SOCIAL COMMUNICATIONS IN PLANNING

by

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this thesis is to explore the role of communications in planning and to suggest the design specifications and constraints for a social communications delivery system which will enable planners to cope with the demands of an "information ecology" (Nanus, 1972, p.398) or environment characterized by increasing flows of information and complexity of information systems. In such an environment, there is a need to provide for an element of information in the overall planning process. The use of information in planning is described as "social communications", which we have defined as "the use of information/communications systems to achieve planning objectives normally incorporating an element of social change".

Our theoretical framework is based on the concept that the societal forces behind the evolution of an information ecology may be first, the emergence of the postindustrial society (Bell, 1973) in which information, or knowledge, becomes a major resource; and second, the rising demands of citizens to participate in the decision-making process, particularly when such decisions affect them. In designing our social communications delivery system, therefore, we have attempted to incorporate public participation strategies as one mode of communication.
The study reviews the relevant literature in the field of planning theory, public participation and communications. It describes the essential characteristics of traditional communications modes, and presents a case study in which a public participation program was used as a social communications mode. Finally, it presents models for "one-way" and "two-way" social communications systems for incorporating public participation in a social communications program, and for a social communications delivery system which includes all three elements, e.g. both "one-way" and "two-way" channels and public participation.

The study concludes that the planner may utilize a social communication system if he has a need to disseminate information about projects and policies and at least a partial need to obtain response, or feedback, from his target groups. This is likely to be the case if he is planning for innovation. It also concludes the planner's success in utilizing social communications in the planning process will depend largely on his selection of the appropriate degree of participation and mode of communication. Other essential elements are the selection of relevant units of information and the design of an efficient information delivery system.

The study is based mainly on a review of the literature and interviews with officials of the Canadian Radio and Telecommunications Commission and related agencies. The study
also draws on the professional work of the author when she served as Assistant Director-General, Information, Canadian Habitat Secretariat, on the occasion of the staging in Vancouver of HABITAT: United Nations Conference on Human Settlements, May 31 - June 11, 1976.
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1.1 INTRODUCTION

There is a conceptual undercurrent running through the planning literature which views information as both a source and a means of energy, or power. Both Meier (1962) and Bell (1973) view information as an energy flow or system. The impact of information as energy is deemed by several writers to affect both the physical and social aspects of human settlements.

Kalba (1973) expresses the prevailing viewpoint when he argues that information services and systems will have as significant an impact on the shape and activities of future communities as the automobile has had on existing settlement patterns. Sackman and Boehm (1972) have explored the concept of the information utility, which will link communities of the future by means of computers, video-recorders and other communications technology into a wired world. Wise (1971) suggests that electronic communications can both expand people's awareness of their similarities and differences, and thus bring them closer together, and isolate them by enclosing many social and cultural activities within the home.
Nanus argues that information is as important to the human condition as water or energy and suggests that the life of a community may be re-organized around a new "information ecology" (1972, p. 398) with profound impacts on community residents. Comparing the impact of information with that of the automobile, Nanus points out "... the automobile and the skyscraper reshaped the city but in the process of absorbing these changes the city in turn reshaped the life-styles, interests and values of its residents" (1972, p. 375).

Despite this interest in the subject, most urban planners have ignored the role of communications or information in planning, apparently - if the absence of definitive analysis in the planning literature is taken as an index - because planning techniques in this field appear to be in their infancy. One popular viewpoint, heard repeatedly in private discussions with planners, is that the best way to convey information about a plan is to "leak it to the press".

Yet the emerging importance of information systems and information flows within the planner's sphere of operation raises a number of intriguing questions:

1. What constitutes "information" or information systems?
2. Why is the impact of information systems and flows on communities and the people who live in them becoming so important?
3. What developments in planning theory take into account the emerging importance of information systems and flows?

4. How can planners accommodate information systems and flows in the planning process?

5. Can existing planning techniques, such as public participation, be utilized as a mode or method of incorporating information systems and flows into the overall planning process?

6. What new techniques might be evolved which will enable planners to cope with the increasing size of information flows, and complexity of information systems?

In this study, we have chosen to explore the potential role of public participation in communications, since public participation strategies involve people, and face-to-face communication between people was the earliest form of communication (Meier, 1962). The linkage between people and communication gives us a starting point in our search for techniques and strategies to enable the planner to face the challenge posed by the impact of the information ecology described by Nanus (1972).

1.2 RATIONALE

If information is indeed a source and means of power, we contend that information systems can be designed as carefully as other energy systems. Drucker (1969) defines
engineering as the "codification of the right way to do a task" (1968, p.270). If we accept this definition, we can develop the following analogy between information planning and pipeline planning, which also involves energy flows.

In selecting the right-of-way, or ROW, the pipeline engineer must choose the most efficient route, within the constraints imposed by the terrain, the technology of his system and the social, economic and environmental impact of his project. Similarly, the information planner must route his system through the human landscape in a manner which enables him to reach his target or market, in the most cost-effective manner and with a minimum of interference from external sources.

In his planning, the pipeline engineer must account for both the construction impact of his project and its operations phase, when his attention shifts from the utility to the transmission of energy flowing through it. In turn, the information planner must view his communications system as a conduit or a utility, which transmits messages or transactions. Each component has different planning implications.

The pipeline engineer takes into account the size and strength of the pipe used to construct his line, to ensure that it can withstand the pressure of energy funnelled through it. The information planner must design his system within certain stress tolerances to ensure that his messages are
transmitted from point of origin to point of destination in a controlled manner.

The pipeline planner slowly increases his throughput of energy over time, as supplies come on stream at the source, and as markets are found at the point of destination. Similarly, the information planner should carefully gauge the ability of his target groups to assimilate his product, and should upgrade the content and increase the flow of messages over a sustained period. Meier (1962) for instance, suggests that between thirty and sixty per cent of a quantity of information is retained by the recipient, and even that amount is slowly dissipated over time.

The pipeline planner may double or loop his main line to increase the flow of energy. He may build laterals from the main line to service different markets and tap different energy sources. In turn, the information planner constructs his network by utilizing a variety of communication tools designed to service diverse markets. The pipeline planner installs pumping stations to boost the pressure in his system and maintain an efficient flow of energy; the information planner incorporates into his system repeater stations, such as community information centres, to facilitate the dissemination and reception of messages.

Just as the pipeline planner may reduce the pressure of his energy flow at the intersection of the main line and local distribution systems, the information planner may need to
alter the form and content of his mainstream messages to allow for regional or ethnic differences, levels of literacy, local concerns and the capability of local delivery systems.

Both energy systems require monitoring and feedback devices to ensure an orderly flow and to identify potential trouble spots. Too much energy in either system can produce an overload; indeed, the preoccupation with "information overload" in the absence of properly designed systems is evident in the planning literature. The consequences of inadequate planning for both systems can be explosive; the point has been made that an information system which is open to manipulation, or which transmits biased messages aimed at generating discord and disorder can have as potentially damaging an impact as a Candu reactor which has been converted from peaceful use into a nuclear bomb (Axworthy, 1971). Axworthy states "... any link in the communication system which purposely or otherwise withholds information could lead to an instantaneous transmission of incorrect or incomplete information and if carried to an extreme, a nuclear holocaust" (1971, p.3).

If we assume that the authors noted above are correct in their assessment of the impact of information flows on human settlement systems and activities, there is a clear need to develop techniques which will enable planners to incorporate an information element in the overall planning process. The use of information in planning may be described as social communications.
1.3 DEFINITIONS

At this point, some clarification of terminology might be useful. The term "communications" is used in a number of ways in the literature, often interchangeably with the terms "information", "cybernetics" (or man-made communication), "mass communication", "media", "information utilities", etc. Goldstein (1974) points out that the term information theory has been used more or less synonymously with communication theory, and that a distinction between the two is rarely made. He then goes on to suggest definitions for each which are of limited use to us; communication theory, for instance, is defined in highly structured mathematic terms and information theory is equated with cybernetics (1974, p.13). Meier adroitly evades the task by dismissing the meaning of communication as "fairly self-evident" (1962, p.2). By borrowing liberally from the literature and by juxtapositioning words and meanings we have evolved the following definitions for the purposes of this work:

**Information** is defined as knowledge, messages or transactions which are transmitted via an information or communications system;

**Information System** is defined as a "sequence of states of an interacting population, each state being a function of preceding states" (Meier, 1962, p.2) in which the population is deemed to be composed of people, technical components or messages. Since this definition encompasses technology as well as transactions, the term may be used interchangably with **communications system**;
Social Communication is defined to be the use of information/communications systems to achieve planning objectives normally incorporating an element of social change;

Public Participation is defined as the involvement of citizens in the decision-making process, and implies the sharing, to some degree, of decision-making power in the planning process.

These definitions will be refined in the body of the study.

1.4 OBJECTIVES

The purpose of this thesis is to explore the role of communications in planning and to suggest the design specifications for a social communication delivery system which will aid planners in achieving planning goals and objectives. Further, we will suggest ways in which planners may incorporate public participation strategies in a social communications delivery system.

The study objectives are set out as follows:

1. To review the planning process and the role of public participation and social communications in order to identify those elements which would appear relevant to planning at the community level;

2. To describe how public participation strategies were used in a specific social communications case study;
3. To design the specifications and constraints for a social communications delivery system which incorporates a public participation element.

1.5 SCOPE

In discussing social communications, there is a very real danger of being distracted by the technical aspects of communications systems, as exemplified by Rosen (1976) with his futuristic visions of telepurchasing, telepolling and even flexmail - a facsimile system of transmitting letters. This tendency is characteristic of the literature. This thesis, however, attempts to concentrate on information as a planning tool, which will become more important as the new communications "hardware" comes into general use.

There are additional substantive and spatial limitations to the scope of the study. In regard to the former, emphasis has been placed where possible on the Canadian experience, although the theoretical framework necessarily draws on a broader base. In regard to the latter, the case study chosen explores planning issues at the regional level. There is clearly a danger in attempting holistic extrapolations to an issue based on localized experiences, and this limitation must be taken into account in formulating information policies.
1.6 METHODOLOGY

The preparation of this study involved an extensive literature review, with particular emphasis on planning theory, social communications, and public participation. The various approaches to public participation are well documented in the literature; the sparseness of analytical work in the field of social communications is widely acknowledged.

In particular, the resources utilized include the library and research staff of the Canadian Radio-Television Commission in Ottawa, which proved to be a most productive source of material. The case study was based on the regional information program developed by the author for Canadian Habitat Secretariat, on the occasion of HABITAT, United Nations Conference on Human Settlements, held in Vancouver May 31 to June 11, 1976.

In addition, numerous interviews were carried out in the field with practitioners in the media or social communications field. This aspect of the research program also involved viewing of films and video-tapes.

The reader will note that references to books and articles in the text follow the style adopted by the Journal of the American Institute of Planners.

1.7 ORGANIZATION

This study is organized in the following manner. Chapter One includes the introduction to the study and outlines the rationale, objectives, scope and the methodology utilized.
Chapter Two presents an overview of relevant theoretical approaches to planning and discusses the role of public participation and communication. Chapter Three deals with the traditional modes of communication of specific interest to planners and discusses current trends and future expectations.

Chapter Four reviews the case selected for study, with particular emphasis on the use of public participation as a communications mode. Chapter Five summarizes our findings and presents possible models for incorporating public participation in a social communications delivery system. It also presents our design specifications and constraints for a social communications system which includes a public participation element with comments on further areas for research in this field.
This definition is adapted from Meier, Richard L. (1962) *A Communications Theory of Urban Growth*, p. 2 (Cambridge, Mass.; Cambridge Technology Press of Massachusetts Institute of Technology) who uses it to define any system.
CHAPTER TWO
THE CONCEPTS

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In Chapter One, we have described how the increasing flow of information and the complexity of communications systems are expected to have a profound impact on the structure of communities and the activities of people who live in them. These trends pose a challenge for the planner, who finds himself faced with the need to accommodate the emerging importance of information in formulating his plan-making, with few guidelines to fall back on. He may find that conventional planning concepts are inadequate for the task at hand, and that new planning techniques are required in addition to those already available to him.

This chapter seeks to provide answers to the following questions raised in Chapter One:

- Why is the impact of information flows and systems becoming so dominant within the context of planning at the community level?
- What developments in planning theory take into account the emerging importance of information flows?

We hope to show that possible answers to these questions may be found in two societal forces which are altering the environment within which the planner functions. The first
is the emergence of the Post-Industrial Society (Bell, 1973) where information, or knowledge, is construed to be the most important economic resource, and where the ability to control or command information will determine the degree of social and economic power wielded by various groups in society (Meier, 1962). Kalba suggests that in a postindustrial era the central task facing the planner will be the need to plan for innovation. He describes this task, or demand, as "planovation" or the need to determine "the appropriate process for implementing a given innovation" (1974, p.152).

The second societal force is the increasing demands being made by citizens and citizens' groups to participate in the decision-making process, particularly when such decisions affect them. This demand has been described as citizen or public participation, and has been well documented in planning literature (Cahn and Passett, 1971; Draper, 1971). Kalba expects the demand for public participation will increase in the postindustrial society to the point where "participant planning" (1974, p.149) will override rational decision-making.

We will attempt to show that the link between these two forces - the emergence of the postindustrial era and of public participation - is information. We have already described the use of information in planning as social communications. Later in this study we discuss methods of
utilizing social communications as a process for "planovation" or planning for innovation. We will further discuss ways of utilizing public participation strategies as a mode of social communication. First, however, we must address ourselves to our initial study objective:

To review the planning process and the role of public participation and social communication in order to identify those elements which would appear relevant to planning at the community level.

First, we will attempt to define what the planning process is all about, and what new theoretical concepts are emerging. Second, we will review the theoretical approaches to public participation. Third, we will examine developments in the social communications field.

2.2 THE PLANNING PROCESS

An extensive review of the theoretical approaches to planning is beyond the scope of this work. We will adopt the prevailing view that planning involves choices, and that, in turn, choices involve values. Davidoff and Reiner define planning as "... a set of procedures ... a process for determining appropriate future action through a sequence of choices" (1962, p.103). Fox defines planning as a "... formulated method of doing something ... the formulation
of objectives and the evaluation of alternative ways of meeting an objective" (1970, p.213).

The terms "goals and objectives", "choices and alternatives", "values and evaluation" are the currency of planning. Kalba says the traditional planning paradigm is "... largely conceived as a sequence of analytically differentiated steps, moving from problem and goal clarification to projection and evaluation of alternative solutions to selection and implementation of programs" (1974, p.153). City planner Herbert Gans has a similarly structured view of planning (as) "... a method of public decision-making which emphasizes explicit goal-choice and rational goals-means determination, so that decisions can be based on the goals people are seeking and on the most effective programs to achieve them" (1968, p.1).

The planning process as outlined by Fox (1970) is one generally suggested in the literature as follows:

1. The planner seeks to identify and understand the likely range of preferences of different groups in our society;
2. Planning organizations develop a set of alternative programs which reflect the preferences of these groups. In order to serve minority preferences, the alternative programs would include components that would serve and protect minority as well as popular preferences;
3. The alternative plans would be debated by the public and/or its political representatives;
4. The planning organization would firm up alternative plans in light of the debate by the public and its representatives so that they may be considered for final action;

5. The political representatives of the public would select the plan for action.

There is less unanimity on the issues of where planning starts, or more importantly stops. Fox argues that the planning process is not merely a case of specifying an objective and a way of attaining it, but a constant weighing of objectives in the light of alternatives: "If the cost is more than the individual or the organization can afford, then the objective is changed and new plans are considered" (1970, p. 214). Friedmann (1973) considers planning an on-going, or evolving, process without specific ends; once an objective is reached, another one emerges. In contrast, Davidoff and Reiner feel that a necessary component of the planning act is the achievement of ends:

Our definition of planning incorporates a concept of a purposive process keyed to preferred, ordered ends. Such ends may be directions or rates of change, as well as terminal states. Means are not proposed for their own sake, but as instruments to accomplish these". (1962, p. 106)
They qualify this somewhat rigid stance by adding "... ends are not given, irrevocable but are subject to analysis" (1962, p.106). However, the authors - who maintain that planning assumes that man controls his destiny - apparently do not conceive of destiny as open-ended and undirected.

However, the selection of objectives and the means of attaining them impose relatively minor burdens on the planner, compared with the problems of weighing alternatives and with attempting to deal with future uncertainties. The values on which choices are made cannot be verified by empirical data, and involve different value standards, note Davidoff and Reiner (1962, p.106). Fox (1970) confesses that despite his earlier illusions, he has concluded that the unbiased engineer, economist or other technician does not exist. Value analysis as practiced by Fielding (1970) in freeway location is a pragmatic attempt to change people's values over time through the utilization of information and participation technologies.

The concepts of advocacy or pluralistic planning, as developed by Davidoff (1965) and Goodman (1971), were attempts to reflect the values of minorities or interest groups in the planning process. But not everyone wants planners to purge themselves of the sin of value-ridden concepts. Native worker Art Blue urged community development workers attending a Canadian seminar to hold to a vision (Gwyn, 1972):
You say to me, ... I don't want to go into communities and change them. I want to allow them to change for themselves. Don't fool with me ... You have ideals, and you have meaning, and if you have meaning, you must also have this vision. You cannot go empty, or you would not go at all.

If values cannot be measured, Davidoff and Reiner (1962) claim they can be referred to other value statements in the hierarchical structure. Rosen (1976) reproduces a "value scale" designed by Milton Rokeach to measure personal values and priorities by income groups. Rosen argues that personal values of social groups are important indicators of future change, since values change with age. Differences in the values of specific age groups can be correlated with demographic shifts in the population to assist in making future projection. Statistical comparisons can be made for different age, income and educational levels.

Webber (1963) assigns to planners the important task of delineating the probable range of future choice. Bell (1968) claims that while the future cannot be forecast, certain events or innovations can be predicted. However, Kalba (1974) makes the intriguing point that "innovation planning" will require a redefinition of the planning process, the development of new planning mechanisms, teaching and research techniques - in short, a major "retooling" of the planning process, from the conceptual to the implementation stage. The argument is as follows.
Sociologist Daniel Bell (1973) maintains that the world's industrial countries - including the U.S. and Canada - are moving towards a new economic era, which is dominated by the provision of services rather than by the production of goods and where the public sector becomes a major employer. Bell terms this era the "Post-Industrial Society" or the successor to the era of Industrial Revolution.

These structural changes are already evident in our society. In Canada, less than thirty years ago, two out of three employees worked at producing goods of some sort (Post, 1975). Only one out of three held a government job, or worked in an office or other service position. Today the situation is reversed. Already more than sixty per cent of Canada's workforce is employed in the production of services, compared to only twenty per cent in manufacturing and six per cent in agriculture. This trend is expected to continue in the future, and similar developments are taking place in the U.S. It is anticipated that by 1980, close to seven in every ten workers in the U.S. will be in service occupations (Grappert, 1974).

Bell lists the five principal components of the Post-Industrial Society as:

- The shift from a goods-producing labour force to a service-producing economy;
The growing influence of the professional and technical class in society;

The central role of theoretical knowledge as the source of innovation and of policy formulation for society;

increased control of and planning for technological growth, i.e. a future orientation;

The creation of a new intellectual technology to manage large scale systems through information manipulation (Bell, 1973).

In Bell's analysis, the growth industries, or services of the future, are health, education, research and government. In the private sector he emphasizes the growth of finance, insurance, real estate and wholesale and retail trade.

What Bell is describing is essentially an elitist society, where knowledge is power, and power is controlled by the universities and research organizations. In Bell's Post-Industrial Society, professionals and technicians will make up the new "working class". The ability to acquire and use knowledge, or information, will be the key talent in demand in such an economic system.

Despite this apparent technological bias, Bell argues that future decision-making will be more political than ever before, since choice will become more conscious, and decision-making centres more exposed to view. But if political bargaining is to replace rationality, asks Kalba in making his
central point, then how will this be done? "How will the gap between technocracy and participation be dealt with?" (1974, p.149).

He reviews as possible options the "planning models" developed by John Friedmann (1973). Departing from classical or traditional views of planning, Friedmann views planning as a strategy for change, or "... concerned with producing change and with maintaining organizational stability under conditions of change" (1973, p.xv-xvi). Kalba interprets Friedmann's concept as one which abandons plan-making, or the planning method of goals, alternatives, evaluation, and implementation under highly centralized control. Friedmann terms this concept "command" planning, and suggests three options: "policies planning", "corporate planning" and "participant planning" (Kalba, 1974, p.149); Kalba labels these Post-Industrial Society options as the technocratic, the oligarchic and the participatory, and summarizes them as follows:

Policies Planning maintains control through the provision of general guidelines, criteria and material incentives, and the dissemination of information for decentralized planning. This alternative requires more knowledge of the relationships between policy incentives and their outcomes than does command planning.
Corporate Planning involves negotiations between representatives of major interest groups which aims at a temporary mutual adjustment of interests. This variation on the political process may be expanded in the future to include government and citizen interests as well as established corporate entities, suggests Kalba.

Participant Planning is favoured by Friedmann and involves decision-making at the community level, in the form of neighbourhoods, cooperatives, or voluntary organizations. The professional planner's role in participant planning is limited to that of animator and information dispensor:

...[it includes] rallying the community around the common tasks, helping its members to learn about the problems they are facing and the available methods of dealing with them, and providing a constant stream of information about those relevant aspects of the external environment (1973, p. 78)

Instead of Bell's elitist society, where the technocrats control information - and by implication, power - Friedmann postulates a society where information is controlled at the local level by small units, or:

... a cellular hierarchy of assemblies, with a small-size working group as the base of each aggregation ... Guidance will be accomplished by the invisible hand of working groups which are verbally processing great quantities of information, aided by technical secretariats (the planners) and transmitting their needs to successively higher levels of guidance (Kalba, 1974, p.150).
Friedmann fails to explain how this organic structure will actually work, particularly how the information flows will be transmitted. Bell (1973), Friedmann (1973) and Kalba (1974) all admit there are basic structural problems to be overcome. These include:

- The need to make technical information more widely accessible to the general public, without triggering information overload;
- The need to devise better means of communicating local demands to bureaucrats without relying exclusively on such expensive inputs as census data, opinion polls, case workers, etc.;
- The need to develop decision-making mechanisms which facilitate intensive discussion and resolution of issues.

