates to the conference. At these discussions, each group was represented by at least one person and overwhelming support for a continuing programme was shown.

171. Several problems were raised but these generally derived from the type of situation which gives rise to many of the problems with which this programme has been dealing. The lack of human communication is often a physical problem. Several groups participating in this programme experienced considerable difficulty in bringing together, from across the entire metropolitan area, a group of individuals, from different institutions, all of whom have a real interest and a key role to play in tackling the problems confronting the metropolitan area. Also, there was considerable discussion of the problem of raising funds from an area where no formal expression of the metropolis existed, inasmuch as there was no metropolitan government body or any other metropolitan-wide institution. However, it is precisely because of this difficulty of communication among persons from different fields of interest and different parts of the metropolis and also because of the lack of formal expression given the metropolis — both of which derive in large part from the sheer size of the metropolis — that there is this need to continue this effort to tackle metropolitan problems in the manner instigated by this programme.

172. At the final session of the Seminar-Conference, the Glasgow Study Group proposed a motion, which received unanimous approval, to the effect that the Bureau of Municipal Research should explore the possibilities of continuing the association that had been developed between the metropolitan areas participating in this Centennial project. This resolution is produced here for the benefit of those that were unable to attend the Seminar-Conference. The resolution reads as follows:

The conference participants, having benefited from the Centennial Study and Training Programme on Metropolitan Problems,

Believing that the continuation of the Programme would serve the interests of metropolitan areas throughout the world and, in the process, contribute to a better life for people everywhere,

RESOLVE:

1. *To express their heartfelt appreciation to the Toronto Bureau of Municipal Research and to official and private agencies which have been associated with it in sponsoring this Programme.*
2. *To urge the Bureau to continue the Programme and to consult with groups in the participating metropolitan areas and in other metropolitan areas with a view to establishing a programme on a permanent basis that would help interested metropolitan areas to deal creatively with the many problems and opportunities that confront them and that would have the following features:*

a. ORIENTATION AND CHARACTER

1. *Primary emphasis on the mobilization of human and physical resources and the development of local activities within metropolitan areas and within groups of metropolitan areas organized on an interest basis.*
2. *Focus on the metropolitan area as an entity for study and action.*
3. *An approach that brings together people from different disciplines, such as public administration, economics, sociology, geography, engineering and planning as*

well as people from different interest groups such as the various units of government, all types of community, public and private groups and organizations.

4. *Worldwide participation of metropolitan areas at various levels of development and technology and of differing social and cultural backgrounds.*
5. *Flexibility in organization and programme to ensure responsiveness to the changing needs of metropolitan areas.*

b. ACTIVITIES

1. *Maintenance of an international study and training programme in which a world conference on a five year basis would provide an opportunity for reviews of activities and development of new activities.*
2. *Meetings, studies, seminars on specific topics within interested metropolitan areas.*
3. *Provision of a network and international secretariat for the interchange of information and ideas among all participating groups. A central feature of the network would be the collection and publication of studies, reports, and other materials.*
4. *Encouragement and assistance in the conduct of comparative research on problems of particular interest to metropolitan areas.*

173. As requested, the Secretariat of the Centennial Study and Training Programme on Metropolitan Problems, while endeavouring to continue its commitments to the Centennial Programme, has spent much time in meeting with many member groups, or their representatives, with representatives of other international organizations working in related fields, including the United Nations Headquarters in New York, the Economic Commission for Europe, World Health Organization, the Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development, the International Union of Local Authorities, the International Union of Architects, the International Information Centre for Local Credit, the International Federation of Landscape Architects, the United Towns Organization, the International Council for Building Research Studies and Documentation, and others, to develop a programme and organizational structure that will reflect the needs of the associated metropolitan areas.

174. As an outgrowth of the Centennial Programme, it is appropriate to describe here the main features of this new association which will be known as the International Association for Metropolitan Research and Development.

The International Association for Metropolitan Research and Development

THE ROLE OF THE ASSOCIATION

175. The Association will embody the same principles found in the Centennial Programme from which it emerged, these being: the metropolis as the focal point of interest; a concern for all publicly-oriented problems confronting the metropolis; the multi-interest group involvement of participants; and, the element of self-help among groups. No other international or national organization reflects these characteristics.

176. The functions will be oriented to the major metropolitan areas of the world. These metropolitan areas have distinctive problems. Exchange of information and innovation in search of practical solutions must be designed to meet these specific needs. The link between these metropolitan areas will be provided by the Association, with the Secretariat responsive to the individual and common needs of the member metropolitan areas.

STRUCTURE OF THE ORGANIZATION

177. **The organization** should be seen as an association of member groups served by a central Secretariat reporting to, and under the direction of, the Executive Committee, and through it responsible to the General Council.