The solutions to these structural problems imply new technology and innovation - including the whole range of futuristic communications hardware - and it is the critical issue of planning for innovation, or "planovation" which is raised by Kalba:

It is this issue of determining the appropriate process for implementing a given innovation around which post-industrial planning will take shape. This will be true whether the specific concern is land development, welfare programs, energy conservation or information
utilities. And, ultimately, it is the very search for such a publicly-condoned process of introducing major social and economic changes ... that characterizes the new societal age ..." (1974, p.152).

The need for "planovation", as envisaged by Kalba, has very little to do with Bell's projected growth in theoretical knowledge or Friedmann's fancies about public participation. Rather, argues Kalba, it reflects:

- The impact of applied knowledge on the public's understanding of planning issues (e.g. arsenic from gold mining pollutes water);
- The input of journalism in disseminating and dramatizing this information (possible victims of arsenic poisoning);
- The emergence of powerful interest groups, or national lobbies with the power to force change (Indian Brotherhood forces federal health survey of native children to ascertain evidence of arsenic poisoning).

Kalba acknowledges that the need to accommodate a more informed public will lead to increased participant planning, but he is more inclined to the view that a new planning mode will develop. Essentially, this new mode would be an expanded form of corporate planning, where major interest groups negotiate trade-offs on an ad hoc or continuing basis, with each party "seeking to expand the scope of decision-making in return for a reduction of uncertainty concerning the decision-making environment" (1974, p.152).
He terms this mode **competitive planning** for three reasons:

- Since innovation planning is likely to take place in a multi-organizational, multi-interest context, there will probably be considerable negotiation among competing interests at each planning phase;
- Since not all relevant interests could reasonably be involved in each planning effort, participants would compete for input;
- The current competitive approach to planning among planning agencies at all levels is likely to continue in the postindustrial era.

The implications for planning methodology are profound. Kalba suggests that his more open planning environment will require a more continuous process of interaction between the planners and the planned for. This implied information flow will necessitate "... a redesign of the underlying planning paradigm as a dynamic process in which numerous interests and organizations interact through time" (1974, p.154).

In turn, these emerging energy flows will require that planning education take into account information-processing methods and interactive procedures, through role-playing, use of video-tape and films, and other innovative methods. "Indeed", says Kalba, supporting the thrust of this study, "the use of inexpensive film and video methods could generally enhance the planner's ability to deal with qualitative information" (1974, p.154).
This section has reviewed, at a macro level, prevailing theories relating to planning and emerging concepts which call for a redesign of more traditional concepts. We turn next to a review of the theoretical approaches to communications.

2.3 THE ROLE OF COMMUNICATIONS

Earlier in this chapter we introduced Kalba's concept (1974) of "planovation", or planning for innovation. We reviewed Kalba's argument that the issue of determining the appropriate process for implementing innovation will dominate planning in the emerging postindustrial era.

We also defined social communications as the use of communication/information systems to achieve specific social objectives normally incorporating an element of change. In this section, we will attempt to show that social communications may be an appropriate process for planovation. We will review the relevant theoretical approaches to communications and suggest certain criteria, or elements, which such a communications system should possess if it is to be an effective process for planning for innovation.

Theoretical Approaches to Communications

There is no general theory of communications (Fanelli, 1956). Even Meier (1962), who is extensively quoted in most bibliographies on the subject and titled his work, A Communications Theory of Urban Growth, never got around to developing
a rigorous communications model (Goldstein, 1974). The book, initially viewed by Meier as an interim report, has never been updated by the author, nor has he published a more explicit theoretical model. Although the work is widely known, Meier's ideas have not been advanced by others, nor has his challenge that communications approach to urbanism could provide powerful insights into urban systems. The relative lack of comment on Meier's work is not unique; Elliot (1974) comments that as a general rule, mass communications researchers appear to be dissatisfied with the subject; the literature is full of attempts to repudiate old approaches and start new ones.

Meier conceives of the city as a living system, with specific components that evolve through an identifiable process of birth, development, maturity and decline. He argues that cities evolved primarily to aid or facilitate communication between people. In the beginning, cities made it possible for people to communicate by living close together in a small space. As the civilization advanced, and more complex forms of communication were required, the urban system grew correspondingly more complex. He suggests there is a correlation between communications, knowledge and controls and the growth of cities.

Meier says that communications of all types have come to dominate the urban scene and to shape urban development.
Examples are the automobile, the postal systems, the flood of newspapers, magazines and journals, television channels, radio, telephones and telecommunications.

He suggests that there is a correlation between the intensity of communications and the growth of cities. Urban attributes, such as "economies of scale" or "increased accessibility" are reflections of communications phenomena; for instance, scale economies result from increased clustering, which implies improved possibilities of communications, and access reflects increased opportunities to communicate.

Several years before sociologist Daniel Bell (1973) conceived of his information elite - the academics and intellectuals whom Bell expected to corner the market on information - Meier perceived the potential of information as a control agent. He makes the important point:

If, by definition, information brings with it the capacity to select from an ensemble of alternatives, whoever has this information is in a position to discover that some of the alternatives yield more of the commodities that are temporarily scarce than others. Thus wherever information is highly concentrated, one expects to find social influence, wealth or political power, sometimes all three together (1962, p.150).

He also observed that the flow of information, as a social unit, has many of the same characteristics as the flow
of economic values; both the sender and receiver attribute value to a communications commodity, or message, which can be measured in units of utility in the same manner as we can measure money or time. And the greater the information transmitted in a message, Meier reasoned, the greater the opportunity for using that information to manipulate the social environment. See Figure 1.

The basic unit in Meier's system is the transaction which "... implies an exchange between individuals or groups participating in a society. The exchange may involve goods ... or services, but not necessarily. A transaction always involves some communication of information ..." (1962, p.40). Repeated transactions lead to a linkage between people or groups, a preference for a specific control or relationship which develops into a network of urban relations.

The messages which are transmitted in social transactions represent an information flow between sender and receiver. Each day, an individual in an urban environment is bombarded with messages, and spends some time emitting messages of his own. Privacy is the shield against messages. Homes are screens from communication. While television and radio transfer messages, libraries, archives and museums accommodate the lag between sending and receiving messages by storing them.
FIGURE 1. MEIER'S MODEL OF COMMUNICATIONS FLOW
Education promotes communication, Meier proposes: "Education may also be conceived as an orderly process of communication which conveys symbols in such a fashion that concepts can be pyramided level upon level" (1962, p.163).

He argues that the higher the education level, the more complex are the concepts that can be transmitted. This allows more sophisticated procedures to be used.

Meier suggests that it is possible to measure the bits or amounts of information conveyed by measuring typical transmission rates and multiplying them by the amount of time allocated to the activity by the target population. He introduces the term "hubits" or a "bit" of meaningful information received by a human being. The amount of information which is retained by a human is a cultural characteristic. The per capita flow of information is a function of urban size, he suggests, and is lower in villages than in larger urban centres.

Meier argues that there is an upper limit to the amount of information which can be conveyed at any one time, beyond which the system suffers from "information overload" or congestion. Increases in the amount of time devoted to information activities would reduce the amount of time available for sport, sleep, meals, etc. Sometimes the overload is a result of an institutional deficiency, rather than people's innate capacity for information; he cites the case where
people performed happily in an organization so long as it was operating efficiently. When transactions became more frequent, and backlogs accumulated, people made errors and showed signs of stress (1962, p. 72-74)^1.

Meier has estimated that the per capita annual growth rate in the transmission of "hubits" is between three and six per cent (1962, p. 133). At that rate, he says, it would take less than thirty years - or before 1992 - to reach the practical limits of human communications and less than seventy-five years to reach the theoretical limits.

Meier develops his concept of a city as a "living system" to the point where he applies the laws of physics, relating to entropy, which he defines as "... a derived, second-order concept that can indicate the loss or gain in order (organization) due to energetic transactions between parts of a system" (1962, p. 144). He explains that during some work on the social and economic consequences of automation, he arrived at a fundamental insight, "... that of a city as an open system that must, if it is to remain viable, conserve negative entropy [information]" (1962, p. v). He adds that entropy can be measured "... by an accounting system that considers both the stock of knowledge available at various addresses and the content of the messages received". He further defines "open system" as "...one which requires a
flow of inputs from the environment and a transfer to the environment of a flow of outputs ..." (1962, p.144).

He develops this argument in an attempt to postulate a "civic man" who would act in some rational manner to stimuli in the same fashion that "economic man" responds to economic stimuli.

Meier uses the simplistic analogy of energy as a "downhill flow", moving from hotter bodies to cool ones. Extra effort, or energy, is required to reverse the flow "uphill" from cooler to hotter bodies. This heat loss measures the quantity of entropy. Over time, postulates Meier, the hottest elements would become cooler and the cooler elements would become warmer. Eventually the system would converge at some temperature where the energy flows were almost infinitesimal. Since nothing more could happen, he implies the system would be lifeless, without energy. By analogy, the city would be immobilized, without dynamic energizers to maintain the flow of communication activities required to keep the urban system functioning.

Meier prudently cites the warning issued by Cherry (1957) against the over-zealous application of the entropy concept:

Since this relationship has been pointed out we have heard of entropies of languages, social systems and economic systems and of its use in various method-starved studies. It is the kind of sweeping generality which
people will clutch like a straw ... the writer would assert that in true communications the concept of entropy need not be evoked at all (1957, p.187).

Without commenting on the debate we would note that Meier's "fundamental insight" need not constrain his basic point. He has already defined a system as "... a sequence of states of an interacting population, each state being a function of preceding states" (1962, p.2). This definition implies that there is some energy source propelling the interaction. Without the basic energizer, the transactions will not take place, and the system will seize up. There can be little argument with the concept of communication as a process, or dialogue, which requires participants, transactions and messages in order to function at all.

Although he fails to evolve an explicit model, Meier develops some specific principles of information, as follows:

**Proposition I**: "If a society of mortal individuals is to survive, information must be conserved" (1962, p.150)

Meier augments this statement by admitting that there is always a loss of information attributable to attrition by random environmental events. He explains that information accumulation must proceed at least as rapidly as the average rate of attrition, and need not distinguish between information stored or transmitted.
Proposition II: "A sector of society that grows in influence, wealth or power, measured in absolute terms, must experience a growth in information flow that occurred prior to or simultaneously with the other recorded growth (1962, p.151).

Meier places one constraint on this statement. As "information overload" builds up, and people start working close to their information capacity, greater reliance will have to be placed on the transfer of routine information by automation. Thus he would include interactions between automatic equipment as well as between people.

Proposition III: "If advanced societies are to increase their organization (and capacities for cultural interaction) the interactions between automata in their service must increase even more rapidly" (1962, p.151).

Meier points out that as the stock of information grows, the marginal value of adding to the stock will decline for decision-making purposes. There is a strong incentive to have automated equipment work with this stock of information and make simple decisions, reserving the role of cultural exploration and innovation for people.
Additional Theoretical Concepts

Although Meier's book appears to dominate what sparse discussion exists on the subject of communications and urbanization, the work of others has potential implications for planners, and should be referred to here.

Generally, comment on communications and urbanization tends to fall within two subject areas. The first is the effect on the spatial and physical nature of urbanization. The second is more subjective, and deals with the effect on people's sense of "community", and on their interrelationships.

There are a number of interesting ideas in the first group of commentators. Kalba (1974) suggests that the post-industrial city may not be a city at all in the conventional sense:

... if the scenario of the information utility is accurate, the location of businesses as well as households will no longer be constrained by proximity. Random social access and non-contiguous economies of scale will replace the territorial imperatives of central place theory (1974, p.329).

Pred (1975) is interested in the linkages between metropolitan centres and multi-locational businesses. In his work on informational linkages between cities and multi-locational firms, he makes two points:
The most important non-local linkages (e.g. outside an urban centre) are not those between the metropolis and the hinterland - as postulated in central place theory - but those between large metropolitan areas. This has important implications for growth centres;

The overall pattern of metropolitan interdependence associated with asymmetrical spatial structures or organizations is complex. One reason is that metropolitan centres of a given size frequently provide job control and other links to larger metropolitan complexes. Another reason is that there is an extensive criss-crossing of economic ties between large metro areas on one hand, and medium and small metro centres on the other hand.

Pred says that these points have important implications for regional planning, since the number of jobs under the direct and indirect influence of metropolitan based multi-locational organizations is expanding rapidly. Pred wonders how a greater regional equality of labour market conditions be attained through rearranging and manipulating the spatial structure of numerous multi-locational organizations.

Specifically, he asks: "How can explicit and implicit organizational location decisions be influenced or controlled in order to help bring about greater regional equality in terms of per capita income, labour market alternatives and the public service accessibility?" (1975, p.139).
Previously we noted Meier's argument that changes in the physical structure of cities are primarily attributable to the substitution of messages for other inputs - such as human time, movement, energy, water, construction materials - whose costs are increasing over time. Wellman (1973) discusses the concept of the network-based community, which can develop without much regard for spatial constraints. He suggests that spatial communities, such as local neighbourhoods, are only one type of community. Others are linked by transportation and communications facilities. The scale of the city and the range of possible linkages encourage the development of specialized communities, whose members will be bonded by common interests. Most urbanites will belong to many such communities in a more plural society.

Harris (1967) was among the first to comment on the impact of communications technology on the construction and operation of cities. The conversion from face-to-face communications to interaction by radio and wire have important social implications which he acknowledges. Tonuma (1970) analyzed the effects of communication and transportation on human settlements, and came to the conclusion that by the year 2000, Japan might become a single urban complex; or a "network city".

Some constraints on this line or argument have been presented by Livingstone (1969) who summarized a conference which concluded that the major urban centres in highly
industrialized countries do not have appreciably better communications than other locations in those countries, and the large urban centre's advantage of speed and economy in communication has diminished in the past century. This would suggest that at some point, the contribution of communications to urban growth diminishes in importance. Katzman (1970) continues the unhelpful debate on communication flow and social entropy.

The subjective analysis of communications deals mainly with man and his world, and the writers in this area have more scattered interests. There is considerable discussion about the process of communication at the community level.

Fanelli (1956) develops the concept of communication extensiveness, or the range of an individual's communications contacts. He suggests that the range of contacts of any individual depends on his relationship to the community and his actual participation in community affairs. Since a person's perception of community affairs is thus a function of his communications extensiveness, Fanelli advocates the removal of communications barriers between various groups in a community.

Webber and Webber (1956) add some support to Fanelli's argument with their work on the different uses of communications by various groups in North American society. They suggest that the so-called "intellectual elite" utilize a large number
of communication channels - the mails, telephone, academic journals and transportation modes - to communicate on a basis of shared interest and to overcome their spatial separation. On the other hand, "working class" people tend to create their networks of association on the basis of kinship and residential propinquity. This publication preceded Melvin Webber's later work (1963) which suggested that as communications grow more flexible, the site-specific "community" will diminish. Individuals will belong to "interest communities", which may be widely distributed in space, rather than to an ancestral home. In time, the dichotomy between rural and urban areas will disappear.

Wise (1971) is more concerned with the possible social separation of people by providing them access via telecommunications to business, recreational and shopping activities. He suggests that this development would enclose many social and cultural activities within the home, which could alienate people from their community. Limiting factors on this argument include the increased propensity for people to travel, and on balance Wise concludes that telecommunications will expand rather than narrow the choices of activity available to urban dwellers.

Riley and Riley (1959) also warn that the message should not be separated from the social process. They suggest that communications between individuals are not random or unrelated
acts, but part of an overall pattern of on-going interactions between a larger group. They do not view communications as single transactions between sender and receiver; a great deal of the information flow between two individuals is indirect and tends to proliferate through other group members. They argue that all individuals involved in the communication process, directly or indirectly, are related to one another in the social system and this communications flow takes place within this system.

Deutsch (1966) views communication as the key element in defining and binding people together into a national group. However, Seeley (1962) rejects communications as a bonding element, and suggests instead that the presence of communications implies that a community has been interrupted, and that some change in society is being sought. Marshall McLuhan (1965) who gives us the phrase "the medium is the message", perceives of the media - one form of communication system - as extensions of man, of his body, his central nervous system and his intellect. McLuhan postulates that the media distort our perceptions of reality - both of our inner selves and our outer environment:

The constraints on reality are the linear constraints of print, absence of visual dimension from radio transmissions, and the power of the cameraman to generate within the film or the viewer a sense of involvement more apparent than real (Starrs and Stewart, 1971, p.63).
Blumler and Katz (1974) make the point that people use mass communication to connect, or disconnect themselves with different kinds of others. This concept is more subjective than the hardware-oriented vision of a "wired world", which links individuals in a network of cables, microwave systems and satellites.

Axworthy (1971) draws the comparison between the increasing technology of communication and the rising complexity of government. He notes: "Government is the basis of civilization – and communication is the basis of government" (1971, p.1). He poses the problem of ensuring an open system of information in a world which is rapidly ensnaring itself in complicated technological communications systems. Yet governments must plan their programs on the basis of some perception of public demand – a process that requires some form of communication.

The working paper on Citizen Involvement developed for the Ontario government's Committee on Government Productivity says that conventional approaches to communications between the governments and the governed, tend to stress a "one-way" flow of information, from government to citizen, or from citizen to government. The new requirement is for a "two-way" flow of information. The working paper reports that new developments in communications technology will make such a "two-way" channel possible. It predicts that separate systems for telephone, telegraph, television and data transmission
will disappear, to be replaced with one single unified network for all kinds of messages. Communication will become a total, integrated interdependent system utilizing a variety of media; information will flow through the network as on-off digital signals, and will appear as pictures, sound or print depending on the individual's choice.

The working paper raises some crucial questions about the regulation of the new technology. Who should have the responsibility for managing and controlling the development of the new technology - Kalba's "planovation" - in the public interest? Should the community being served have some control over television facilities, and who should pay for them? What guidelines should be developed to regulate the tricky question of access to the communications system?

Starrs and Stewart (1971) in another working paper developed for the Committee claim that the media today are mainly one-way communications channels, whose messages are determined by sponsors and advertisers, using the criteria of profitability:

In the place of a two-way learning process, the media have become a vehicle through which the few to whom access is permitted educate others in the light of their own perceptions and understanding (1971, p.63).
Starrs and Stewart overrate the role played by sponsors and advertisers in determining message content, but they are correct in the perception of media reluctance to open up the communications channel. Nor is this a purely Canadian phenomenon. Writing on the involvement of viewers in television programming Patricia Wood (1971) sums up:

The mass media in America are businesses. No citizen involvement is appreciated, except in buying the products that keep the airwaves filled and the newspapers thick (1971, p.287).

Access to the media can be gained by the creation of a "media event" or the staging, by citizens, or some program which attracts coverage by the media (Goldfarb, 1977). In this way, terrorists can commandeer space to air their grievances, demonstrators can convey their point of view to a mass audience, prisoners can win air time to protest grievances essentially internal to the prison system, such as the use of solitary confinement, or "the hole" as a disciplinary measure.

Social Communications Criteria

In this section, we have summarized the theoretical approaches to communications. Earlier we defined social communications as the use of information/communication systems
for planning purposes, normally incorporating a change element. Planning for change, or innovation, is termed "planovation" by Kalba and will, in his view, require "... a redesign of the underlying planning paradigm as a dynamic process in which numerous interests and organizations interact through time" (1974, p.154).

It would appear to us that the transmission of messages or transactions between senders and receivers could contribute towards the more continuous process of interaction between planners and the planned for, envisaged by Kalba, and here we identify some of the elements which a social communications system should have if it is to be effective in such a role.

1. **Message**: Since communications involve a transaction between a receiver and a sender, there must be a specific unit of information or message to be transmitted. The message must have some value, or utility, to either the receiver or sender to justify its transmission;

2. **Two-way Channel**: Social communications, in order to be effective, requires a feedback mechanism, so that responses to information messages may be relayed back and forth between senders and receivers. A one-way information flow is not likely to accommodate social goals;

3. **Access**: The control of information and information flows implies power, since the possession of messages and the transmission system enables groups or individuals to
choose between various alternatives. Therefore the information system should be open to any individuals affected by "planovation", and not concentrated in the hands of a few;

4. **Audience**: The transmission of a message implies both a sender and receiver. In a two-way communications system, each is the audience of the other. In some cases, the audience may be an entire community. In others, the target group may represent only a portion of the community.

5. **Multi-modal**: Since different groups in a community transmit messages by different modes, a social communications system should be sufficiently comprehensive to accommodate a pluralistic society, or the components should reflect the needs of the target audience;

6. **Spatial Dimension**: Some participants in a social communications system may be spatially separated and bonded by special interests. Other participants may be bonded by proximity. The scope and distribution of a social communications system should take this into account;

7. **Conservation/Repetition**: Information is a perishable commodity, constantly made obsolete, constantly renewed. Those messages which contain information which is valuable over time should be conserved, renewed and reinforced, so that it is not prematurely dissipated.

8. **Avoidance of Information Overload**: People are bombarded with messages, and erect barriers or shields to achieve some privacy. A social communications system should
contain only those messages which are relevant to the target audience, and transmission of messages should be timed so that the audience is ready to receive them, i.e. consider their content.

9. **Avoidance of Alienation**: Various modes and messages of social communication can alienate people from their physical community - by providing services within the home normally supplied by the wider community - and from each other, by creating or reinforcing barriers between groups;

10. **Animator/Animation**: Even in a two-way communication system, there is a danger that the transmission of messages will be stalled by inertia, discontinuity or other impediments. The system requires an animator, or animating force, to provide the dynamic element required to keep the system running.

The planner already has at his disposal certain planning tools and techniques which he can utilize in designing a social communications system. One such tool is public participation strategies which include opportunities for dialogue between different groups in society. We now turn to a review of public participation in planning.

2.4 **THE ROLE OF CITIZEN PARTICIPATION**

So far in this chapter we have identified the potential need for the planning process to become more open and dynamic in the future in order to enable planners to accommodate the
demands of "planovation" (Kalba, 1974) or planning for innovation in the postindustrial era. We have also suggested that social communications may be an appropriate process for planovation, or the introduction of change elements. In this section, we will review the theoretical approaches to public participation and suggest that this planning tool could provide a "two-way" communications channel, between the planners and the planned for, in a more open planning process. We will also identify the elements which a participation program should include in order to carry out this role.

Few principles in planning are as controversial as the principle of citizen participation. It is alternatively embraced, rejected, derided, constrained and in at least one case (Starrs and Stewart, 1971) expanded to include the entire world.

Sociologist Sherry Arnstein (1971) observes that while many people pay lip service to the concept, they choke on the implementation:

The idea of citizen participation is a little like eating spinach; no one is against it in principle because it is good for you ... the applause is reduced to polite handclaps, however, when this principle is advocated by the havenot blacks ... and when the havenots define participation as redistribution of power, the American consensus on the fundamental principle explodes into many shades of outright racial, ethnic, ideological and political opposition (1971, p.294)
In language too expressive to paraphrase, authors Cahn and Cahn conclude that evaluating citizen participation is riddled with risk. Its evolution has been "... a journalist's badlands, a social planner's disaster, and a politician's nightmare" (1971, p.16). The authors add that citizen participation is expensive, time consuming, unpredictable, invisible, sometimes treacherous and often uncontrollable. They sum up:

Even at its best, and when most fully realized, it is precarious, fragile, vulnerable and easily destroyed or perverted. It is threatening, likely to invite retaliation, and likely to generate highly explosive and controversial situations (1971, p.10).

They add that with all of its faults it is indispensable. The principle is defended but its practice is defective, in the view of planning school drop-out Robert Goodman (1971) who claims that the efforts of advocacy planners such as Paul Davidoff to establish a new form of urban democracy have come to nothing. Citing his own abortive experience in attempting to involve people in the planning processes, Goodman accuses planners of being "soft cops", guilty of supporting the status quo at best and outright destructive at worst. Proponents of citizen participation don't actually mean it, he charges; it is just another way of pacifying the masses.
Such vigorous discussion of the principle merely serves to underline the fact that citizen participation has become a planning tool, whose use is, at best, tricky. The purpose of this section is to define the concept, to review briefly the circumstances which have led to its evolution and to discuss its potential uses and constraints. Finally, we hope to identify those elements of the citizen participation process which may be useful for the purposes of social communication.

A prevailing theme in the literature views citizen participation as a legitimate attempt by groups of citizens to achieve power. Burke defines power as "... the ability to exercise one's will even over the opposition of others" (1968, p.292). Arnstein describes citizen participation as a "categorical term for citizen power" (1971, p.71) while Head (1971) views the phenomenon as a form of countervailing pressure exerted by some groups who are attempting to influence government while limiting the influence of other groups.

Other definitions are not so hard edged. Warner defines public participation as "... actions taken by those not having decision-making authority to influence the decisions of those who do" (1971, p.2).

Citizen participation may be viewed as a goal in itself (Davis, undated) where the involvement of citizens is desirable for a specific objective, such as social reform or citizen
training or increased self esteem. Other commentators (Burke, 1968; Lazar, 1971) view it as a planning process, where participation is one of several means to a broader social goal. Burke synthesizes these two concepts into that of citizen participation as a "process goal" (1968, p.288) or a procedure to enable communities to develop their own problem-solving capacities.

There is general agreement that the impetus for citizen participation has been the increase in the size and complexity of bureaucratic decision-making, and the rising demands for professional skills and expertise in a technologically-oriented society. Dealing with the first aspect, the Committee on Government Productivity established by the Government of Ontario reported:

... it may be the paradox of our time that, in the interests of improving the welfare of the individual, governments have grown so huge and so complex that the individual feels that he does not personally matter to them (1973, Report #10, p.19)

It is worth noting that this apparently exhausted the committee's views on the matter, since only four paragraphs were devoted to the relationship between citizens and government and the many briefs presented were dismissed with the comment: "Several improvements were suggested to meet this challenge" (1973, Report #10, p.19).
The appropriate mix of public participation and professional expertise occupies the attention of many observers. Woodbury (1966) argues that one of the great weaknesses of regional planning is the trend toward limiting public discussion by emphasizing the technical aspects of planning. He says this is dangerous, since:

... the more the technical end grows, and the areas of public concern contract, the more difficult it will become for planning to command strong and widespread public support without which its greater ends will not be realized (1966, p.573).

The forces which have given rise to the phenomenon of citizen participation are best summarized in the literature by Cahn and Passett (1971) for the American experience and in the various working papers of the Committee on Government Productivity (1973) for the Canadian experience. These points are reviewed here.

Cahn and Passett suggest that if increased bureaucracy and expertise are the foundations of the citizen participation phenomenon, civil rights and urban redevelopment in the 1960's were the initial building blocks. These two issues, which involve racial conflict, the alienation of the poor and the rights of those affected by development to be heard, created the original impetus which led to the demands of the public to
participation in the decision-making process. The initial participation programs thus tended to be goal-oriented, forming and dissolving around specific ends. In the U.S., the principle of participation was formalized when the concept of "maximum feasible participation" of the poor, was written into the 1964 act creating the "War on Poverty" (Head, 1971, p.18).

In Canada, the evolution of citizen participation is rooted in the country's earliest struggles for self-government, when the elitist rule of the Family Compact was replaced by a more representative form of government. The working paper on Citizen Involvement prepared for the Committee on Government Productivity cited the following pressures for citizen participation (1973):

- Rising levels of education, which have encouraged people's desire to participate in the decisions which concern them;
- The increasing size, complexity and pervasiveness of organizations which administer and legislate on behalf of the public;
- The use of restrictive criteria, such as economic growth, in narrowly rationalized institutional decision-making;
- A lack of faith in the effectiveness of the traditional political process, characterized by periodic voting and the principle of representation;
- A major cultural shift, affecting public values, which places more emphasis on the present than on possible future gains;
The rate of change, which tends to undermine traditional institutions and to encourage new ones which appear to be more responsive to people's desires.

If the original purposes of citizen participation were goal-oriented, it did not take long for administrators to perceive the effective usefulness of the movement as a process in itself.

Citizen participation was extended to cover a wide range of uses, from the legitimization of programs or as a relatively inexpensive method of collecting information about a community (Davis, 1974). In some cases, the concept was used to co-opt the public by involving them in the decision-making process. Warner (1971) summarizes the possible uses of citizen participation as follows:

- Engaging public support for planning effort, through information and education about the various alternatives and their consequences;

- Eliciting a reaction from affected publics about proposed plans in order to judge their social viability;

- Eliciting information from various publics about their perceptions of problems and solutions, in order to ascertain their values;

- Developing a trust in the planning process and a commitment to the final plan on the part of the affected public.
Burke (1968), in his analysis of citizen participation as a strategy, perceived the following uses for the concept:

- As education-therapy, when citizens work together to learn how to resolve community problems and to develop a sense of confidence and self-reliance in their ability to change their community;
- As a staff supplement, in order to recruit volunteers to carry out tasks beyond staff resources, and to supplement the expertise of the planning agent;
- As co-optation, where the objective is to involve citizens in decision-making in order to head off anticipated obstruction;
- As a community power strategy, which stresses change through conflict and confrontation.

Burke underlines the difficulties which may be faced in implementing any of these strategies, but he does not, on balance, deny their effectiveness. Possibly the objective of utilizing citizen participation to achieve behavioural change draws the most criticism; Goodman says this approach assumes that the economic system is right but the people don't fit: "Change the people who don't fit, cure them of their diseases ... and the system will operate effectively" (1971, p. 31).

In general, the proponents of citizen participation make the following case, as summarized by the working paper on Citizen Involvement for the Committee on Government Productivity:
Citizen participation:

- Has a positive effect on education and self development;
- Has a positive effect on integration, by exposing people to a range of new ideas and different groups in society, and promoting a feeling of community;
- Can be a force for stability and order, by facilitating broad acceptance of decisions made in the process, viewed as a social contract;
- Can help achieve specific community goals, particularly in the field of education, transportation, energy and urban development;
- Can increase the participation in society of minority groups, who traditionally have had little influence to share in decision-making;
- Enhances an individual's self-esteem by promoting independence and challenging initiative;
- Can be an efficient and cost effective method of decision-making, since it may identify consequences which might not be perceived otherwise by decision-makers;
- Can provide a vital and effective two-way communication channel, which can inform the public of government programs and plans, and, in turn, inform the policy makers about people's values and priorities.

Observers such as Goodman (1971), Davis (1974), Lazar (1971), Piven (1965), Altshuler (1965) and Starrs and Stewart (1971) voice the following reservations regarding citizen participation:
The concept of broad-based decision-making is incompatible with new trends towards comprehensive, anticipatory planning which utilizes increased analytical and technological capabilities;

The concept is open to manipulation by specific interest groups, who are interested in achieving change through conflict and confrontation which may not be in the community interest;

The process may encourage ineffectiveness and inefficiency, since it can reduce the effectiveness of the decision-makers to act quickly;

Participation appears to be chiefly a middle-class phenomenon, since low income groups generally are more reluctant to oppose decision-makers;

Participation may increase elitism rather than reduce political inequalities, since many citizen's groups do not possess the necessary knowledge and information to affect change;

Participation may co-opt, or distract community leaders from expending their energies on local issues with a higher priority;

Participation can be an unstabilizing influence on a community as various groups struggle for the mandate to define "the public interest" and as confrontation and conflict generate distrust and alienation among neighbours.

The Canadian mainstream political culture generates little pressure for participation; the evidence indicates the average Canadian voter shows little desire to depart from the present system of representative government.
The working paper on Citizen Involvement for the Committee on Government Productivity suggests two general constraints on the use of public participation in order to achieve a balance between the potential positive and negative effects. First, decision-makers and planners should realize that not all forms of participation are productive, and that those likely to have a negative effect should be avoided. Secondly, new forms of participation should be developed, including those which place the planner or politician in a supportive, or enabling role rather than in a leadership role, and which encourage a more unstructured process. These two constraints are central to the argument presented in this paper and will be discussed in turn.

**Constraints on Citizen Participation**

Davis (1974) makes the point that much of the literature on public participation tends to adopt an uncritical stance of the concept. Like Motherhood, "citpart" is viewed as intrinsically good. Wengert adds that any criticism of citizen participation grates on many Americans:

To suggest that the process, role and function of public participation may require specification and may even be subject to limitation is regarded as a denial that all men are created equal and construed as a challenge to the very foundation of American democracy (1961, p. 24)
Yet many practitioners of the art have found, sometimes to their sorrow, that some form of constraint on participation is essential to its success. Burke (1968) notes that the need to meet deadlines, or budget limitations may dictate some constraints on participation. Arnstein's widely quoted typology or ladder of participation, reproduced in Figure 2., is an attempt to define and classify various methods of participation in accordance with previously determined objectives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree</th>
<th>Participation Method</th>
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<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Citizen Control</td>
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<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Delegated Power</td>
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<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Partnership</td>
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<td>5</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Informing</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Therapy</td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Manipulation</td>
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DEGREES OF CITIZEN POWER

DEGREES OF TOKENISM

NON-PARTICIPATION

**FIGURE 2. EIGHT RUNGS ON THE LADDER OF PARTICIPATION**

by Sherry R. Arnstein
Manipulation and theory, the two lowest rungs of the ladder are classified as non-participatory. They represent the attempts of the power-holders to "cure" or "educate" the public. The next three rungs - informing, consultation, placatory - are classified as degrees of tokenism. The public is permitted to voice its viewpoints, or at best, advise the decision-makers. The last three rungs - partnership, delegated power, citizen control - are classified as effective degrees of citizen power. At the partnership level, participants have the power to negotiate and to make trade-offs. At the two highest levels, participants either have majority or full decision-making power.

Bluntly speaking, citizen participation is a legitimate attempt to achieve power. The degree of power must be negotiated between the parties involved, and depends to some extent on the issue involved. The key to effective citizen participation is the identification, in advance, of the precise degree of control which the decision-maker is willing to bargain away. Lazar emphasizes that the kinds and amount of participation desirable for any program can only be defined in terms of its specific goals, the community involved and the stage of readiness of the population. He points out: "The role of a citizen is less central in a surgical team than it is in a rent strike ..." (1971, p.108).
Pessimists like Goodman (1971) and Head (1971) point out that historically, community action programs have not shown much success in achieving their objectives. One would suspect that a prime reason was the failure to stipulate to all parties concerned the degree of participation being negotiated away.

At best, such failure creates an illusion of public participation. At worst, it can be devastating to the people involved by encouraging them to believe that they can make a major contribution to the decision-making process and then disregarding their advice and thus frustrating them. This is more destructive than not seeking their advice in the first place.

In contrast with the Arnstein structured approach to citizen participation, some writers advocate a more flexible unstructured implementation. The working paper on Citizen Involvement for the Ontario Government Committee on Government Productivity (1972) establishes the fact that there is no ultimate model for participation, nor is it possible to determine in advance whether any particular model will work.

The working paper suggests that the fundamental unit of organization for a participation program should be a small problem solving group, between five and twelve people. The unit would be small enough to ensure the meaningful participation of each member, yet large enough to include expert resources to
deal with the issue at hand. Membership would come from both government and non-government sectors. The group would be assigned the resources to hire its own expertise.

The unit would employ face-to-face communication and would be responsible for resolving conflicts between members. The group would be temporary in nature, and would disband after making its recommendations.

Finally, the government, agency or sponsoring body should publicly acknowledge the legitimate concerns of the public to have a say in influencing the decisions affecting them. Frederick Thayer summarizes:

A new theory of democratic government is emerging, one which defines participation as the central right of all citizens. (1971, p. 3)

**Communications and Participation**

Efforts towards increasing public participation in decision-making necessarily imply increased access to information. Axworthy points out that in many cases, the government retains a monopoly on information. It is difficult for a citizen group to adequately respond to a planned development when it lacks the government agencies' formidable data and research base. He adds:
... a system of communication specially geared by the
government to the needs of citizen organizations and
subsequent new forms of organization are essential if
the new forms of decision-making are to be effective
(1971, p.8)

Axworthy makes two further important points. First,
dealing with Meier's "information overload", the need is for a
mode of communication that supplies the particular interests of
a community. The mass media does not necessarily supply
information specific to the multitude of linguistic, ethnic,
neighbourhood and special interest groups that make up the
larger urban community. He says:

Yet it is this kind of information that is essential for
maintaining and enhancing a sense of community and
cohesion among people. If there is a way of enabling
people of common interests to communicate together, even
though they may geographically be separated in a metro-
politain area, then they are better able to feel part of
a community. If individuals or groups can receive, when
they desire, precise and detailed information of the
debates and discussions of government on issues that affect
them directly, then their sense of alienation can be
diminished ... the test of the new communications techno-
logy is whether the capacity for allowing this to happen
exists. (1971, p.10)
The second point is the obvious need for feedback mechanisms which can communicate the needs and concerns of the public back to the decision-maker. He notes:

We are beginning to learn that one reason why government programs often fail is that they are designed to fit the perceptions of problems as seen by the planner, administrator or politician, not the perception of the problem as seen by the people who experience the problem. (1971, p.10)

Thus Axworthy has set three criteria for a social communications system which involves participation programs. First, it must be designed to supply quantities of relevant data to a citizen group. Second, it must meet the needs of particular interest groups in the community who may be separated spatially. Third, it must include a "feedback mechanism" to cycle the perceptions of citizens groups back to the decision-maker.

The requirements suggested by Axworthy are more stringent and specialized than the communications process described by Meier (1962). In Meier's model, there is a sender, a message, a channel, a receiver, a share of the receiver's attention, a common language, time, and at least one purpose to be served. Meier points out that there can be a multiplier effect in the transmission of messages; for instance, a receiver can re-transmit the message to others. He also usefully defines
attention as "... a proportion indicating the fraction of symbols actually comprehended from among those presented" (1962, p.9). He estimates this proportion at fifty to eighty per cent. Thus the sender requires repetition to get his message across.

Meier observes that time is often ignored in discussing social communications. "Communications is always a rate process and for humans the minimum time for the recognition of a signal falls in the range of 10-20 milliseconds" (1962, p.10). Since time is a scarce commodity, bonded by the limits of a human life-span, he argues that message transmission must be efficient.

**Public Participation Criteria**

In reviewing the principle of citizen participation, the aspect which is most useful to us here is its potential as a "two-way" communications channel between the decision-makers and the general public, first as a means of determining the values and priorities of the public to be affected, and second as a means of conveying information about impending plans or programs.

In order for a public participation program to be an effective communications channel, it appears to us that the following elements should be present:
1. **Public Interest**: If a program is to work, the affected public must be genuinely interested in participating. Interest is not necessarily initiative, since a group may not be interested in any issue until they are made aware of it;

2. **Relevant Information**: People cannot have input into a program unless they have a thorough understanding of the issue involved. Information must be available in a continuing flow, and the quantity and content must be programmed to meet the public's ability to absorb it;

3. **Degree of Participation**: A successful public participation program should stipulate at some point the precise degree of control which planners are willing to bargain away. If "consultation" as defined by Arnstein is merely "manipulation" the public will be frustrated and the program will fail;

4. **Degree of Access**: Participation must be broadly accessible to all segments of a community which have an interest in participating. Since access is often a function of the kind of information available, an information system should convey a flow of information to all target groups, taking into account levels of literacy, ethnic, language and other variables;

5. **Process Orientation**: Since there is no ultimate model of participation, the process of participation is as important as the product and should be flexible and supportive, rather than structured and narrowly conceived;

6. **Size/Scale**
The size and scale of the program should be tailored to the specific goals, the nature of the community involved, and the medium of communication chosen. A mass rally may be an effective form for demonstration, but not necessarily for decision-making;
7. **Scope**: If the issues are purely local and do not infringe on the rights of minorities, issues may be decided at the local level. If the people affected by the decision involve a larger population in a wider area, or where locally made decisions could adversely affect minorities, the degree and method of participation may necessarily be changed;

8. **Feedback Mechanisms**: In public participation, the feedback of information from the public is as important as the flow of information to the public. Similarly, a participation program should accommodate dialogue between the participants themselves;

9. **Visibility**: Participation should be seen to have taken place. The decision-making process should be visible to all, and the decisions openly arrived at in order to achieve broadly based support.

In this section, we have briefly discussed the possible use of public participation programs as a mode, or method of social communications, where such programs can provide a "two-way communications" channel. However, the planner will probably find that his opportunities to utilize this mode of social communications are limited to situations where he wants to disseminate information about plans and policies and recover some feedback from the target groups affected. Within the overall scope of his planning exercise, he may wish to utilize more traditional communications modes. These modes are discussed in Chapter Three.
Meier suggests that a person's capacity to receive information is basically a function of his reading speed.
CHAPTER THREE
COMMUNICATIONS MODES

3.1 INTRODUCTION

Management consultant Peter Drucker (1968) suggests that in the period since World War Two, the United States has switched from a goods producing economy to a knowledge economy. By the late 1970's, he predicted half of every dollar earned and spent in the American economy would involve the production, distribution and procurement of ideas and information. Observing that Americans now spend more time watching television than working, Kalba concludes: "Information channels are the social 'glue' that link together individuals, values and activities on a day-to-day basis" (1973, p 329).

So far in this study, we have attempted to identify some of the implications for planners which stem from the increasing flow of information and complexity of information systems. In Chapter Five, we will suggest the design specifications for a social communications delivery system to enable planners to achieve planning objectives. In this chapter, we will describe some of the communications modes, or channels, which may be used as components in a social communications system.

We have already suggested that public participation is a planning tool which may be used as a social communications mode, since participation programs can recycle information about plans and policies of the plan-makers and the values and priorities of the target groups. However, in many cases, the
planner may find more traditional communications modes adequate for his purposes. Technological changes now taking place will place a new set of communications tools at his disposal. The planner who does not know how and when to employ these modes will likely find that his efforts will be confined to those people with whom he can communicate on a face-to-face basis, with limited impact on a wider audience and on government decision-making.

Since information is widely perceived as power (Bell, 1973; Kalba, 1974) the planner's central challenge is the equitable distribution of this power throughout all strata of society (Sackman and Boehm, 1972). There is a puzzling lack of research in the area of media consumption and Rosengren (1974) concludes that there is no typology of mass media content which is widely accepted, and emphasizes the lack of systematic research in the area of needs, problems, and goals. Elliott (1974) reports that most media research uses a uses and gratifications model, which has not been particularly revealing or effective. Mendelsohn (1974) points out that the needs-uses-gratifications model can be easily distorted, since it is vulnerable to the value systems of those making the determination:

Thus the teacher sees only the need for an education; the physician for therapy; the preacher for morality; the communicator for information and entertainment. Yet the physician often offers education; the teacher tries
to inculcate principles of ethics and propriety; the preacher presents varieties of information many times in a dramatic or entertaining milieu; and television's Dr. Marcus Welby offers medical therapy on a continuing basis. (1974, p.304)

The use of communications modes places heavy responsibilities on the planner if we accept Meier's opinion (1962) that communications is essentially a manipulative exercise. In his efforts to manipulate his public towards his objectives, the planner should be constrained by common sense and the fear of media "over kill" or the loss of credibility.

3.2 COMMUNICATIONS MODES

For the purposes of this study, we may classify the communications system into the following modes:

1. Face-to-face;
2. Telephone system;
3. Broadcasting system;
4. Cable television system;
5. Digital information relay systems;
6. Satellites;
7. Print;
8. Video-tape and film.