178. **The central Secretariat** will be established, for the initial period of development of the international organization, by and within the Toronto Bureau of Municipal Research. At such time as indication of sufficient financial support has been assured, a charter will be sought to establish a separate international organization.

179. **The Member Groups** will be formed on a metropolitan area basis throughout the world. Membership will be limited to present participating metropolitan areas and those with a population of over 1,000,000 that the Executive Committee wishes to invite into membership. In extending such an invitation the Executive Committee will consider: the need for world-wide coverage of the membership; the need to retain the common interests that exist in the major metropolitan areas; and, the need to limit the membership to manageable proportions. Indications of interest have already been received from five additional metropolitan areas. However, it is unlikely that the membership will expand beyond sixty metropolitan areas in the next five years.

180. **Membership within any one group** will be inter-disciplinary. Individuals will be members of the international organization only by virtue of their membership in a group.

181. The member groups are responsible for organizing themselves and also for corresponding with the other groups and the Secretariat. Some groups propose to establish a local secretariat, others are arranging to have this service provided by a research group within a university, or by a government office, or by a national institute. This arrangement will allow for a maximum of flexibility to suit individual circumstances. However, whichever arrangement is adopted, the identification of the group, as one devoted to the study of metropolitan area problems, will be retained.

182. **The Executive Committee** will consist of approximately 14 persons drawn from member groups and representatives of major financial sponsors. Representation will be both world-wide and inter-disciplinary. The Executive Committee will be responsible for arranging for financing the operation of the Secretariat once the International Association has been established. It is through the Executive Committee that responsibility for management will pass from the Council of the Bureau of Municipal Research to the member groups. The Executive Committee will meet only when necessary, although annual meetings are presently contemplated.

183. **Associate Membership** will be granted to international organizations, universities, research institutions and other institutions interested in metropolitan area government and development. Acceptability of such organizations as associate members will rest with the central Secretariat.

OPERATION OF THE ASSOCIATION

184. It is proposed that each member group meet quarterly to discuss issues of local concern. The local groups would then be able to evaluate which issues may be advantageously resolved by making use of the experiences of the Association's membership. Requests for assistance from the Association would be forwarded to the Secretariat which will be in a position to answer the request or to arrange for appropriate action by one or more of the member groups of the Association. In this way, the vast experience available through this network of persons of common interest could be brought to bear on the individual problems of any one group.

FUNCTIONS OF THE ASSOCIATION

STUDY AND TRAINING PROGRAMMES

185. Any one programme will provide an organized exchange of experiences and technical know-how designed to produce practical solutions to live issues confronting, in common, participating metropolitan areas.

186. The initiation of any one programme will be in response to the needs identified by the groups in their own (quarterly) meetings. Each group will inform the Secretariat of its specific interests. The Secretariat will identify those groups with common problems and, with them, develop a programme designed to meet their specific needs. The Secretariat, through its function of liaison with other international organizations working in related fields, will be in a position to avoid duplication of research effort and provide a maximum of coordination, especially at the planning stage, with any other programmes under way or being planned.

187. Any study group should comprise a representative cross-section of the community with persons from government, university, business and related backgrounds. Three or four such groups will probably be involved in any one study programme. Several study programmes may run concurrently.

188. In addition to the generation of new ideas and practical solutions to problems, there will be benefits to the individual participants. Practical involvement in this group activity will provide a training process of great benefit to those responsible for urban administration. Especially, it will help to answer the unmet need for persons competent in administration and decision-making at the metropolitan level of government. No such training programme presently exists.

INFORMATION SERVICES

a) Documents and data

189. Comparable information on the experiences of other metropolitan areas will be an invaluable asset to any member group in devising solu-

tions to its own problems. Although the Association will not maintain its own documentation and data centre, its own network of member groups will provide an excellent means of obtaining information on specific issues confronting metropolitan areas. Groups wishing information will be able to circulate requests either directly to other groups or via the Secretariat. To complement the services available through its own network, the Association will strive to improve comparability and world-wide availability of information.

190. Much information stored in the multitude of existing documentation and data centres may be of little use, either because of its non-comparability or the fact that its availability is not known. To ensure that all groups have an understanding of what, where and how information is now made available around the world, the Secretariat will develop a file on international and national sources of information relating to metropolitan areas. In time, the Secretariat will be in a position to inform the groups of the nature, scope, form of presentation and conditions of availability, of information stored in these centres. This will assist member groups in making enquiries directly to such centres and also assist the Secretariat in referring requests to appropriate sources of information. The Secretariat will maintain continuing contact with these centres and contribute to them information derived from the work of the Association.