Each mode is discussed briefly in turn.
Face-to-Face

In the beginning, before we evolved the concept of "information overload" and "wired worlds", we had face-to-face communication. Meier (1962) surmises that cities evolved primarily to accommodate human communication. Face-to-face communication was later augmented by record-makings such as clay tablets, symbols, music, and the alphabet. The printing press followed the standardization of written communication. Face-to-face communication is effectively carried out through interviews, public meetings, speeches and surveys, and remains probably the primary form of personal communication.

Telephone

In Canada, more than ninety-four per cent of households have at least one telephone. Blumenfeld (1967) suggests that the invention of the telephone has been the most revolutionary change in the history of communication, since it permitted messages to be transmitted beyond the constraints of face-to-face communication. He notes that the telephone did not eliminate the desire to communicate face-to-face, and thus did not eliminate the demand for a central business district.

Ball (1968), reviewing the sociological implications of the telephone also perceives the telephone as a decentralizing influence. He would agree that the telephone meets two of our criteria for a social communications system: it is accessible to all and it is pervasive, putting the world within reach of
the caller. However, it is also an intruder, since one is inclined to answer its ring without previous knowledge of the caller or sender of the message to be transmitted. This makes it difficult for the receiver to place a value on the transaction, in terms of the bits of information received, and the time spent on the process.

In Canada, the telephone network serves two main purposes. First, it provides two-way private user-to-user communications, or voice communications. Second, it provides a sub-network of interconnecting communications systems, such as teletype exchange services known as TWX and Telex, CATV or cable services, and microwave capacity.

Its potential uses are barely tapped. In New York, ghetto students can use a telephone to learn mathematics, dialling a programmed voice response. In Montreal, one university is using a similar method for language instruction. Telephone circuits can accommodate computerized remote-access information systems. Video phones which are designed for face-to-face communications are already on the market in some sections of the U.S. The telephone has been the basis for the "openline" or "phone-in" radio show - one of the few truly accessible, two-way communications systems available to nearly everyone.

A more limited use of the telephone for participation is the concept of teleconferencing, which consists of using the telephone and amplification units to enable the participants
to hear and to be heard. Teleconferencing technology can electronically link people meeting as a group with other groups in different communities, reducing travel time and energy.

The Community Planning Association of Canada (Pacific Region) utilized this technology to organize a Community Exchange project, with the objective of encouraging people to participate in the political process. Benefits included quick response and feedback to ideas, rapid sharing of new information and increased social awareness on such topics as airport noise pollution, rapid transit and environmental concerns. In our experience, however, teleconferencing works best when the participants know each other beforehand, and can put faces to voices, at least in the mind's eye. The savings in cost and travel time can be great.

**Broadcasting Systems**

Broadcasting systems include both radio and television services, both of which require an over-the-air-transmitter. Both also rely on microwave facilities, which in Canada are under the jurisdiction of the telecommunications carriers. Each transmitter uses a group of frequencies, called a channel. The number of messages, or amount of information transmitted on a given channel depends on the total number of frequencies available within that channel. The number of frequencies available is sometimes called with width of the channel.
There is considerable competition for use of these frequencies by a number of users - taxi-fleets, delivery fleets, police and fire departments, airlines, government and military services, remote-control systems, amateur and short-wave radio as well as radio and television broadcast systems. Use of any frequency is licenced, not owned, and subject to fairly stringent regulations. In Canada the regulating body is the Canadian Radio-Television Commission, which administers the Broadcasting Act enacted on April 1, 1968.

The CRTC itself was set up to provide some form of public participation by encouraging a two-way flow of information with the general public. It is charged with applying the views and information solicited from the public in developing broadcasting policies.

It can be argued (Goldfarb, 1977; Gossage, 1974) that radio, television and other forms of mass media provide a form of participation by supplying "receivers" with hard news items, or information, of particular interest to them. Weather reports and emergency directives during disasters are messages aimed at helping the receiver make a decision affecting his own welfare and the receiver is turned from a spectator into a participant. Gossage argues: "When the radio tells you of bad icing conditions on the local highway, you are no longer a spectator but a receiver of essential information" (1974, p.2).
Despite such rationales, the commercial radio and television broadcasting systems are relatively closed to the public, apart from the "open line" radio show, which seems to find its most prolific environment on the west coast of Canada. Wood (1971) describes an effective community action television program in the New York/New Jersey metropolitan area, which utilizes resident participation in the development and implementation of the project; Puerto Rican and other Spanish speaking residents helped to decide the program topics, provided the actors and assisted in the production of five half-hour television shows dealing with consumer education, housing, employment and education problems. When the series was completed, the residents participated in the evaluation process. However, this experiment does not seem to have been widely repeated despite its apparent success.

Both radio and television broadcasting systems provide access through paid advertisements, and through unpaid public service announcements. The advertisements allow businessmen, government agencies and other media users to communicate with their market through the use of "spots" or commercials. The unpaid public service announcements are normally aired at less than peak commercial periods, which can reduce their effectiveness. Television "talk" shows, featuring local events and leaders, provide another form of access to commercial television channels, but the initiative, and the editorial jurisdiction
over content is normally in the hands of the broadcasting staff, not in the hands of the person being interviewed.

In Canada, citizen access has been provided to both radio and television channels. Community radio is one social communication tool which is overlooked by planners, but which is increasing in popularity as a community programming mode. It has certain key advantages when compared to its more glamorous broadcasting colleague, television. An important one is cost; Baer (1974) estimates that an entire radio broadcast facility, composed of two or three studios and portable equipment, can be established with the funds required simply to equip a two-camera television studio. Since radio technology is less complicated, maintenance costs are lower than for television.

Mitchell (1974) and other commentators report that radio's additional advantages are its immediacy, flexibility and ease of quality production. Many people who start in community television programming and who become intimidated by the equipment, switch to community radio.

In urban areas, community radio may cover a wide range of audiences in a limited area. One example is Wired World, a Kitchener-Waterloo, Ontario, community project which provides complete access for citizens of the community and diverse programming including breakfast programs, women's and consumer programs, and special programming for children and for senior citizens. Another example is Vancouver Co-op Radio, which
started broadcasting in April, 1975, with a low powered transmitter and even lower voltage financing. Co-op Radio is managed by a Workers' Council, which approves programming and editorial policy. Council members represent the various groups in the organization, such as the news team, or the ethnic programming unit. Co-op Radio actively supports the arts and disadvantaged groups, and attempts to provide viewpoints which are different from those stated by government and industry leaders in the commercial media. One group member explains the organization's policy:

We believe in using the medium as a tool and in making sure that people have access to this tool. We think the facilities of Co-op Radio are a public resource - a type of resource that has heretofore been reserved for monopolies. We actively seek involvement from the public.¹

In northern or rural areas, radio may have a different spatial pattern, a more cohesive audience and a unique use. In many areas radio is the only mode of communication available. In the Mackenzie region of the Northwest Territories, for instance, the Mackenzie network of the CBC provides the only regional communications coverage, both in English and in several local native languages. The region's newspapers are limited mainly to the specific urban centres they serve, and the local native press is mainly printed in English.
On the B.C. west coast, RAVEN, or the Radio and Audio Visual Educational Network, maintains communications between native Indian groups, separated by distance but united by a unique culture. RAVEN utilizes a single side-band radio frequency and sometimes uses the network for conferences between different chiefs and their bands. Although RAVEN's radio units have increased from 54 to 92 (Mitchell, 1974), it is significant that the organization's use of video equipment has decreased.

Aside from the unique spatial and ethnic services which radio can provide, particularly in rural areas, the use of radio as a social communications tool may be constrained by the nature of its audience. With some exceptions, radio is generally viewed in the industry as the "youth" communications mode. Dominated by rock and roll and country and western music, radio stations attempt to solicit their audiences in the "under thirty" age group. At the other end of the spectrum, radio is often a solace and an inexpensive companion for the shut-ins and senior citizens, who may find the cost of television prohibitive. The persons in the middle years - which are also the years when people are most interested in participating in community programs - may be tuned out to radio.

Cable Television

In theory, the communications mode known as CATV, or community antenna television holds great potential for the planner seeking to energize his clientele into participating in a social communications exercise. In face, the challenge has not yet been taken up.
In Canada, community programming received its biggest impetus in July, 1971, when the CRTC announced it would encourage owners of cable systems to provide and maintain one channel for the use of the community.

Perhaps it is all too new; the most interesting aspect of community programming is the limited degree to which it is utilized by citizen's groups. Lyman and Martin (1974), in their report on access to the media by community groups, point out that access must be exercised if it is to have any meaning, and concluded that with few exceptions, access to community channels has not been utilized much by the public. They sum up:

The simple fact of the matter is that most people in the community don't want to produce television. It does not offer them the kind of feedback, the participation, the interaction, that fills their needs (1974, p.16).

Gossage says the challenge is to create entirely different uses for the technology of television and radio. The first objective must be public education:

The greatest single problem ... is increasing the public's awareness that they can participate in the most mysterious of all means of communication ... that they can do something themselves with the most powerful instruments of communication and image-making that man has invented ... (1974, p.20).
Yet the potential is clearly established. In terms of national penetration by cable, Canada is the most wired nation in the world, and British Columbia is the most densely covered province. By March, 1971, there were 342 CATV operations in Canada, many of them close to the U.S. border within reach of American television stations. In B.C., there are seventy-three separate cable stations, whose subscribers amount to nearly seventy per cent of all households in the province. Some eighty-five per cent of B.C.'s 749,000 households are in licenced areas, and ninety-five per cent of those are wired for cable. In short, cable system coverage of B.C. covers eighty-one per cent of all households, almost equalling the coverage of the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation, with eighty-nine per cent of all households.

A cable system operates by picking up over-the-air broadcasts by means of an especially equipped antenna and transmitted CATV signals via copper co-axial cable to the community pick up. In Canada, telephone companies normally control the distribution of CATV signals within a community because they provide the telephone pole network needed to carry the distribution cables from the community pick up, or head-end, to each individual household.

In Canada, most CATV systems offer only a one-way or directional service to the customer. In the U.S., some systems have the capacity to provide limited two-way communications which enable programs to originate in localities remote from
the main distribution points, and then be fed into the system. However, it is the potential for CATV systems to provide two-way communications between the subscriber and the head-end or distribution point which has excited communications experts and planners in recent years.

In contrast to conventional, or commercial broadcasting stations, which tend to disseminate highly centralized output, community stations exist mainly to serve the communication and information needs of the community they serve. Community accessibility is normally construed as the interaction of the community facility and its community. This raises the problems of providing mechanisms for participation in ownership, management program production, editorial content, etc.

Mitchell (1974) describes two approaches to community programming by community station owners. One approach produces for the public; the second allows the public to produce. The first might be termed a "hands off" approach. The owner is reluctant to provide citizen access to his expensive colour equipment, and prefers to utilize professional skills in programming, with input from citizen groups. The second, or "hands on" approach is more open to actual participation by citizens in the production process. The owner may offer to train people on his equipment, and provide professional help to enable them to define their programming goals and to prepare
their production. He may be more flexible about the frequency of programming, normally scheduled in half-hour or one-hour segments.

Richards (1974) suggests five basic principles of community television stations. They are:

1. The adoption of participatory and democratic decision-making structures, with one vote for each person;
2. Ownership by community members, including participation in financing;
3. Provision for local participation in the planning and production of programs, and the provision for audience participation or "feedback" programming formats;
4. A commitment to training local groups in the operation and maintenance of equipment;
5. A commitment to local needs, for instance, by flexible scheduling of programs and by providing communication services (such as weather, traffic time reports, etc.).

Community Video Ltd., which operates Community Ten Television in North Vancouver, provides a schedule for programming which may be considered typical for community stations. Programming is decided by a programming committee, composed of four full time producer-directors and a community co-ordinator, meeting at least once a week. Community programming includes:
1. A live production, or open ended forum with various community groups on major issues, such as housing, abortion, multiculturalism;

2. Special programming for women and children;

3. Weekly reports from local members of parliament to their constituents;

4. Weekly specials, such as conferences, all candidates meetings, etc.

Given the potential for citizen access, the question is why so little success has been reported by community stations. A survey of reports published in this field in Canada suggests the following factors may be relevant;

1. **Time and effort**: Non-professionals are often surprised and exhausted by the amount of time and energy required to produce a "one-shot" half-hour show, and lose interest;

2. **Technical constraints**: Television equipment can be intimidating and frustrating. TV is not necessarily the best way to communicate certain kinds of community information, given the costs and constraints;

3. **Conflicts between groups**: Usually this involves conflicts between media/information groups, who control access to the facility, and service/interest groups who merely want to communicate their message, or point of view. Most media groups are politically leftist, and see the community channel as a means of counteracting the influence of conventional broadcasting, while service groups with short information goals find they cannot win access to air time.
4. **Conflict between media groups**: In some communities, several media groups, financed by short term funding programs, compete among themselves to control or dominate access to the local community station, thus becoming a new media "establishment";

5. **Identification with commercial television**: Many citizens groups feel their production should be as smooth as the Canadian Broadcasting Corporation and their own performance as professional as Lloyd Robertson. As viewers, they expect to be passively entertained, and thus negate the participatory benefits of community programming;

6. **Spatial constraints**: The distribution of cable licences in some urban areas follow no recognizable community boundaries, either political, geographical or spatial. This works against effective community programming;

7. **Apathy of station owners**: Some owners, who are complying with the CRTC regulations to provide a community channel, to so to meet the requirements of the licencing regulations, not the needs of the community;

8. **Lack of information and evaluation**: Operating with modest funds, many stations do not have a budget for promoting programs or advertising their schedule, reducing their potential audiences. Since they lack adequate feedback or evaluation from viewers, they may not be supplying appropriate programming.

As noted earlier, the most immediate solution to some of these problems is improved public education about the potential of community programming for citizen access to decision-making bodies. Other solutions noted (Lyman, 1974; Martin, 1974):
More flexible programming formats, which would supplement existing conventional programming. Examples are live, unstructured coverage of group meetings or debates;

Alternative programming content to that offered by conventional programs. Examples are programs geared to specific groups within the community, or programs meeting the information needs of the community;

Formulation of long range goals for programming, in order to avoid conflicts, and to produce tangible results for the community being served. In this model, the goal, such as community development is set mutually, the priorities are set by the community group, and the media group's role is to service those needs;

Greater co-operation with community colleges as a resource for programming input;

Co-ordination of a metropolitan-wide information service which cuts across local cable system boundaries, in order to increase access by citizens groups to decision-making bodies and to share relevant information.

In addition, two other suggestions come to mind. First, the emphasis should be on the planner's role as animator, who knows how to co-ordinate community groups to make use of the channel, rather than as an advocate for a specific interest group. Second, the mode chosen by the planner as his social communication tool should be appropriate if it is to deliver messages effectively and with a degree of citizen participation.
Digital Information Relay Systems

One of the most exciting concepts of urban planning is that of the wired world, composed of network neighbourhoods, linked electronically across spatial constraints. By means of two-way communications, the inhabitants of this world can state their views on local political issues, tap the resources of the world's great libraries, communicate with their friends, and purchase goods and services without leaving their homes.

The technical importance of CATV systems is their potential to become the third wired system in a community, along with electric power cables and telephone lines. With the addition of a two-way feature and telephone hook-up, a CATV system could be linked with a centrally-located digital computer for the purposes of assembling, storing, retrieving, compressing and reacting to information.

The technological capacity, or "hardware" for computer communication already exists in the form of cablevision, satellites, microwave transmission, etc. This capacity is also the product of the explosion in computer technology since World War Two. Sackman and Boehm (1972) observe that only one per cent of the total population of the U.S. which has grown up since World War Two has been involved with computers in a significant way. But the next generation, by the year 2000, will probably find that computer usage has been extended to one hundred per cent of the population. They add:
The social problems following in the wake of this unparallelled extension of computer services to the general public can boggle the mind (1972, p.4).

Limited use of computer communications are already being made, particularly in the field of education where computerized instruction and data retrieval systems are becoming more common. For instance, one Connecticut school operates a "dial access" information retrieval system which can retransmit either audio tapes or videotapes on a wide range of subject. The linking of micro-film technology with a closer circuit information retrieval system makes it possible to view documents via television monitors at Laval University.

The biggest constraint on widespread dissemination of this technology is cost. Sackman and Boehm (1972) estimate that computer power doubles and computer costs drop by one half every three years; they predict a multibillion dollar information industry before the end of the 1970's.

But even if the technology exists and the cost breakthrough's can be estimated, the social consequences of implementing this particular "planovation" cannot be predicted with any accuracy. It is interesting to note that participants in the 1969 conference on information utilities held in Chicago, which serves as the basis for Sackman and Boehm's book on the subject, agreed on the technological imminence of mass information utilities, but disagreed on the social implications.
The community information utility is the technology which has emerged out of the component parts of cable systems, computers, telephone systems, etc. Sackman defines an information utility as:

... mass communications systems in which the consumer interacts directly with a central computer and its associated information files from a remote terminal at his home, office, or school - in his natural environment - in a manner such that he receives the information at his terminal almost immediately after requesting it (1972, p.17).

Sackman makes some interesting observations regarding the information utility compared with traditional public utilities, such as gas, water and electric power. These utilities transport homogeneous commodities; in contrast, information is heterogeneous. Traditional utilities serve material needs; information utilities service intellectual, emotional and spiritual needs. He concludes that information utilities have the potential to formulate social values. This makes imperative the task of ensuring that information utilities are dedicated to all segments of society, rather than restricted to certain segments of society.

Kalba (1973) suggests that the CIU will become the home communications centre of the future. The various components, including computer terminals, display monitors, video recorders, and facsimile machines, all linked to other communication centres
by co-axial cable, will hold solutions to three potential problems. The first is increasing the amount of technical information available to the public while avoiding information overload. The second is improving the methods of transmitting local needs and perceptions to decision-makers. The third is the provision of mechanisms for widely dispersed and intensive discussion of issues.

The uses of the proposed information utilities can be summarized as follows:

1. **Municipal services:** There are three classes of municipal services where CIU's could be employed. The first is technological services, such as utilities, transit, public works and environmental protection; in these areas CIU could "bank" useful information about demographic trends, service demand patterns, system specifications, etc. For the second major class of municipal services, such as administration and regulation, a CIU could simplify access to operating files, assessment records, tax records, etc., and to help rationalize the code enforcement process. In the third area, personal services, such as education, protection, recreation, social work, etc., CIU could provide routine information without the need for labour-intensive, expensive face-to-face communication;

2. **Increasing citizen participation:** A CIU could provide the means for holding town-meeting type discussions, conducting referenda, etc. However, there are the problems of managing discussions involving several hundred participants and the possible political instability inherent in short term public feedback. On the other
hand, the facility could ventilate otherwise explosive resentment, and provide more specific feedback on citizen perceptions of government services, crime, housing quality, etc. The CIU could also alleviate loneliness by enabling people to communicate with others with similar interests in a more efficient manner than such present methods as personal ads., informal newsletters and club circulars. Greater citizen feedback would be obtained by installing an information utility in a central neighbourhood location, such as a fire hall, to permit access to decision-makers. One form of citizen participation is a "store and scan" feature which would permit a person to express his views, and for his statement to be scanned by others;

3. **Education**: A CIU, as an in-home education facility could provide access to classrooms across the country. Public libraries could provide college-level learning to people without the time to go to college. John Farquhar (1972) suggests that the CIU can make every man master of his own educational fate. Rosen (1976) describes an audio-visual teaching machine which looks like a television set, but which acts like a private tutor. A CIU could encourage the posting of library services;

4. **On-line polling and voting**: The technology necessary for on-line polling is a two-way cable service which supplies the user with either a 12-button response pad, such as those on telephones, a typewriter or a teletype keyboard. Involuntary polling could include recording the television channels watched. Voluntary polling could include participation, via the CIU in political decision-making. Parker (1972) suggests that because of the need for a randomly drawn sample representative of the population, the on-line polling will be one of the last
services added to a CIU, assuming that by then the information utility is universally available to all households. Similarly, voting systems would need stringent distribution requirements since it would be unfair to allow the rich to vote from their homes, via a machine, while the less wealthy are forced to go to a public place to use a voting machine. An important potential of on-line polling or voting is the anticipated reduction in cost of holding elections, or presenting referenda;

5. **Telepurchasing and personal services**: Like its predecessors, the mail order catalogue or telephone "buy lines", this service could enable the CIU user to make his purchases without leaving his home. However, the CIU could cover the entire transaction involved, including the placement of the order and the transfer of funds between the shopper and the merchant banks. Simpson-Sears Ltd. of Toronto, in an innovation believed to be the first of its kind in the world, has installed an automated telephone order system which permits "round the clock" shopping using a computer to check whether the item ordered is in stock;

6. **Industrial and vocation services**: A CIU could supply access to supply catalogues, consultants, document preparation, engineering design and analysis, library and reference services, vocational training. Thus it would enable users to obtain the types of services most suited to their needs from whatever the source of supply;

7. **Entertainment and news services**: Canadian daily metropolitan newspapers are already switching to computerized production processes, where the reporter's copy is fed into a desk console and never touched by hand again until it emerges in the form of a newspaper. A CIU news channel
may provide instant access to news, background stories and features. Readers would browse electronically reading those items - indexed to different channels - which interest them.

The social impact of these developments alarms some observers. Selwyn (1972) suggests that as the CIU becomes more integrated into business and homes, the primary job of some workers will be to interact with the utility. The alienation of people increasingly oriented to a home communications centre receives wide attention. Since our discussion centres on citizen participation and social communication, it is useful to summarize the possible impacts suggested in the literature:

- The CIU could become a pervasive social propaganda machine, presenting stereotyped concepts of norms and values. Ironically, this could be particularly true in the use of the CIU by planners, who tend to base their analyses on prevailing norms and values;

- The impact of the CIU could increase citizen participation in the political process. One writer, Eulau (1970), anticipated a participatory nightmare, with legislative power passing from the seat of government to the citizen's living room. He suggested that if an elected representative was to restrict himself to mirroring the preferences of his constituents, he may as well be replaced by a computerized decisional apparatus;
On the other hand, the CIU could reduce effective participation by increasing the number and diversity of interest groups into a more fragmented political process;

Since home voting machines would be easier to use and more accessible, voting would probably increase, and since the information available to the individual would improve, his ability to make an informed vote may rise;

While the elected representative may gain by greater interaction with his constituents, such increased surveillance could limit his freedom in bargaining and negotiation;

Since the CIU would encourage the emergence of the information power broker, or "gatekeeper" who serves as interpreter, summarizers, etc., the utility could increase the concentration of power or control of information into relatively few hands;

Increased access to televised entertainment would divert time and attention away from political activity and citizen participation in local affairs.

The central thesis to Sackman's argument (1972) is the need for co-operative participatory technology and research at all levels, throughout all stages of the information utility's evolution. He defines participatory technology as the inclusion of people in the social and technical process of developing, implementing and regulating technology if they are affected by the technology.

Three forms of participatory technology are litigation; for example, the citizen challenges the right of a utility to pollute the environment; technology assessment, or identifying
and publicising the implications of technology; and ad hoc a
activity, such as special interest groups which are aimed at
altering technology. Sackman (1972) would add to this process the
concept of citizen feedback in the technological system develop­
ment. He suggests this could be done, in the case of the CIU,
by participatory social experimentation - or an experimental
prototype.

Kalba (1973) describes such a prototype, called the
Minnesota Experimental City (MXC) which is designed to provide
a test bed for the development and experimentation of techno­
logically-based human services. He outlines the nature of
the proposed innovation, including a first generation CIU, and
identifies some of the trade-offs between telecommunications-
supported services, transportation and land use.

He makes the important point that the social aspect of
the CIU and the wired city should not become lost in the
technocratic planning. The communications technology outlined
for MXC may improve business efficiency, decrease policy and
emergency response time and increase access to foreign-language
education; but the ability to work, shop, learn and vote from
home may adversely affect a community's cohesion in as yet
uncrecognized ways.

Turoff (1973) predicts a rapid use of computer-based Delphi
confering systems in the immediate future.
Not everyone is as enchanted with the potential of the computer as a communications tool. Canadian communications expert Gordon Thompson allocates computer terminals only six points, on a scale of 0 - 36. In contrast, he awards the telephone 17 points, books and libraries 24 and broadcasting only 11. In his view, a communications innovation has three characteristics:

1. It increases the ease of access or retrieval of stored human experience;
2. It increases the size of the information space shared in common by communicants;
3. It increases the ease with which shared perceptions and views can be discerned and developed, in order to achieve a consensus.

Thompson, warning that we are already being paralyzed by "information overload" suggests that one solution is a visual language, which he terms "visemes", or stick-like drawings linked to communicate ideas or concepts. Reading, he suggests, would become similar to watching television.

Satellites

Canada has placed particular reliance on satellite communications, for transmission of television and broadcast signals and for a host of other uses. Telesat Canada, the
agency responsible for domestic satellite communication, launched the world's first satellite for domestic use in 1973. The future role of satellites in urban planning is beyond the scope of this study.

It should be noted, however, that satellite communication may crowd out local information. Since ground terminal stations are very costly, communications coverage via satellite tends to blanked large areas, thus restricting inputs of local programming or information, and increasing the "one-way" communications flow from sender to receiver.

Print
American sociology, says Lerner (1968) grew out of the womb of American journalism. However, journalist Emmett Dedmon (1968) makes an important distinction between the goals of the behavioural scientist and those of the journalist. He argues that the behavioural scientist views the communications media as a vehicle to effect social change. In contrast, the journalist views the communications process as the goal itself, and any change which might result from the process is a by-product. He explains:

... though the social scientist may see [communication] as a means, the journalist tends to regard it as a sufficient end (1968, p.185).
These different and divergent views of the goals of communications apply particularly to the area of print journalism. The television viewer may use his own eyes and ears to perceive reality as it unfolds on his screen, but the newspaper reader is heavily dependent on the perceptions and observations of the newspaper reporter and editor in assessing the utility, or value, of any information.

In most cases, the assessment of the utility of a bit of information by the editor is unlikely to match that of the social scientist. Canadian media consultant Martin Goldfarb explains why:

A newspaper can't push change, because basically it is a mirror, which reflects the opinions of its readers. A newspaper functions to enforce your conviction that your neighbourhood is okay (1977).

The mirror effect described here is used by Goldfarb to refute the suggestion that print journalism is mainly a "one-way" communication mode, transmitting messages from sender to receiver with few opportunities for feedback. Participation may be indirect but it exists in three ways, says Goldfarb. Readers participate through the mirror effect, seeking support for their views. Secondly, readers participate by receiving hard news and advertising information of particular interest to them, in the manner described earlier by Gossage (1974).
Finally, people participate through use of the advertising columns, and to a lesser extent, through letters to the editor which are reprinted in the newspaper. Goldfarb argues that the newspaper is the only medium through which an individual can communicate with his community by buying space in its columns at a relatively low cost.

The newspaper is relatively cheap, widely distributed, and access to its columns is technologically open to anyone who can put pen or typewriter to paper. One of its most important characteristics is its relative efficiency. Farquhar (1972) observes that the average daily paper has printing space for 600,000 words, which would require about forty hours to read aloud, at normal announcing speeds. Another important feature is the relatively long life of the message transmitted; TV and radio signals come and go, but information carried in a newspaper can be read, stored and retrieved with relatively little trouble. The increasing dissemination of information and knowledge, and the attendant threat of information "overkill" has given rise to the small, specialized magazines aimed at selected audiences.

Despite these attractions, the growth of metropolitan newspapers no longer is a foregone conclusion. In Canada, Goldfarb reports that circulation of major dailies dropped sharply five or six years ago, and in the U.S., the Newspaper Advertising Bureau Inc., in New York, showed an "inexplicable drop" in readership in 1973, the last year for which figures
are available. The bureau reported that although circulation levels continued to advance, newspaper readership dropped to seventy-three per cent for all adults from the 77-78 per cent levels achieved for more than a decade (Simmons, 1973).

In the absence of detailed statistics, Goldfarb observes that in Canada, age groups under thirty years are not considered important readers of newspapers. He says that people turn to newspapers as they mature in order to seek reference points; for instance, how much they earn relative to other people; what their houses are worth; what they can purchase with their dollars; the value of their stocks and bonds. In the U.S., the NAB figures indicate that there are distinct variations in newspaper readership depending on household income, education levels and race. The study shows that more males and females with household incomes of $10,000 and up read newspapers in 1973 than did people in lower incomes. It indicates that high school graduates and people with some college education tended to read newspapers to a greater degree than did people with less education. Similarly, more whites tended to be newspaper readers than did non-whites in the survey year, with non-white females showing the lowest readership patterns.

However, the growth of smaller weekly newspapers, serving a particular metropolitan suburb or neighbourhood has taken up the slack created by lagging growth trends among metropolitan papers. Larsen and Edelstein (1960) concluded that the urban weekly newspaper can effectively develop and extend people's
identity and involvement with their community. Goldfarb (1977) cites several instances in Canada where major metropolitan newspapers have halted or reversed their dropping circulation by tackling the weekly papers in their own market, by featuring local or "street" news, and opening advertising columns to local merchants at reduced rates.

In 1977, the NAB is conducting a major study to examine newspapers' performance relative to other media and to study the role of newspapers as a consumer information source.

Video-tape and Film

There is a general impression in the media that if you are not in the pages of the paper or in the lens of the camera, then you don't exist. You are a member of the silent majority.

Irish politician Bernadette Devlin, interviewed on CBC's "Ninety-Minutes Live" January 31, 1976

Bernadette Devlin was responding to interviewer Peter Gzowski's question on what she had been doing lately, and she was attempting to convince him that she was doing just fine, albeit out of the public eye. She was referring to what communications experts call the "mirror" effect, which describes how people look to the media to confirm reality. If it is in the paper, or on TV, it is real; if it is unrecorded, then reality appears to be an illusion, without substance.
The mirror most readily available to planners is the half-inch video-tape technology. It is portable, simple to operate, easy to learn and relatively inexpensive to operate. It is probably the most practical way of achieving two-way communication between the planners and the planned for.

The classic exercise in the use of film/video-tape for social communications is the Fogo Island Project carried out in the late 1960's by the National Film Board and the Extension Service of Memorial University of Newfoundland, under the direction of NFB producer Colin Low. The Fogo Island process is further discussed in Chapter Five.

The Fogo Island project was designed to produce a new concept in community development, the use of communication to build trust between groups in the community and to achieve a consensus. By facilitating communication between individuals and between communities, the film-makers hoped to encourage people to express their problems as they saw them, and to modify their attitudes in the light of other viewpoints prevailing in the community.

At the time the project was initiated, the government of Newfoundland was formulating its policies on the island's "outpost" communities. It was anticipated that the film could become a form of "white paper", expressing the views of the Islanders to the policy makers in St. John's. Initially, producer Colin Low expected to make one or two films dealing with the Islander's concerns. Eventually, however, he made
a series of about twenty-eight short films, each dealing with a specific subject.

The immediate outcome of the Fogo Island project was a drastic revision of Newfoundland's policy of siphoning the population from the outposts into newly defined regional growth centres. But for Fogo Island, there were more specific results. A subsequent NFB film, "Memo from Fogo Island", completed in 1972 reveals a community which has met its immediate goals, and is now formulating new ones in an atmosphere of economic and social regeneration.

On balance, the Fogo Island process is slow, painstaking and enormously effective in initiating social change. It was used elsewhere in Newfoundland and Colin Low's group was asked to undertake a similar project in California. Considering its impact and acknowledged success, however, the Fogo Island process has not been widely used. In a personal conversation with the author in the fall of 1976, Colin Low explained that the process is not welcomed by governments or agencies seeking change because of the possibility that the people involved might veto the planned development. Two-way communication is a double-edged sword, and since most participatory gestures on the part of government and industry are sought to stamp approval on a project already defined, few bureaucrats are willing to risk a participatory No!
During a two-week seminar on *Film, Video-tape and Social Change*, sponsored by the Extension Service of Montreal University of Newfoundland in 1972, the following uses of the Fogo Island process were reported for rural and semi-rural areas (Gwyn, 1972):

1. **As a tool to encourage creativity in the community:**
The community development officer left video-tape equipment in a high school, and returned to find the students had made their own production and arranged to learn production techniques at a local studio;

2. **As a tool to involve young people in community development:**
A community development officer, who felt young people were being ignored in the development process, asked them to make their own tape. As a result, they became members of the development association and one student became secretary;

3. **As a means of communication between students and teachers:**
The students made a tape of their grievances and complaints and the teachers responded with a taped reply;

4. **As a means of communication between teachers and parents:**
Parents, uneasy about the introduction of levels instead of grades in the local school, were reassured when they viewed tapes of their children at their school work.

5. **As a means of developing community participation:** At one community, no one would get up and speak at a meeting to organize an improvement committee. The community development officer introduced VTR at a five night workshop on public speaking, and by the third night everybody
had stood up and given their names. On the fifth night the workshop held a mock-meeting - and one of the last people to give his name offered to be chairman;

6. As a means of confrontation: A semi-urban area lacked water. Residents formed an action committee, and made a tape of their demands and presented it to council, which recognized a rival for power, and consented to the necessary expansion of the water supply. VTR permitted "old" information to be presented in a more forceful manner;

7. As a means of communication and cultural survival: In a mainly Innuit community, without broadcast radio or television, VTR is used to disseminate community information. By making tapes in Eskimo, people are maintaining their language;

8. As a means of adult education: Tapes on record-keeping for fishermen, fish handling, food technology, municipal services are one means by which people in rural communities can up-grade their knowledge and skills. They can also utilize regular classroom space after hours;

9. As a means of expressing community values: By having local residents act out their own stories, in a games playing role, one community worker used VTR to enable people to express community conflicts and deep, underlying social issues - and to packed houses;

10. As a means of organizing a community: By producing a "video blitz" of tapes on local issues from lack of utilities to lagging employment, a community development worker enticed more than half the population of a community to view the product. By the end of the showing, subcommittees had been formed to press for gas and water lines, sewers, etc.
It is worth noting that many of the uses for VTR in rural and semi-rural areas centred around the **consensus** function, in order to create discussion and dialogue. In contrast, the seminar learned that in urban situations, the emphasis is on a **confrontation** function. The fragmented nature of urban society, the predominance of mass media, and the frustrations of urban living are among the reasons given for the confrontation focus. Some examples included:

1. Street research, showing tapes of power structures and local issues to encourage people to organize for change;
2. Documentation of the actions of citizens groups, to attract participants who are afraid of "taking-on" the establishment;
3. Monitoring meetings, so that decision-makers take more care about what commitments are made, and to ensure that such commitments are kept;
4. Analysis of conditions in an area as a prelude to urban renewal, so that local values were preserved.

One participant in the 1972 conference summed up the role of VTR in community development:

I believe that while VTR does not basically change the community development process, it does seem to accelerate it, most significantly in the process of bringing the community together and giving its members a feeling of unity and strength (Gwyn, 1972, p.12).
Some community development officers had reservations about the use of VTR as a social communication tool. Among them:

1. It can become a crutch. If the VTR isn't working, all work on the development process stops;
2. It can be used as a manipulative tool to achieve power by splinter groups who force a "consensus" on the more timid and uncommitted, or who edit unfairly;
3. It can lead to unfulfilled expectations, if people do not recognize the limitations in the technology.

**Media Access Groups**

These groups, which are found mainly in urban centres, offer support services to citizen's groups seeking access to the media. In the main, they offer training, equipment, advice, aid and other support to groups who need instruction in how to use the media. Media Access Groups are not primarily interested in programming. Normally, they work through various community groups rather than with the community itself. Their activities are expected to increase in the next few years. An example of a function media access group is Metro Media, operating in Vancouver.

**Community Information Centres**

As indicated by their names, these centres exist to meet local needs for information. These may include information on community services, neighbourhood groups, recreation
facilities, and specific events. They can provide a valuable feedback function by recording the needs expressed in incoming calls, since such calls can help to identify local priorities. They can serve as both a resource for the planner, seeking information about local groups, and as a feedback mechanism if such centres are properly set up.

3.3 SOCIAL COMMUNICATIONS MODES

In this chapter, we have described some of the communications modes, or channels, which may be used in a social communications system. This task is preliminary to the overall objective of this study, which is to suggest the design specifications for a social communications delivery system which may be used as a planning tool. In Chapter One, we defined "social communications" as "the use of information/communications systems to achieve planning objectives, normally incorporating an element of social change" (p.8). In Chapter Two, we identified some of the criteria which a social communications system should meet if it is to be effective, and suggested that public participation programs could be utilized as a social communications mode. In this section, we will analyze to what extent the communications modes described, including public participation, meet the criteria we have established for social communications.
The results of our analysis is set out in Table I. below. It shows that public participation programs, if properly designed, have a very high potential for social communications compared with more traditional modes, meeting all ten criteria listed in the table. Each rating for each mode is based on information contained in this and earlier chapters. Rather than discuss each rating in turn, we will describe how the ratings were established for two modes, public participation and print.

Public participation programs normally contain a message, or bit of information to be transmitted, and can serve as a "two-way" communication channel between the planner and the planned for. Such programs can be accessible to any interested person or party who wishes to participate. An audience is assured by the "two-way" channel. Multi-modal distribution systems can be built into such programs, since they may utilize a variety of communications channels - public meetings, ethnic press releases, print and television advertisements etc. - to reach the target audience. Such programs may be designed to include people who live close to each other, as in a neighbourhood, or who are widely distributed spatially but linked by a common interest. Programs may be repeated or adapted in order to increase people's awareness of the messages being transmitted. The avoidance of alienation and overload can be designed into such programs, if these goals are kept in mind by the program planner. Finally, public participation programs provide necessary scope for the element of animation.
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<th>FACE TO FACE</th>
<th>TELEPHONE</th>
<th>BROADCAST</th>
<th>CABLE TV</th>
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<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-way channel</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>limited</td>
<td>limited</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Access (control)</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>limited</td>
<td>limited</td>
<td>limited</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Audience</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Multi-modal</td>
<td>limited</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Spatial dimension</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Conservation/Repetition</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance of overload</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Avoidance of alienation</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Animator/animation</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>yes</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL &quot;yes&quot;</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Print also conveys a message, but its potential as a "two-way" channel is limited, since the public does not participate directly, but only to the extent that the printed message reflects their own views. Exceptions are letters to the editor, and the purchase of advertising space. Access to print is limited, since normally editorial control over content is in the hands of the editors. There is clearly an audience for print messages, but print is not multi-modal, and the audience may be confined mainly to certain age and income groups in specific areas. Print is certainly widely available and meets the criteria of spatial dimension. It also satisfies "conservation/repetition" since messages may be stored and repeated. The reader can avoid information overload simply by not reading the material. However, print can contribute to alienation by the exclusion of access and by the concentration of editorial control in the hands of relatively few people; people who do not find their views "mirrored" in the pages of a newspaper or magazine may feel alienated from the mainstream of society, a feature which leads to the periodic establishment of new magazines, or "underground" press ventures which seek to capture the alienated audience. Finally, no animator is required in dealing with the print mode.

We can establish, then, that public participation may be successfully used as a social communications mode. In Chapter Four, we will present a case study which describes how public participation was used in this manner.
FOOTNOTES: CHAPTER THREE

1. The Ubysssey, November 5 1976, p.2
4.1 INTRODUCTION

In earlier chapters, we have suggested that social communications systems can help to provide a more open and dynamic planning process, with continuous opportunities for interaction between the planners and the planned for. The need for this kind of planning process is anticipated by Kalba (1974) who argues that the demands of "planovation", or planning for innovation, will require a redefinition of the planning process as North American society evolves towards the postindustrial era. We have also suggested that public participation strategies can provide an important element in a social communications system.

In this chapter, we will describe how this concept was employed in formulating a regional information program for HABITAT: United Nations Conference on Human Settlements, held in Vancouver, B.C., May 31 - June 11, 1976. It deals with the second objective set out in Chapter One:

To describe how public participation strategies were used in a specific social communications case study.

In so doing, we will attempt to answer the question raised in Chapter One:
Can existing planning techniques, such as public participation, be utilized as a mode or method of incorporating information systems and flows into the overall planning process?

4.2 BACKGROUND

When the author was retained on January 12, 1976 to design, implement and manage a regional information division for Canadian Habitat Secretariat in the host city of Vancouver, the resources available were one brown envelope of information data and an order for 50,000 buttons. Five months after, CHS Information Vancouver had a staff of 36 people and had spent almost one million dollars. The reason for the accelerated activity was the unanticipated role which information assumed in order to help achieve conference goals.

The original planning for Canadian Habitat Secretariat, the host country agency, did not envisage a major public information program on HABITAT for Vancouver, the conference site and host city. The information division's responsibilities were mainly perceived to be concerned with Canada's role as host of the conference. Information's budget and programs reflected this bias; the bulk of funds had been allocated to the production of a brochure and a film aimed at prospective delegates abroad, and the division's local responsibilities were deemed to be the production of such conference handbooks as were required by the United Nations for the Vancouver conference.
Originally CHS Vancouver had only one information officer, who operated without the assistance of a secretary or any staff support whatsoever, and who maintained person-to-person contact with the press and with other people seeking information about HABITAT. There was little published information available for the local market beyond an inexpensive, mimeographed fact sheet.

Not surprisingly, little was known about the conference or its objectives by either the general public or local politicians. The need for a different information strategy, aimed at the host city and region, became clear when Vancouver City Council rejected the concept of hosting the largest United Nations conference ever held. In the Fall of 1975, both the Mayor and several council members voiced their opposition to hosting HABITAT, in view of anticipated costs to the city and the possibility of security problems.

The need, therefore, was to develop a regional information policy aimed at raising the level of awareness of HABITAT and the conference objectives, and to create a favourable climate in the host city. The position of Assistant Director-General, Information, was created for the organization of a Vancouver Information Office.

Goals and Objectives

The most urgent task facing the Vancouver office was to design an appropriate information strategy, establishing first the goals and objectives of an information program and the
delivery systems necessary to achieve those goals.

Since Information's objectives necessarily had to reflect the goals of the HABITAT Conference itself, these are reviewed below:

1. **HABITAT, International Goals**
   a) Raise level of awareness about the phenomenon of urbanization, mass migration to settlements, and its consequences on part of governments, non-government organizations (NGO's), media and interested citizens;
   b) Identify and expose various approaches to managing this phenomenon and solutions to the consequences of this phenomenon that have been tried and found more or less successful;
   c) Develop, debate and refer to governments recommendations for action at the national level on human settlements, policies, strategies and programs;

2. **Canadian Goals**
   a) To raise the level of awareness about the phenomenon of urbanization in Canada, in the provinces, and our major settlements, and the consequences of this phenomenon on the part of governments, NGO's, media, opinion molders and interested citizens;
   b) To identify and discuss various approaches to managing this phenomenon, and solutions to the consequences of this phenomenon that have been tried and found more or less successful in Canada and abroad;
c) To use HABITAT - its preparatory process, the conference itself and post-conference activity - to achieve a greater consensus on the objectives and substance of a CHS and to promote and refine the development of intergovernmental and public/private mechanisms and process to implement it;

d) To develop an awareness in Canada of the need for, and to adopt and promote a Canadian position on the recommendations for international co-operation in field of human settlements.

3. Regional Goals

a) To create an awareness on the part of the governments, media, NGO's and citizens of Vancouver and B.C. of what HABITAT is about, what it can mean to them and how they can and should participate and contribute.

b) To so stage HABITAT - the events preceding the conference and the conference itself - that it is perceived to be a success and a credit to Canada, B.C. and Vancouver.

Within the context of these broad goal statements, the Information division of CHS had specific sub-goals. These were:

i) To support Canada's role in the UN HABITAT Conference as a participant;

ii) To support Canada's role as the host;

iii) To support Canada's ongoing concern with the problem of human settlements.
Scope and Timing

The Vancouver Information division was part of the overall Information program of CHS, which, in turn, was meshed with other information agencies, such as the CBC Host Broadcaster, the United Nations Office of Public Information and the Information division of HABITAT FORUM, the parallel conference for non-government organizations.