191. Although many such centres now provide information on specific areas of interest, there are few national centres with information on metropolitan areas and, as yet, no attempt has been made to coordinate the presentation of information. Thus, the Association will respond to this need and, in its role of catalyst, will encourage the establishment of a world-wide network of national information centres (governmental and non-governmental) designed also to serve international needs. By encouraging governments to establish such centres and bringing together persons designing information systems, the Association will hopefully be able to stimulate the production of comparable information. As users of the information, the member groups will be able to indicate what information is most needed and how it should be presented. This should prove to be of great value to the authorities responsible for compiling information.

b) Personnel

192. The Secretariat will maintain a roster of experts most able to prepare papers, address conferences, organize action programmes and advise on research projects in all fields related to urbanization in underdeveloped and developing countries. This roster will extend beyond the Association membership and this service will be made available to other than Association members.

ADVISORY SERVICES FOR SPECIFIC GROUP PROJECTS

193. The wealth of experience and knowledge to be found in the Association will be utilized by any group needing help on a specific problem. The Secretariat, once informed of the problem, will put the group in touch with other member groups, or individuals, or outside organizations, thought most competent to advise on the problem. The Secretariat will also assist in bringing persons together for advisory meetings relating to major undertakings.

194. Additionally, it may be desirable for groups wishing to study certain problems in a search for specific solutions to utilize the network through direct visits to other metropolitan areas. The Secretariat will undertake to advise on which areas should be visited for studying specific fields of interest. By having other members available to respond to the needs of visitors, members would be able to both acquire the understanding of the urban problems and to study possible solutions.

LIAISON WITH OTHER INTERNATIONAL ORGANIZATIONS AND ENCOURAGEMENT OF INTERNATIONAL RESEARCH

195. This function is essential if the Association is to avoid duplication of research effort with other international organizations. However, the purposes will be more positive in that the Secretariat, on behalf of the Association, will work with other international organizations to encourage coordination of international research programmes. In maintaining contact with other international organizations, both governmental and non-governmental, the Secretariat will be able to inform the member groups of specific services provided by these organizations and to direct them to such organizations for advice when it is thought advantageous.

PUBLICATIONS

196. In response to the need for information on the Association's own activities and those of other organizations working in related fields, the Secretariat will produce the following publications.

- a) **Association Newsletter** containing information on group activities; forthcoming conferences (international, national, member groups); training programmes; the activities of other international organizations; and, papers, studies and articles of interest to members.
- b) **Findings of comparative study programmes** carried out by member groups.
- c) **Occasional studies** comprising other works coming to the attention of members and having sufficient interest to justify publication and possible translation.
- d) **Trends in metropolitan research:** a series providing an (annual) interpretation of the latest trends in research and the new techniques being employed in all fields relating to metropolitan area problems. To keep costs to a minimum, groups will be responsible for keeping the Secretariat informed of the most significant research completed and planned in their own countries. Where possible, documents would be sent to the Secretariat. Groups will undertake to keep the Secretariat informed of the above on a monthly or quarterly basis.

197. The world-wide network will greatly facilitate determining interest in publications and in marketing them at minimum cost.

198. It is unlikely that the Association will publish a journal on metropolitan affairs. The present need is seen to be less for new media for publication of new materials than for informing persons of published materials bearing on their interests.

CONFERENCES

199. To maintain personal contact among members and provide a forum for discussion of group programmes, the Association would provide for world-wide, regional and group meetings.

200. **World-wide conferences**, for the entire membership, will be held every four or five years. Such conferences might be hosted by one of the groups and organized by the group with assistance from the Secretariat.

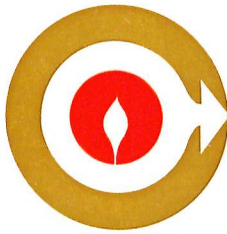
201. **Conferences on specific topics**, for groups participating in study programmes or action programmes, will be hosted by one of the groups involved and organized by these groups and the Secretariat.

202. **Group meetings** will be held at frequent intervals even if the group is not actively engaged in a study project. Such meetings will provide an opportunity for discussion of future projects. Public participation could also be arranged.

THE PROGRAMME STUDY PAPERS

The papers referred throughout this report were prepared during stage one of the programme. For the convenience of the reader, these papers are listed here. Additional copies of all papers are available in French. Those papers no longer available in English are marked with an *. There is a charge of \$1.50 per copy for postage and handling. The Reference Handbook on Metropolitan Areas is \$10.00 per copy. For additional copies, please contact the International Association for Metropolitan Research and Development, Suite 406, 4 Richmond Street East, Toronto 1, Canada.

- Paper No. 1 Forstall, Richard and Jones, Victor: *Selected Demographic, Economic, and Governmental Aspects of the Contemporary Metropolis* (Toronto: Bureau of Municipal Research, 1967).
- Paper No. 2 Gorynski, Juliusz and Rybicki, Zygmunt: *The Functional Metropolis and Systems of Government* (Toronto: Bureau of Municipal Research, 1967).
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