The scope of the division's operation was determined by spatial considerations, functions, and time period. In terms of spatial distribution of information, before the conference, CHS Vancouver was responsible for servicing British Columbia, Alberta and the Yukon and Northwest Territories. During the conference, the spatial distribution of public information was extended across Canada.

In terms of functions, CHS Information Vancouver was primarily responsible for the production of conference information, such as conference handbooks, delegates' brochures, wall posters and promotion materials in both English and French languages for the Canadian market and also in Spanish for the United Nations. Some French language translation and/or production was carried out by CHS Information in Ottawa, primarily for domestic distribution east of Alberta, or for posts and missions abroad, but the bulk of this material was produced in Vancouver. CHS Vancouver was also responsible for the editorial and program content of HABITAT Station, created through the amalgamation of all the community cable television distribution
systems in order to bring live coverage of the conference to viewers.

In terms of timing, the regional aspects of the Vancouver division's operation was expanded to encompass national and international coverage, with the arrival of the Director-General of Information and his staff from Ottawa for the critical period just prior to and during the Conference.

CHS Information Vancouver had only four months to achieve its pre-conference objectives. This relatively short period of time constrained the effectiveness of the program in terms of the spatial distribution of information.

In theory, the plan was to establish an information program initially in the host region, defined as Greater Vancouver and the municipalities which directly bordered the area. When this was accomplished, the priorities would extend first to the Interior of B.C., then to Alberta and finally to the two northern territories. In fact, the time and effort required to achieve Information's objectives in the host region limited the resources available to service the rest of the region with some important exceptions.

Similarly, the scheduling of information programs was planned to achieve peak public interest and involvement prior to the conference itself, (when public interest would be preempted by the actual conference proceedings). In fact, the limited time available to design, mount and implement
information programs meant that some programs overlapped the conference, and some impact was lost.

Methodology

A number of approaches were developed in designing the methodology for the Information program. First, an organizational structure was designed as the specific functions to be performed were first identified and then staffed accordingly. These functions were press services, community relations, production, central registry and administration.

Second, in addition to more traditional promotion and publicity techniques, the means used to achieve CHS Vancouver Information's goals and objectives for the host region included a degree of public participation. There were pragmatic reasons for developing a public participation program. One reason was the fact that the lack of information available had created a significant degree of frustration and hostility among people who wanted or needed to know about HABITAT, and who wanted to become "involved" in the project. Another was the fact that the limited time and staff made it physically impossible to meet every request for information or for speakers and programs from CHS's own resources. A critical factor was the difficulty in conveying, to the local public, the goals and aspirations of a conference dealing mainly with conditions in other countries beyond the experience or imagination of most Vancouverites. Thus a public participation program proved to be a prudent alternative, and
a special participation unit was added to the Information organization structure.

Third, information themes were developed, in order to provide some basis for consistent design and for coherent programs. Specifically, these themes were:

- To develop the concept that "HABITAT is How People Live";
- To develop an awareness among Canadians that we should make greater use of our existing resources rather than adding to them;
- To develop an awareness among Canadians that they should ask all levels of government only for those programs and facilities which people cannot provide for themselves;
- To convey the concept that HABITAT was a solution-oriented conference, as delegates from 140 countries exchanged problem-solving experiences.

Fourth, various modes of communication were adopted to disseminate information and monitor feedback, utilizing the delivery system most appropriate to the target clientele. Using the modes described in Chapter Three, the following section briefly summarizes this aspect of the program.

4.3 MODES OF COMMUNICATION

Face-to-Face (Volunteer Speakers Bureau)

From the day that the Vancouver Information office opened, it was inundated with requests from people who wanted
to be involved somehow in HABITAT. Since the office was also inundated with requests for HABITAT speakers, it was decided to combine the two functions.

The volunteer speakers included an engineer on sabbatical, teachers, university professors, wealthy matrons and theology students, young people seeking job experience, and housewives. All attended one-day HABITAT training seminars.

In the three months the volunteers operated, they addressed some 250 church, community, service groups and reached about 10,000 people in face-to-face communication. Their audiences included a handful of clerks in a bank to airport workers meeting in a cafeteria to formal lecture-hall groups. Initially operating in the Vancouver area, they eventually reached into the Fraser Valley, up into the Interior and part of Vancouver Island. They were Information's front-line troops, encountering in the field indifference, hostility, antagonism and increasingly, as their efforts expanded, interest and approval.

They disseminated and collected information providing Information with a "two-way" communications channel with part of the target population. Each speaker was equipped with an information kit, posters, buttons, one or two films, and a "feedback" form. These forms noted the group addressed, location and date, number in attendance, aspect of HABITAT discussed, audio-visual material used, and general audience reaction and interest areas. Each speaker was required to submit a completed form before being assigned a new speaking
date, since it was stressed that the information collected was at least as important as the messages being disseminated.

These feedback forms provided information with speedy, direct and efficient data on prevailing public viewpoints. There was not sufficient time to mount attitude surveys or to conduct opinion polls of the target population, since by the time the results could be compiled the conference would be over. Audience response was rated as "positive", "negative", and "neutral". Many speakers reported that an audience which was initially indifferent or neutral finally generated a positive response after the films were shown, information distributed and discussions were held.

An analysis of 138 volunteer speakers' feedback forms for the period March 24 to May 14, 1976, indicated the following breakdown of responses:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>POSITIVE</th>
<th>NEGATIVE</th>
<th>NEUTRAL</th>
<th>INCOMPLETE</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>111</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Answers to the most recurrent questions and concerns were prepared and distributed to speakers and to the Information Centre. The major concerns identified in the feedback forms were dealt with in news releases, and in the speeches of CHS officials; for instance, to reduce concern about the nature of conference visitors, press releases pointed out that the largest group coming was the World Council of Churches.
To counter concern over costs, it was pointed out that most of the money was being spent to create employment and purchase supplies in Vancouver. To counter concern about violence, the elaborate security provisions were stressed. In this way, the information on public concerns and attitudes was collected, analysed, and answered in Information material distributed as widely as possible, and through a number of modes.

**Telephone System**

Initially, all public inquiries were fed into the central CHS office and answered by the secretarial staff, which proved inadequate to handle the volume of calls. A community Information Centre was opened as a first priority, staffed by competent personnel on a two-shift basis and outfitted with adequate telephone switchboards. The HABITAT Information telephone number was carried in small, inexpensive advertisements repeated in the local, regional and metropolitan newspapers.

Telephone inquiries shortly exceeded 100 calls a day, handled by a bilingual staff. In a three-month period, almost 100,000 people were served by the Information Centre through the telephone and personal visits. The nature of all inquiries was tabulated in weekly reports to the office of the Assistant-Director General of Information in order to monitor public concerns and information needs.

Pre-planning requirements had established a new Information number, listed in the city directory. At the time of
the conference, in order to cope with anticipated demand, a ten-man switchboard was installed and staffed on a 24-hour basis. Languages spoken by the telephone inquiry crew included English, French, Spanish, German, Persian and Hungarian. During the one-month period May 12 to June 15, a total of 23,108 calls were handled, with a daily high of 2,200 calls, indicating a truly phenomenal interest in conference events. So far as possible, inquiries were tabulated by type, and by time period, and reported to CHS Information management.

Broadcast Systems

The use of broadcast services, defined as commercial television and radio, was confined to the period preceding the conference, since the Information function was assumed by the United Nations Office of Public Information during the conference itself.

Broadcast services were utilized for both editorial and advertising support. To attract editorial attention - and thus valuable on-air time - efforts were made to design participation programs which were "media events", that is, programs or demonstration projects which had news values in themselves, and conveyed the Information themes of awareness and self-help indirectly. Similarly, the Neighbourhood Walks project, to be discussed later, was chosen for its media appeal and the various walks were reported on television and radio. This approach helped augment the normal routine of
press conferences and "stand-up" interviews of conference officials and expanded the on-air time devoted to pre-conference activities.

Television was used as an advertising medium to reach a province-wide and regional audience, since metropolitan and weekly newspapers confined coverage to the Greater Vancouver area. Information feedback mechanisms had conveyed people's view of human settlements as a dreary subject, which inevitably led to demands on the Canadian taxpayer for more foreign aid. Therefore, we chose a light, animated approach to television advertising. For subject material we used other countries' solutions to their human settlement problems, to convey the idea that these countries were handily resolving their problems with minimal outside help - and that some of their solutions might be useful to Canadians facing similar issues. This dual approach of using animation and stressing solutions was also adopted for print advertising. Examples are included in Appendix A.

Radio was used primarily for reaching the younger, mobile audience and seniors who were more confined to their homes. Concerted attempts were made to aid radio stations broadcasting in languages other than English.

Cable Television

Community television was used as a major mode before and during the conference. In the pre-conference period, a weekly hour-long television show was produced on Vancouver's community
station and "bicycled" around to other community stations in the lower mainland and on Vancouver Island. During the conference itself, Information's prime mode was HABITAT Station, a community television network composed of various stations in the lower mainland and entirely seconded to Information for the ten-day period. The stations were linked by microwave and by cable, in an unprecedented cooperative venture. All production during the period was handled through facilities at the HABITAT conference sites, and the on-air broadcast picked up by the network stations and relayed to their home audiences. While the provision of the television production facilities was the responsibility of another department of CHS, Information was responsible for all programming content, or "software". Information staffers reported all conference events and compiled broadcasts which were aired several times daily. Major conference events were televised live, and repeated on a selective basis. The extreme interest generated by HABITAT Station may be measured by the fact that calls from viewers seeking information or making complaints on programming changes reached 300 a day. At the end of the conference, the small studio and control room was dismantled, the cables taken up, the microwave system removed and the local community stations resumed their separate programming.

Computers and Satellites

Computers were used extensively by conference planners to record and provide information, and satellite transmission
of conference events was considerable. However, neither of these modes were the direct responsibility of Information.

Video-tape and Audio-visual

Video-tape and audio-visual modes were used in Information's participation programs, and to reach a key audience - school children. A local audio-visual unit, Vancouver Historical Insights Ltd., was retained to design and implement the outreach program for school-aged audiences. By fielding speakers, each covering two or three schools or more daily, Insights managed to reach 61,214 school children in a two-and-a-half-month period, and was forced to turn down requests for additional bookings. The a/v program, which dealt with the growth and development of Vancouver and then evolved into a global view of the problems, proved to be particularly effective a mode of reach young audiences.

In addition, a library of films and slides on human settlement issues and on the conference was quickly assembled from United Nations and CHS sources and made available to the public. Information purchased advertising - mainly on bus signs - to support a National Film Board of Canada program of films. HABITAT Station carried the bulk of the 230 audio-visual presentations produced by 120 countries and presented at the conference to show local solutions to human settlement problems.
HABITAT attracted early and sustained support from the major metropolitan papers, which were running, on average, close to two-and-a-half pages of coverage a day just prior to the conference. However, it became clear to Information planners that despite the space allocated to the subject, newspaper readers were not necessarily aware of the impending conference, a classic case of Information "overload". (Meier, 1962)

While the interest of the metro papers was encouraged, the bulk of the Information effort in the print media was aimed at the small weekly community papers, which dealt primarily with local issues. Since these issues included zoning, traffic changes, housing construction, school problems and other human settlement subjects, the weekly papers were the most obvious print mode of reaching local audiences. The "ring weeklies", or weeklies within Vancouver City boundaries, or in municipalities directly adjacent to it, were identified and editorial support, backed up by solid advertising dollars, were solicited through dinner meetings, personal visits, and in some cases with a supply of editorial copy written by Information staff. The line, or top story in a weekly newspaper was judged to have more impact than a story on an "inside" page of the major dailies. Similarly, the active co-operation of the weeklies was sought for HABITAT participant events in their area, with gratifying results.

The delivery system for all press releases and pictures for television, radio and print media was a local public
relations and press counselling firm, which handled press contacts, press inquiries, press conferences, press releases, press counselling, mail distribution throughout the two-province, two-territory region. During four-and-one-half months, the public relations firm produced 98 press releases, and handled an undetermined amount of press requests for information. Attempts were made to quantify the number of subsequent stories which appeared in the regional papers, but the exercise was abandoned when the newsclips were delivered daily in boxes. Clips were filed in a central registry at the conference site and made available to journalists seeking background information. The press releases were mailed out to 300 regional media outlets, increasing to 800 regional and national media outlets by May and finally to 1,100 Canada-wide outlets.

In terms of print production, the constraining factors were the recessionary nature of the economy and the initial hostility to the idea of holding the conference in Vancouver at all. Information planners decided that no attempt should be made to produce glossy, multi-colour brochures or flyers which might serve to remind the target population of the $20 million cost of the conference to Canada. Instead, low-key, black and white fact sheets and flyers were chosen as the print vehicles for the HABITAT Information themes.

A special "in-house" production unit within HABITAT Information produced news releases, brochures, fact sheets,
church bulletins, reprints of articles, in addition to the conference publications required by the United Nations. A distribution unit sent out hundreds of thousands of information kits, posters, buttons, decals etc., using school and professional association mailing lists in addition to community services mailing lists.

All graphics were supplied by another division of CHS, but co-ordination was necessarily close and constant. One example was the production of a "specifications kit" for stores which wanted to develop HABITAT display themes. Information's budget did not permit the production of costly posters and window displays, but all information needed to create a display was contained in the specifications kit and included colour code, type of print, size of logo or HABITAT insignia, and copyright restraints.

During the conference, the Vancouver Information staff also produced the copy and pictures for a CHS newspaper, HABITAT Bulletin, normally produced in Ottawa.

Community Information Centres

As indicated earlier, first priority was given to the establishment of a community information centre to help siphon off local hostility by providing quick and efficient access to information in both Canada's official languages. The original Information Centre in Gastown was also designed for use by the press and for audio-visual events. A small
22-seat mini-theatre was built, to show films to school children and members of the general public. Display areas were installed, and press conferences were scheduled for the Centre to encourage the media to "check in" and keep up with HABITAT events taking place around the city. The space for the centre was donated by a Gastown developer who wished to increase customer traffic in the area. The Information Centre was well designed, inexpensive, attractive, staffed by bilingual personnel in blue HABITAT uniforms, and very heavily utilized.

At the time of the conference, the Gastown information centre was closed down and the public information function was moved to HABITAT Pavilion, a hugh, drafty structure built on the Vancouver Courthouse grounds, utilizing paper mache shells decored by school children. The Pavilion included television viewing areas, and was designed to provide local access to the proceedings of the conference which were taking place in various locations in the city. Some 60,000 people visited the Pavilion during its two-week life.

Participation Modes of Communication

The lack of pre-conference planning and the short time-period available to design and implement the Information function created many problems and shortfalls in Information programming. Many things which ought not to be done were done, and others which should have been done were not.
However, the Information strategy which emerged from the feedback mechanisms was based on the concept that information should be readily available to all who wanted to learn about HABITAT. Nevertheless, it was clear that Information could not adopt a high profile without the risk of generating even greater hostility from the target population, whose fears as reported by the Information Centre covered a range of concerns, including being attacked in back alleys by global "hippies" who were attracted to Vancouver by the conference, to the fear that exposure of Vancouver on global television would increase immigration to Canada. Therefore, the concept of public participation as a mode of social communication was explored as a possible alternative to more conventional modes of communication.

There were many participatory opportunities in HABITAT, from attending HABITAT Forum, the counter conference staged entirely for the general public, to gelvision phone-in shows. However, one major emphasis on participation as a communication mode was centred on the Neighbourhood Walks program, discussed briefly below.

4.4 Neighbourhood Walks Program

The Neighbourhood Walks program was designed to deal with the all-too-obvious disparity between conditions existing in the rich and poor nations who would be sending delegates to HABITAT: United Nations Conference on Human Settlements. The
type of human settlements existing in many of the developing countries was beyond the ability of most Vancouverites to comprehend, and therefore they found it difficult to relate to some of the conference objectives. The Neighbourhood Walks program was an attempt to translate these objectives into a form which Vancouverites could understand, in their own neighbourhoods. Residents were asked to take a fresh look at their own neighbourhood, inventory their community assets, and suggest new ways of using what they already had, rather than ask governments for more facilities.

The program leaned heavily on the concept that every community has some features which generate pride in its citizens (Seelig, 1974). As the program developed, elements were borrowed from a program of walks suggested by Zacharias and Seelig (1974). An expanded program of ten Neighbourhood Walks was later submitted by Canadian Habitat Secretariat to a conference planning session in Nairobi for consideration as an international event, but the lack of adequate preparation time precluded its development at the time.

In essence, the HABITAT Neighbourhood Walks Program was a community program to promote local participation in developing the following objectives:

1. To promote a citizen inventory of existing community facilities, to analyze whether these facilities may be used for other functions, and to suggest alternatives where appropriate;
2. To heighten the awareness among citizens of improvements to their own community which they can initiate themselves using their own resources.

In total, five HABITAT Neighbourhood Walks were staged prior to the conference. In consultation with planning department officials with the City of Vancouver, two "pilot" projects were undertaken in two diverse communities, West Point Grey and Mount Pleasant, using different techniques. These neighbourhoods were chosen for the initial walks, since they were areas where the City was prepared to act on proposals from citizens. There was a reluctance on the part of the City planning officials to undertake programs which might arouse expectations which could not be met. When these proved successful three other official Walks were staged, including a West End Neighbourhood Walk, a University Endowment Land Forest Walk, and a HABITAT Cycle Event, aimed at attracting the interest of cyclists.

A secondary objective of the Neighbourhood Walks program was to increase the interest in the HABITAT conference itself through the staging of media "events" which would be widely reported via the more traditional modes of communication. Media coverage of a series of related events, such as the sequential Walks program, can follow one of two patterns. First, coverage may be small initially, and increase as publicity techniques help to generate public enthusiasm for the event. This might be termed the "ripple" effect. Second, media interest might be greatest in the initial stages, when the event
has novelty value, and diminish over time. The might be term-
ed the "novelty" effect.

Information planners chose the "ripple" effect as their
objectives for both the conference generally and the Walks
program in particular. However, this attempt was only par-
tially successful. Since the time required to conceive, de-
sign, plan and implement the program was limited, the Walks
themselves took place perilously close to the timing of the
conference itself, when local programs were overshadowed by
the presence of internationally-acclaimed dignitaries and the
excitement of staging in Vancouver the world's largest UN
conference. Thus general coverage increased initially as
planned, and then faded as more imposing events and personal-
ities claimed the news columns and air time.

The five Walks are summarized below in terms of organi-
ization, planning output and media coverage.

**HABITAT Mount Pleasant Walk**

Mount Pleasant is a community of about 20,000, with a
relatively high percentage of people of Chinese and East
European origin. The community is in a state of transition,
with apartment blocks replacing family homes in certain areas.
Almost 80 per cent of the accommodation is rental.²

The HABITAT Mount Pleasant Walk was organized by local
community groups in co-operation with the Vancouver City
Planning Department. Participation was by invitation only.
The fifty participants selected represented a cross-section of the community as perceived by the local program organizers. Local politicians who were raised in the community were selected as tour guides to lead the participants along a scheduled route. Specific events scheduled for the tour included a look at a new condominium, tea at the Sikh Temple, a visit to City Hall, and lunch at the local branch of the Canadian Legion.

After a pre-walk orientation and the walk itself, a post-walk discussion session was held to formalize and record the experiences of the participants. A detailed questionnaire was also distributed to each participant by the local area planner for use by the planning department. Output from the HABITAT Mount Pleasant Walk was used in planning the federal government's Neighbourhood Improvement Program (NIP) which is being implemented in sections of the community.

The selected group of participants recorded their observations in a limited "design-in", utilizing the services of one artist-animator. Unfortunately, the selection of the location (the Canadian Legion Hall) and the timing of the workshop (late Saturday afternoon) severely restricted discussion.

On balance, however, the Mount Pleasant participants agreed that the neighbourhood is primarily a "people" place, requiring more family housing, supervised play areas for children, pedestrian walkways, facilities for existing parks and possible recreational use of warehouse roof-tops.
An evaluation of the Mount Pleasant participant process made by local area planning assistant, Mitch Taylor, is appended to this study. He made the following substantive comments:

1. The HABITAT Walk and accompanying summary were extremely valuable to the planning department as a means of gaining better insight and understanding of the community's diverse facets;

2. The department felt that the walk and similar neighbourhood projects can make valuable contributions towards promoting neighbourly relations;

3. The "participation" by invitation" was an effective way of achieving citizen input, but the post-walk session required better organization;

4. The lack of any follow-up on the walkers' recommendations was a constraint. Mount Pleasant lacks any strong citizens' group which could have been asked to undertake the task of carrying on the participation program at the neighbourhood level.

Since this was the first experimental walk, a relatively low-key approach was taken in soliciting media coverage. Television was selected as the most likely vehicle, since the presence of two prominent civic personalities, an alderman and a former mayor gave the event news interest. The active co-operation of the local weekly "The Mount Pleasant News" was sought through personal contact, provision of editorial material, purchase of advertising space and payment for organization time spent by the editor, who became co-chairman of the Walk.
Television coverage was provided by CBC during the initial phases of the event and was capsulized on the evening news. The leading metropolitan newspaper carried a fairly extensive article on the walk.

Two displays were obtained for use at the Information Centre in Gastown. The first was a display of the Mount Pleasant community prepared by the City Planning Department and included in a 'resource show' at a neighbourhood shopping mall. The second display was composed of drawings prepared by a local artist during the post-walk discussion period. These drawings contained graphic representations of the more prominent concerns for the area recorded by community residents participating in the HABITAT Mount Pleasant Walk.

HABITAT West Point Grey Walk

West Point Grey is a community of about 12,000 residents, more than 70 per cent of British origin. The majority of residents own their own homes. Originally part of the 5,000 acre land grant given the Canadian Pacific Railway, the community has remained virtually unchanged since it was carefully planned and developed.

The HABITAT West Point Grey Walk was organized largely by professional planners. The walk was informal and all members of the community were encouraged to participate. Three orientation sessions were conducted in a local school. Participants were supplied with Polaroid cameras to assist them in recording their observations along any route they chose to follow by
foot, bicycle or car. Buses were provided to transport senior citizens and handicapped members of the community. The post-walk session consisted of a 'design-in' conducted in the gymnasium of the school. Animators assisted participants in graphically expressing their ideas about the community on a 200 foot roll of paper posted on the walls of the gym. Photographs taken were also incorporated into this mural, which was later forwarded to city planning officials. A summary was presented to Vancouver City Council.

Unlike the Mount Pleasant Walk, where the participants' comments were channelled into the NIP program, the West Point Grey Walk lacked a particular program focus. The Neighbourhood Walkers, ranging in age from two to eighty-two years offered extensive comments covering such diverse subjects as bicycle paths, housing, use of lanes, parks, services, streets and parking, and tree beautification. The main concern of the Walkers appeared to be the need to keep their garden community a green oasis in the urban scene. The role of the neighbourhood in relation to its adjacent community, the University of British Columbia was also explored.

Considerable promotion was undertaken prior to the HABITAT West Point Grey Walk by CHS staff. Newspaper advertisements appeared in the local weekly for the two consecutive issues preceding the event. Posters, similar in design to the initial advertisement, were also produced for distribution to merchants in the West Point Grey area.
Front page advance headlines were given the up-coming event in the local community paper. The cover story, containing details of the proposed itinerary and purpose of the project was written by CHS staff. A full page story was included in the post-walk edition of the same local newspaper.

Another local newspaper with a significant distribution carried a half-page article on the walk, written by CHS staff. An article about one quarter page in size was carried by "The Vancouver Sun" on the proceedings.

HABITAT West End Walk

The West End of Vancouver is one of the most densely populated urban areas in North America according to Vancouver city planners. Its cityscape is dominated by huge highrises, and its population is composed mainly of young, single transients or retired people. The neighbourhood walk was co-sponsored by the West End Community Council and was open to the public. The event was staged on a Sunday.

Three walks, of varying length, were held to accommodate the various age groups resident in the community. Walk leaders included a local area planner, an architect and a media celebrity. The focus of the walks was to enable the participants to recognize the diversity in the architectural form and lifestyles of the area.

One unique feature was the "Bird's Eye Walk", which enabled the two hundred-odd participants to view their community
from the top of a forty-two storey building to see how existing space - including parking lots, landscaped setbacks, root rops - could be better utilized. Residents were also asked to observe how the architecture of the apartment buildings affected the lifestyles of the people who lived in them, whether they were young, single transients or senior citizens. The impressions of the group were later recorded in a "design-in" and suggestions were compiled for presentation to planning authorities.

Perceptions solicited from the participants in the "design-in" dealt mainly with the unique nature of the densely populated community. They included comments on the relationship between wind, glare and the highrise construction; the need to preserve rather than demolish older buildings; the cost of housing for senior citizens and the use of roof tops for jogging tracks, racquet ball courts, roof gardens, day care centres.

Radio was employed for the first time in advertising a Neighbourhood Walk. Although a newspaper advertisement was produced and placed in the local weekly, emphasis for this event was on the development of thirty-second radio spots for use on three local stations in order to reach the diversity of population in the community. As a complement to both the newspaper and radio coverage, flyers were printed for distribution from several local retail/service establishments.

While newspaper reporting of the event was less extensive than for the two previous events, the lack of coverage by either of the major daily papers may be explained in part by the fact
that a comprehensive press release had previously been issued covering details of the walk. The local community paper carried a short review and picture.

Television coverage of the West End Walk was more comprehensive than for the two previous Neighbourhood Walks. The CBC evening news contained a feature presentation of walk participants, gaining a "bird's eye view".

**HABITAT Cycle Event**

Bike riders of all ages were invited to participate in this event, designed to mark the opening of the new HABITAT bicycle route through Vancouver from Stanley Park to Jericho Beach. Participants were invited to don costumes and were asked to record their suggestions for new bicycle trails as they followed the six-mile bike route. At least two Vancouver Parks Commissioners were in active attendance, and comments and proposals of the cyclists were included in a report to the Parks Board.

Two features of the cycle event deserve comment. First, to increase public awareness of the number of cyclists using city streets, special HABITAT blue bike banners were commissioned for the event and distributed to participants. Second, there arose the question of whether cyclists should use those parts of the trail, such as beaches and shorelines, normally used by pedestrians. It was decided that cyclists should indeed bike these sections, in order to dramatize and identify potential
areas of conflict. The co-operation of the city police was sought and obtained for critical traffic areas, such as bridge crossings.

A combination of radio spots, newspaper advertisements, posters and flyers was used to meet the regional scope of this project. Flyers and posters were produced and distributed to most cycle shops within the city. Newspaper advertisements (smaller versions of the poster) were carried in local community newspapers. Radio promotion was used to the same extent as in the West End Walk. Held on the eve of the main conference, coverage of the event was lacking in all metro newspapers. The CBC did, however, provide limited television coverage.

HABITAT U.E.L. Forest Walk

The University Endowment Lands support a forest on the edge of a major city. The aim of the walk was to increase public awareness of the possibilities of this forested habitat. The event was open to the public and held on a Saturday. It was co-sponsored by the University Land Regional Park Committee, whose members served as tour leaders.

A steady downpour failed to deter the forty or fifty determined walkers, who carried HABITAT umbrellas especially ordered for such an eventuality. Vancouver Parks Commissioners participated in the five kilometer hike and were invited to explain their position on future U.E.L. development. Comments made at the discussion session were recorded and forwarded to the responsible provincial authorities.
Both the HABITAT U.E.L. Forest Walk and the HABITAT Cycle Event presented problems regarding the selection of appropriate advertising modes. Since both projects were of regional or city-wide interest as opposed to the local community interest of previous Neighbourhood Walks, widespread publicity was required. Newspaper advertisements proved to be too expensive. Consequently, advertising centred on the use of radio. A single advertisement was placed in the local community newspaper. No coverage of this event was carried on television, possibly because of the poor weather encountered. However, the colourful HABITAT umbrellas won space in the metropolitan newspapers.

4.5 PROGRAM EVALUATION

It is difficult to devise evaluation criteria for the Neighbourhood Walks public participation program. First, it was experimental and no traditional evaluation models exist. Second, the program was mounted under strict time constraints, which precluded the establishment of an evaluation framework as part of the exercise.

However, the Neighbourhood Walks project did generate a significant amount of citizen input into local area or neighbourhood planning. Information planners had decided early in the process that the Walks program should have some visible output, and that the material collected should be useful to planners and
politicians. Thus the output was designed to be in a form which encouraged participation, such as a "design-in", and all suggestions recorded were subsequently sent to the relevant authorities. The output per Walk was mixed, and depended on a number of variables, including the purpose of the Walk, the format used to record suggestions, the number of participants and the weather.

This section summarizes the elements required for a successful neighbourhood walk program on the basis of the HABITAT experience with the two "pilot" projects in Mount Pleasant and West Point Grey.

1. **Involvement of a Community Organization: Sponsorship of a Neighbourhood Walk by a community organization is valuable because:**

   - members have some knowledge of their community and can help identify resources and special qualities not obvious to "outside" organizers;
   - members can help to involve other organizations and residents in the community, and to publicize the event;
   - a community group can present the findings of the walk to the appropriate municipal agencies.

2. **Selection of an Appropriate Date:** Since the Neighbourhood Walk should involve the public, a weekend or statutory holiday should be selected in order to encourage participation. Some communities are at their liveliest on a Saturday and this excitement may best be captured on that day. However, if family participation is desired, Sunday
may prove more appropriate. The ultimate decision should reflect the type and scale of local participation desired.

Preparation time will vary with the complexity of the Walk. Arrangements for facilities and materials (preparation of inventory kits, questionnaires, refreshments, etc.) may be underestimated in terms of the organizational time required. The amount of time required for publicity should also be considered.

3. Choice of Participation: Basically, there are two options; controlled participation, or open participation. HABITAT Mount Pleasant Walk demonstrated that participation may be structured to contain a representative cross-section of the community. Alternatively, the HABITAT West Point Grey Walk was organized to encourage general participation. Both worked well and have their advantages. The Mount Pleasant Walk participants helped to formulate recommendations for submission to the Neighbourhood Improvement Program. While a specific program did not emerge from the West Point Grey Walk, a greater number of participants were given the opportunity of evaluating and exchanging ideas on the future of their community.

4. Phasing the Walk: A successful neighbourhood inventory walk involves three, and possibly four, phases:

   a) A pre-Walk Orientation Session:

      Participants need a starting point, to learn what the objectives of the Walk are, and how the program is to be carried out. Members of the organizing committee can outline the objectives.
Participants also should be made aware of how their community has changed over time - how it began, where it is at now, and the way it might evolve in the future. Audio-visual aids are useful.

For the Mount Pleasant Walk, a local alderman who grew up in the community recalled the way of life in Mount Pleasant when he was a boy, and described some of the changes which have taken place in this highly transient community. For the West Point Grey Walk, a slide presentation acquainted participants with their community's evolution.

b) The Walk Itself:

A neighbourhood walk may be tightly structured, with a specific route and itinerary, or it may be unstructured, with no particular route or timetable.

The Mount Pleasant Walk was organized with a route, tour guides, and specific points of interest. There was little flexibility in the timetable.

The West Point Grey Walk was more informal. Participants were provided with a suggested "inventory" check list and asked to select their own routes, modes of transport, and timetable. Both methods produced informative results.

c) A Post-Walk Session:

The pilot projects indicated that many people respond to the challenge of looking at their communities in order to seek changes they can initiate themselves. A post-walk session gives the participants an opportunity to describe and
discuss their experiences. In the post-walk phase of both pilot projects, animators assisted participants in expressing their observations.

Participants in the HABITAT Mount Pleasant Walk formed into small discussion groups to record their concerns. Participants in the West Point Grey Walk took part in a "Design-In", where a team of artists assisted them in graphically recording their observations on a huge wall poster.

d) Post-Walk Implementation:

A neighbourhood walk may have a specific objective, as in the case of Mount Pleasant, where citizen input was sought in planning the local NIP program. Or the neighbourhood walk may be merely a program to increase people's awareness of their own community. In most communities, local participation may be increased if people feel their views will be brought to the attention of local planning agencies.

5. **Information Kits**: Simple information kits were prepared for both pilot walks. They included:

a) A statement of objectives, or what the exercise was about;

b) A map of the community, showing key facilities and a proposed route for the walks, and a pencil and note pad;

c) Key demographic information on who lives in the community, by ethnic status, age, sex, income, etc. (Who Are Your Neighbours?):

d) A short inventory list of things to look at;
e) A reporting form, indicating participants' suggestions for alternative or more intensive use. This may be in print or graphic form.

6. **Publicity**: The publicity required to encourage participation will depend on the scope of participation desired. For open invitation events, publicity is essential.

   Publicity might include:
   
   - Letters of invitation to local community groups, elected officials, schools, churches, etc.;
   - Posters;
   - News stories and advertising for local media;
   - Printed notices for home distribution.

   Advertising in local community media will help generate the editorial coverage required to help ensure the success of the project.

7. **Financing**: Despite the apparent costs involved in planning, publicizing, and implementing a Neighbourhood Walk, costs are minimal, considering the potential for heightened community awareness and tangible output regarding future planning of community. The major costs involved concern inventory materials, publicity, and facility rental to accommodate the activities. The costs of the pilot projects were in the region of $1,000, excluding professional time, and assuming a volunteer workforce.

   Appendix A contains samples of advertising formats, community inventory checklists, statement of objectives, demographic information and similar material used for one pilot project.
This chapter has described a case study which utilized a public participation program as a communications mode, in association with other, more traditional forms of communication. In our final chapter, we will turn our attention to the design of a social communication delivery system incorporating an element of public participation.
FOOTNOTES: CHAPTER FOUR

1 The information dealing with HABITAT is drawn from the unpublished working files of the Canadian Habitat Secretariat, particularly the Information Division, and is available through the Ministry of State for Urban Affairs, Ottawa.

2 City of Vancouver, Planning Department (1975) Vancouver Local Areas, (mimeo) April

3 City of Vancouver, Planning Department (1975) Vancouver Local Areas, (mimeo) April.
CHAPTER FIVE

A SOCIAL COMMUNICATIONS DELIVERY SYSTEM

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The central purpose of this thesis is to explore the role of communications in planning and to suggest the design specifications for a social communications delivery system which will enable planners to cope with the demands of an "information ecology" (Nanus, 1972, p.398), or environment characterized by increasing flows of information and complexity of information systems.

A review of planning literature indicates to us that the societal forces behind the evolution of an information ecology may be first, the emergence of the postindustrial society (Bell, 1973) in which information, or knowledge, becomes a major resource; and second, the rising demands of citizens to participate in the decision-making process, particularly when such decisions affect them. In designing our social communications delivery system, therefore, we have attempted to incorporate public participation strategies as one mode of communication.

Earlier in this study we have documented the views of some planners (Kalba, 1973; Meier, 1962; Sackman and Boehm, 1972) that information systems and services will have as significant an impact on the shape and activities of future communities as the automobile has had on existing settlement patterns. If we
assume that these authors are correct in their assessment of the impact of information, there is a clear need to develop techniques which will enable planners to incorporate an element of information in the overall planning process. The use of information in planning may be described as "social communications", which we have defined as "the use of information/communications systems to achieve planning objectives normally incorporating an element of social change" (Chapter One, p. 8).

In Chapter One, the study objectives were set out as follows:

1. To review the planning process and the role of public participation and social communications in order to identify those elements which would appear relevant to planning at the community level;

2. To describe how public participation strategies were used in a specific social communications case study;

3. To design the specifications and constraints for a social communications delivery system which incorporated a public participation element.

Chapter Two reviews the theoretical approach to planning, public participation and communications. Chapter Three outlines the conventional modes of communications available to planners. Chapter Four describes a case study which utilized public participation as a social communications mode, in addition to those identified in Chapter Three.
In this chapter we will deal with the third objective, which requires us to suggest ways in which public participation might be used in a social communications delivery system. In essence, we will deal with the two questions raised in Chapter One:

- How can planners accommodate information systems in the planning process?
- What new techniques might be evolved which will enable planners to cope with the increasing size of information flows, and complexity of information systems?

First, we will further refine the concept of social communications, elaborating on Meier's communications model (Meier, 1962). Then we will suggest two models for incorporating public participation in a social communications program. Next we will suggest the design specifications and constraints for a social communications delivery system which includes an element of public participation. Finally, we will comment on further research areas.

5.2 THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Before developing these concepts further, it is necessary to set out the theoretical framework within which they may be evolved. In Chapter Two, alternative planning processes have been examined, the theoretical approaches to citizen participation have been reviewed and their strengths and weaknesses noted,
and developments in the communications field have been examined. From this wide range of choices, we can construct our framework, based on the following key assumptions:

1. The world's industrial countries, including the U.S. and Canada, are moving towards a new economic era, termed the postindustrial society (Bell, 1973), which is dominated by the production of services, rather than the production of goods;

2. The most important resource in such an economic system will be knowledge, or information. Drucker (1969) has suggested that the United States has already switched from a goods-producing economy to a knowledge economy, and that by the end of the decade, half of every dollar earned and spent in the American economy will involve the production, distribution and procurement of ideas and information;

3. The ability to control or command information will determine the degree of social and economic power wielded by various groups in the economy. Meier (1962) points out that since information implies the capacity to choose among alternatives, the opportunity to effect change, or to manipulate the social environment will vary directly with the opportunity to direct or control information flows;

4. At the same time, the continuing developments in communications technology will profoundly affect the spatial distribution and structure of human settlements, as the delivery of services via cable television and information utilities augment or supplant the delivery of services via automotive vehicles and freeways;
5. Similarly, the emergence of the postindustrial era will reinforce the pressures which have historically increased the demand for citizen participation, including rising education levels, accelerating rates of change, increasing size and complexity of bureaucratic decision-making, and expanding demands for professional skills and expertise in a technology oriented society. Thus both Bell and others (Friedmann, 1973; Kalba, 1974) anticipate that future decision-making will be more political than in the past, and the centre of decision-making more exposed to view;

6. Planners will find themselves working in a more fluid and politically oriented environment, and will increasingly seek substitutes for more traditional planning models and skills. The concept of "command planning" (Friedmann, 1973) or plan-making under highly centralized control will give way to the concept of planning as a strategy for producing change while maintaining organizational stability. The planners' central task will be to develop planning processes and modes to cope with the dual and often conflicting elements of increased technology - which may preclude participation in decision-making - and rising demands for public participation, in an environment in which change is the only constant.

It is difficult to imagine a greater challenge for the planner. The point is not that the focus of his planning efforts may change; in the past, planners have shown a marked capacity to adapt to changes in the nature of the demands for plan-making. Historically, the impetus for planning grew out of the need for orderly development of a physical townsite, normally located at or near an industrial site. However, with the development of the automobile, planners readily accommodated the change in
impact on urban structure. Similarly, the emergence of foot-loose industries which place a higher priority on access to transportation and cheap labour than to resources and commercial settlement has had profound impacts on the growth and location of human settlements.

Therefore, we are not unduly concerned here with the ability of planners to cope with the possible decline in importance of school site selection in an era where education may be delivered in part by cable television, or where the spatial distribution of specific urban services may be relatively less important than in the past due to the impact of communications technology. In the summary, the planner will likely adapt quite well to changing demands placed on him by emerging communications technology.

What is at issue is the planner's ability to devise an alternative to the traditional planning paradigm, summarized by Kalba (1974) as "a sequence of analytically differentiated steps, moving from problem to goal clarification to projection and evaluation of alternative solutions to selection and implementation of programs" (1974, p.153).

In the postindustrial society described by Bell, the planners may not know what the problem is until the end of the planning exercise. He may not be able to define what elements may, or may not, participate in the planning process, nor, for that matter, may he care very much about the outcome; the process itself may be his main concern. If he cannot structure
some sort of orderly process which will satisfy the dualities of technological exclusivity and public participation, he will be left with chaos. His role, as in Friedmann's participant planning, may be limited mainly to that of animator and information dispensor:

... rallying the community around the common tasks, helping its members to learn about the problems they are facing and the available methods of dealing with them, and providing a constant stream of information about those relevant aspects of the external environment (1973, p.xv-xvi)

In this volatile and unpredictable environment, the essential task facing the planner will be to devise a method or process for planning for innovation, or what Kalba (1974) terms "planovation".

It is important to note that "planovation" as such is a demand, not a process. As described by Kalba, the demand implied by planovation is the need to determine "the appropriate process for implementing a given innovation around which post-industrial planning will take shape" (1974, p.152). He suggests this demand will exist, whether the object of the planning exercise involves social planning, land development, energy conservation or information systems.

In attempting to devise such a process, the basic structural problems defined by Kalba, Friedmann and Bell include:
The need to make technical information more widely accessible to the general public without triggering "information overload";

The need to devise better means of communicating local needs to bureaucrats without relying exclusively on such expensive inputs as census data, opinion polls, case-workers, etc.;

The need to develop decision-making mechanisms which facilitate the intensive discussion and resolution of issues.

Kalba's own contribution to the search for an appropriate process for planning for innovation is his concept of a new planning mode, which he terms competitive planning (Kalba, 1974). Essentially, this new mode would be an expanded form of Friedmann's corporate planning mode, which involves negotiations between representatives of major interest groups seeking a mutual but temporary adjustment of interests (Friedmann, 1973). Kalba's model envisages a more permanent arrangement, whereby various competing interests negotiate trade-offs on an ad hoc or continuing basis. Each group is presumed willing to trade-off participation in decision-making in return for a reduction of uncertainty in the decision-making environment.

Beyond this concept of a new planning mode, Kalba does not go very far in designing the specifications for planovation. However, he does suggest that a planovation process should accommodate the following elements:
- It should help to bridge the gap between technocracy and participation;
- It should accommodate a more informed public;
- It requires a more open planning environment;
- It requires a more continuous, dynamic process of interaction between the planners and the planned for in which numerous interests and organizations interact through time;
- It requires interactive planning procedures, through the use of role-playing, use of video-tape, and films and other innovative methods.

In this study, we are suggesting that one "appropriate process" for planning for innovation is the use of social communications systems. We are further suggesting that public participation strategies can be used, under certain conditions defined below, as a mode of social communication in order to meet the specifications described above. We have therefore developed the following analytical framework:

1. Planning involves a continually evolving process rather than the attainment of specific ends. Once certain goals and objectives have been reached, new ones may emerge in their place;
2. The initial input into the planning process for innovation should normally be a change element;
3. The target group affected by the plan should be involved in the planning process, to ensure that the plan is coherently conceived and implemented;
4. The quality of the planning "product" is a direct function of the quality of information used in the planning process;

5. A functioning information system should necessarily have the capacity for "two-way" communication between the planners and the target group when appropriate;

6. Public participation strategies can be employed as a vehicle for "two-way" communication in the planning process.

In the remaining sections of this chapter, we will refine these concepts, and develop models for a social delivery system incorporating elements of public participation.

5.3 SOCIAL COMMUNICATIONS MODEL

It may be recalled from Chapter Two that neither Friedmann (1973) or Kalba (1974) elaborated on how information flows might be transmitted. The model developed by Meier was for one-way information flows only; it has senders, messages and receivers but it does not allow for messages to be recycled from the receivers back to the sender. Yet Axworthy (1971) and others (Starrs and Stewart, 1971) make the point that a two-way communication channel is required if there is to be effective public participation. The planner or decision-maker uses one channel to disseminate information about planning objectives and program-elements and uses the feedback channel to collect information on the target groups' values and priorities.

Goldfarb (1976) and Low (1974) have described how traditional communications modes, such as print and video-tape produce a
mirror effect; people participate by seeking a reflection of their own values in the media.

We have already enlarged Meier's concept of a "system" to formulate our own definition of a communication system as "a sequence of states of an interacting population, each state being the function of preceding states" in which population is held to be composed of people, technical components or messages (Chapter One, p.7). Thus we might revise Meier's model to accommodate the mirror effect.

In our one-way communications model, the letter "R" represents the people, or receivers, the boxed "K" represents a unit or units of information and the letter "T" stands for technical components. As implied in Figure 3. below, any participation is limited to the degree in which people's views or values conform to those transmitted by the sender via the K units:

![Figure 3. SOCIAL COMMUNICATION - ONE-WAY](image-url)
Our concept of social communication is derived from Dedmon's perceptions (1968) that the behavioural scientist views the communications media, or modes, as a vehicle to effect social change. Therefore we have defined "social communications" as the "the use of communication/information systems to achieve planning objectives normally incorporating an element of social change" (Chapter One, p.8).

Basic to this definition is the introduction of a change element, since the planner is unlikely to require either a one-way or a two-way communications channel unless he is planning for innovation, i.e. seeking to disseminate information about a specific program or plan, and collecting values and priorities from the target group. If he is carrying out a planning exercise that does not involve change in some manner, he can draw on past experience, or the status quo, to aid him in his selection of alternative plans of action or goals.

The social communications model described in Figure 4 accommodates the introduction of a change element into the communication system and the addition of a feedback channel to recycle input from the target group.

![Diagram of Social Communication - Two-Way](image-url)
We have already made the point that the planner will only be attracted to the social communications process if, in fact, she/he requires a one-way or two-way communications channel. Alternatively, she/he may require such a channel for merely a portion of the task at hand. To return to our pipeline planning analogy in Chapter One, the planner may not require any public participation in the task of determining the thickness of pipe involved, or the relevant degree of participation may be limited to that of technical experts in the engineering and environmental field. However, he may perceive the need for an entirely different degree of public participation, by entirely different groups, in dealing with the issue of right-of-way location involving local communities. In this case, while his task is constrained by the economics of compressor station spacing which dictate that such stations be sequentially located at certain distances, route modifications might be quite in order, or the extra costs involved deemed appropriate in terms of the benefits received. Again, in determining community impacts, he may wish to widen the degree of public participation in order to achieve optimum planning goals.

The crux of the issue is the careful identification by the planner of two key elements. The first is the need for a one-way or a two-way communications channel in the overall planning process. The second is the selection of the appropriate degree of public participation for each component of the overall plan.
The question of who participates is irrelevant at this point, since those groups which may be affected, or who may be interested in participating, are not likely to be adequately identified until information flows are initiated, or the "output" channel is utilized.

Arnstein (1969) has provided us with a basis for our model with her typology of eight rungs on the ladder of citizen participation. Her typology, described in Chapter Two, is:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of Participation</th>
<th>Description</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Citizen control</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Delegated power</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Partnership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Placation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Consultation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Informing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Therapy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Manipulation</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We have modified the Arnstein model in the following manner. First, we have added another rung, designated zero, or "0", to accommodate our point that the planner may decide that participation for a particular component is not appropriate. Secondly, we have amended some of the elements in her typology, as shown below in Figure 5.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>NON-PARTICIPATORY</th>
<th>0</th>
<th>No cognizance</th>
<th>No concept of local input</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Self-promotion</td>
<td>Planner's interests promoted without target group input</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Research</td>
<td>Target group 'researched' by planner but no direct consultation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DEGREES OF PARTICIPATION</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>Information</td>
<td>Information provided to target group to help them plan their own activities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Consultation</td>
<td>Views of target group sought prior to plan and policy formulation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5</td>
<td>Accommodation</td>
<td>Modification of plans possible after consultation with target group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6</td>
<td>Partnership</td>
<td>Target group is part of a decision-making team</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7</td>
<td>Delegated power</td>
<td>Power to decide or implement is delegated to target group</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>8</td>
<td>Citizen control</td>
<td>Target group makes decision</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

FIGURE 5. NINE LEVELS OF PARTICIPATION

These levels may be described as follows:

Level 0 (No cognizance) implies that for some reason, the concept of public participation does not apply, or may be restricted to technological input;
Level 1 (Self-promotion) implies the planner or decision-maker is seeking to promote his own interests without input from public participation. This may involve a one-way stream of information in the form of brochures, information kits, press releases, etc.;

Level 2 (Research) implies that the planner/decision-maker would collect information on the nature, requirements or values of specific target groups without their input. This might apply to the collection of demographic data and other statistical information;

Level 3 (Information) implies that the planner/decision-maker will provide information to other groups to enable them to plan their own activities. These groups might involve government agencies, municipal authorities or the general public;

Level 4 (Consultation) implies that the planner/decision-maker will seek the views of various target groups prior to formulating plans and policy, but there is no specific commitment to implement proposed changes. Total control remains with the decision-maker;

Level 5 (Accommodation) implies that the decision-maker is prepared to accommodate plans and policies, in total or in part, after consultation with the target groups;

Level 6 (Partnership) implies that the various target groups are part of the decision-making team, and are not subordinated in any way. Control over decision-making is shared;

Level 7 (Delegated power) implies that the target groups may be delegated power to make decisions, or to implement programs in areas chosen by the decision-maker, or negotiated with the groups involved;
Level 8 (Citizen control) implies that the target groups are the decision-makers, and that the planner or project initiator is bound to implement their decisions, or to enable them to carry out implementation themselves.

It is evident that the need or nature of the social, or two-way communication channels involved varies with the degree of participation. This is shown in Figure 6:

**Figure 6. Degree of Participation**
For instance, at Level 3, or Information, there is no feedback channel. Information, as designated by "K" flows directly into the plan and is then disseminated to the public.

At Level 4, Consultation, there is limited feedback. Information flows to the target groups, and is recycled into the plan but not necessarily with the additional input from the groups.

At Level 5, Accommodation, and 6, Partnership, information flows to the target groups and the final plan is adjusted to take into account positive and/or negative feedback.

At Level 7, Delegated power, and 8, Citizen control, the feedback channel is far more extensive. Information or "K" flows directly to the target groups, and from them directly into the final plan which becomes, in fact, the information base utilized by the planner.

Most breakdowns in communication between the planners and the planned for can be directly attributed to differing perceptions by both parties on the level of participation actually being undertaken. The planner or decision-maker may be seeking only to inform; the target groups feel they are being consulted, and their views will be taken into account. If that is not the case, there is acrimony and bitterness between both groups ("I told them what we were doing", "they didn't listen to us"). The success of any social communication process, no matter what the subject, depends on the clear understanding by both parties of the degree of participation involved, and the scope of participation itself in the overall project.
5.5 PARTICIPATION COMMUNICATION MODEL

Once the planner has determined the requirement for a "one-way" or "two-way" communications channel and has selected or negotiated the appropriate degree of participation, his task is to select the appropriate communications mode in order to transmit messages between senders and receivers. The traditional communications modes, such as print, cablevision, telephones etc., and their accessibility to participation are discussed in Chapter Three.

However, the planner may elect to utilize the participants themselves as his transmission units, or the messengers between senders and receivers. Two models will be presented here. The first is based on the Fogo Island experiment, described in Chapter Three, and may be termed the Recycling Model. The second is based on the concept of the HABITAT Neighbourhood Walks, and may be termed the Ripple Model. In both models, participation may be teamed with other modes of communication.

Fogo Island (Recycling Model)

As discussed in Chapter Three, the overall goal of the Fogo Island community development project was to seek public input in the process of formulating the government of Newfoundland's policies on the province's "outpost" communities. Through the medium of film and video-tape, National Film Board producer Colin Low and the staff of the Extension Service of
Memorial University sought to encourage Fogo Islanders to express their problems as they saw them, and to produce a series of film or video "white papers" expressing the goals and aspirations of Islanders to the decision-makers in the capital, St. John's. The process, as refined in subsequent utilization of the technique is illustrated in Figure 7.

As indicated, the key elements in this model are the scale of the participation and the recycling of information. The various stages are described below:

1. The initial information inputs, in the form of goal statements, are kept fairly general. As participants' confidence and understanding increase, more controversial information inputs may be introduced;

2. Initially, the views of one or two individuals are filmed or taped and then replayed to them so that they may edit or augment their remarks;

3. The edited tape is then shown to a large group, whose views are elicited. Again, they are given the opportunity to edit or augment their opinions;

4. This phase of the tape may then be replayed to the first participant, who will find his views augmented, or challenged, and may respond accordingly. In practice, he is likely to modify his earlier statements, noting that other people have a right to alternative viewpoints, or agreeing with new ideas introduced by participants in the second phase;
FIGURE 7. FOGO ISLAND MODEL (RECYCLING MODEL)
5. The video-tape is then played to third group, and their responses filmed, edited and replayed to Group Two. The process is repeated on an increasing scale; as each group reaches some degree of consensus, the reformulated tape can then be used to achieve consensus with a larger group, until finally the film or tape reflects the common viewpoints - not necessarily all consensus statements - of the entire community or target group;

6. This taped product is then played to the decision-makers, who respond via the same medium, i.e. film or tape. This response is shown to the community, or group, which may offer new insights or modifications in light of new information from the decision-makers;

7. The final taped responses of the target group are returned to the decision-makers, who incorporate the relevant information into the plan-making process;

8. Once the initial goal is achieved, the target group may reformulate its goals for the next stage of development, and a new cycle may be initiated.

The Fogo Island process is considered to be the most successful use of participation in communications for the purposes of community development. While it is not expensive in terms of equipment and materials - video-tape is relatively cheap - it is expensive in terms of time. However, the originators of the technique feel the biggest constraint on use of the technique by government and industry is the unpredictability of the results; the participants might veto a proposed project or policy.
Clearly, then, this model should be used by the planner/decision-maker only if he has elected to adopt a degree of participation at or above Level 6 (Partnership).

**Habitat Walks (Ripple Model)**

The Ripple Model is an adaptation of the Recycling Model and may be useful where potential participants are spatially distributed over a wide area, requiring some linkage mechanism. It is shown in Figure 8.:

![Diagram of Habitat Walks (Ripple Model)](image-url)

**FIGURE 8. HABITAT WALKS (RIPPLE MODEL)**
The various stages are described as follows:

1. The initial participatory exercise (goal inputs, change elements, degree of participation, etc.) is confined to two specific target groups, who may be linked by common interests over a wide area, or spatially consolidated, for example, in a neighbourhood. These two groups may limit their interaction to an exchange of experiences, or they may choose to participate in each other's exercise;

2. From this initial base, spin-off participatory exercises involving a larger number and range of groups are formulated. This process may develop through media coverage of the initial groups' activities;

3. As the number of groups involved in participatory interchanges increases, the messages are transmitted and collected in an ever widening spatial distribution until the participatory network encompasses the entire target area.

The Ripple Model is more flexible than the Recycling Model. It is not dependent on any one communications mode - such as video-tape - and can utilize any number of modes, such as face-to-face, telephones, cablevision systems, etc. The appropriate degree of participation may be reduced from Level 6 (Partnership) in the Recycling Model, to the lowest degree of participation (Information) in the Ripple Model.
5.6 DELIVERY OF INFORMATION FLOWS

Once we have designed our subsystems (degrees of participation and participation communication models) we can proceed to construct main line delivery systems for information flows. It should be noted that our information system allows for two-way, or social communications channels, but can also be used for one-way information flows, if the appropriate level of participation is Level 0 (No cognizance). The model is shown in Figure 9:

The basic purpose of our information system is to transmit messages from the senders (S) to the receivers (R). The process is developed as follows:
1. First, the sender should identify what information he wishes to transmit. At this stage, he may not know what his problems are, and thus he is in no position to select his final, crucial messages. However, he will probably have some information; a company wishes to build a pipeline in a certain generalized area, or a group is seeking to develop a parcel of land for a specific use;

2. On the basis of this initial information, he selects the appropriate degrees of participation for specific components of the project;

3. Next, he selects his initial "one-way" or "two-way" models where appropriate, and initiates the flow of information. This may be in the form of an announcement about an anticipated project, a series of information brochures, the establishment of public hearings, provision for "mail in" response forms, or whatever appears productive;

4. On the basis of the information collected via the "feedback" communication channel, he is then in a position to select the most important information messages (K) to be transmitted. This is a crucial phase, since the selection of irrelevant messages will not be perceived by the receiver, through information overload, or through sheer indifference (Meier, 1962);

5. When his information units are selected, the planner can then identify the specific target groups within his target area. For instance, if the information base has an environmental component, he can more easily identify the various environmental groups he wishes to communicate with. Similarly, if a pipeline or freeway routing has been established after the necessary participatory feedback has been collected and accommodated, he will be able to identify the individuals or groups who will be affected by the project;
6. Once his target groups have been clarified, the planner may then select the appropriate communications distribution modes. As shown in Chapter Three, if he is aiming at white, middle income groups in the age group over thirty years, he may choose to utilize metropolitan newspapers, particularly if the project will affect the larger community (p.101). If, however, he is working at the local or neighbourhood level, he may choose to utilize small community weeklies. Similarly, he will allow for ethnic characteristics of his target group by utilizing the communication modes most likely to reach them. This may involve transmission of information in several languages. In some cases, the messages themselves will be different; senior citizens may not respond to news about daycare facilities in a proposed project, but may be interested in services it will offer older age groups. In northern Canada, where there are various native groups speaking different native languages, the major medium of communication is multi-lingual radio broadcasts. Statements of intent, in English, published in local newspapers may never reach the target audience;

7. A key element in the information system is the installation of reinforcing systems to generate and regenerate information units, in line with Meier's perception that only a portion of each message is actually assimilated by the receiver (Meier, 1962). These systems may include a flow of press announcements, a series of workshops, the establishment of community information centres, the staging of various events. The careful planner will transmit his messages in an ordered sequence, starting with easily assimilated generalizations, building up to more sophisticated or controversial concepts, over a period of time. The time element is particularly important if he
is seeking significant input from target groups, since individuals cannot contribute much to a project if they do not have sufficient understanding about it to identify, in their own minds, what impact it is likely to have on their own values, or activities;

8. The final element in the information system is the receiver, designated as "R" in our model. If the information has been delivered through the process described here, the number of receivers, and their ability to assimilate messages, will probably be greater than would be the case if the information units were disseminated in an ad hoc basis. It should be noted, however, that the number of receivers does not necessarily measure the efficiency of an information system. Efficiency, in terms of information systems, is a function of the planner's ability to transmit the relevant messages to the relevant receivers via a process which increases their ability to assimilate it and respond in the desired manner.

5.7 SUMMARY

In this chapter, we have attempted to show that a planner or decision-maker should choose to utilize a social communication information system if he has a need to disseminate information about projects and policies and at least a partial need to obtain response or feedback from his target groups. This is likely to be the case if he is planning for innovation.

We have also shown that the key to his success will depend largely on his selection of the appropriate degree of participation required, and the appropriate modes of communications. Other essential elements are the selection of the relevant units of information, and the design of an efficient information delivery system.
Further Research

There has been considerable research into many varied aspects of public participation, but relatively little in the field of social communications so far as it concerns planning and only passing reference (Axworthy, 1971) to any linkages between the two. Thus opportunities for further research are virtually unlimited.

Two particular avenues come to mind. One involves the potential of games and role-playing as a mode of social communication, a possibility referred to by Kalba (1974) but not explored. The second is an analysis of the Fogo Island communications project. The Fogo process, which involves a carefully designed program of participation, and the use of video-tape or film to provide interaction between the planners and the public, merits attention as the most important - and the most neglected - planning tool in the field of social communications. It is with regret that further analysis was beyond the scope of this study.
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APPENDIX

Examples of print advertising
Taylor evaluation of Mount Pleasant Walk
Examples of West Point Grey Walk data base
TV COMMERCIALS

The following memo recaps our proposals for an animated/filmed series of television commercials on Habitat for production in April and airing in May. It is based on the following assumptions:

1. Our audience is mainly regional, but the commercials should be acceptable for national use.

2. Our target group is the man-on-the-street, who doesn’t know anything about the content or themes of Habitat.

3. We do not want to shock our audience, but because we are conducting a media blitz, we want to surprise or startle and catch audience attention.

4. Because of production deadlines, we want simple commercials requiring minimum research and production techniques.

5. We want to retain the use of the logo, and the "Man... shelter,,, and the global search for solutions" framework if possible, but this is not imperative. Alternatively the theme could be Habitat is how people live.

6. The concepts developed for television can be used as a basis for promotion in other media.

The objective of the commercials is to inform and entice the general public with the concept that Habitat is going to be dedicated to determining practical solutions to human settlement problems which are really going to help people - ourselves included - and that Canadian are contributing to these solutions.

The vehicle should be 30 or 60 second commercials using straight line drawings, animation or other techniques to convey simple story lines of a problem and the solution. The music should be appropriate to the commercial; it could be Latin American, Arabic, or whatever serves as an attention getter. There is almost a vaudeville approach to some proposed commercials. The tone of
The commercial should be light but informative. The following subjects are suggested.

I. Settlement. The story line for this one could be based on the "Sand Dune Fixation", which is attached.

II. Water. The story line should outline a simple case where people resolved their water problems. Example:

One billion people in the world do not have safe water from any source.

In the village of Kupang, Indonesia, everybody used the same water hole...dogs...cats...people (for drinking, washing, and bathing)

So the villagers devised a new water system

The first pool was reserved for drinking (water fall)

The second for human bathing (water trough)

The third for washing...

And the last for the dogs and cats

All in the centre of a park

A simple solution

Because of Habitat, one which could help others.

III. Climate. The story line could outline the problems and solutions associated with global climate extremes. Example:

Canadians live in a cold climate

Or else it rains

So Canadians went underground to build cities (pictures of underground shopping malls in high rise buildings)

Or they went over ground (pictures of skyways connecting buildings above street level)

Now nobody cares if it snows. Or rains.

A practical solution

Because of Habitat, one which could help others.
In Columbia, one day, the people came
and came...
and came...

In a spontaneous migration to the city.
The government did call out the army.
Instead, the newcomers were given land and loans
and encouraged to build their own homes.
A peaceful solution.
Because of Habitat, one which could help others.

V. Urban Redevelopment. The story line could illustrate
the rebuilding of our cities, and the need to preserve
what we value in our cities, and not simply to destroy.
Example:

In Vancouver, the people in Strathcona lived in the
path of a proposed freeway.

One day the bulldozers came.
The people of Strathcona valued their community, and
their way of life.
(show various ethnic groups)
So they worked together to rebuild their community
and preserve its unique heritage...

and the bulldozers went away.
A satisfying solution. One which, through Habitat,
could help others.

VI. Literacy. The story line should illustrate the overwhelming
problem of illiteracy on a global scale. Example:

More than half the world's population over ten has
never been to school.

In Cuba, people who went to school taught others...
who taught others... (adults teaching children)
who taught others... (children teaching adults)
Now, many Cubans can read and write.
(we should check figures)
A helpful solution. One which, through Habitat, could help others.

The subjects sketched above are only suggestions. However, we have a resource pool of people, including the UBC School of Planning, who can suggest and authenticate these and other illustrations with a minimum of time. Another example of self help is the redevelopment of the Tondo area of Manila, which was the winning subject of the international competition among architects, and which will be featured at the Art Gallery during Habitat.

Please let me know your comments.
HABITAT - Television :30 second #1
"WATER"

VIDEO

1. Drawing of village people and animals gathered around water hole.

2. Quick cuts of individuals and animals mentioned in audio.

3. Reaction of people and animals affected by unclean water.

4. Drawing of water fall

5. Water trough with people using it.

6. Drawing of pool with cats and dogs using it.

7. Over-all drawing of park setting with pool system

8. Smiling group as in #1


Habitat
United Nations Conference on Human Settlements
May 31 - June 11
Vancouver

AUDIO

1. SFX: APPROPRIATE MUSIC
   In the village of Kupang, Indonesia...everyone used the same water hole...

2. Dogs...cats...people...

3. Which made the water unsafe for everyone...
   so the villagers devised a new water system...

4. The first pool for drinking

5. The second for bathing...

6. The last for dogs and cats.

7. All in the centre of a park...

8. ...a simple solution...that can help others.

9. Through Habitat...a Global search for solutions.
How the Japanese are coping with the world's most colossal traffic headache.

One creative solution they called the "Dual Mode Bus System" - a new type of commuter bus that runs on both "driverless" guideways and regular streets. It can pick up passengers at their door, then miss all the cross-town traffic - very inventive!

Another new idea is a kind of "push-button" bus stop enabling waiting passengers to re-route buses to their stop. Ingenious, those Japanese.

Innovative solutions that can help others - Through HABITAT... a global search for solutions.

HABITAT
United Nations Conference on Human Settlements
May 31-June 11, 1976
Vancouver, Canada
When gravel deposits were discovered near the town of Holme Pierrepont in England, the landscape was soon turned into an unsightly wasteland of pocks and pits. Pity.

So the townspeople decided to do something about it. They put their heads together and came up with a remarkable solution.

They converted the old worked-out gravel pits into a community recreation area—complete with an Olympic rowing course! Clever, those British.

A novel solution that could help others. Through HABITAT, a global search for solutions.

HABITAT
United Nations Conference on Human Settlements
May 31-June 11, 1976
Vancouver, Canada

A Tale of One City.
Building a hospital
with $12 and 100 bags of cement.

And a little help from your friends.

In Sierra Leone, it is traditional for the people to work together to build each other's houses. So when they needed a new hospital in Port Loko—the people decided to build it themselves. Starting with just $12 and 100 bags of cement!

When other agencies saw this spirit of self-help in action, they too decided to help.

When the hospital was completed, not only did Port Loko have improved medical facilities, but this traditional spirit of self-help was carried on throughout Sierra Leone to other community projects.

A co-operative solution that can help others. Through HABITAT, a global search for solutions.

HABITAT
United Nations Conference on Human Settlements
May 31-June 11, 1976
Vancouver, Canada
Mr. Pat Carney, Habitat Information Officer
Bantall Centre
P.O. 49183
Vancouver B.C. V7X 1K8

Dear Mr. Carney;

Attached for your information please find a City Planning Department summary of the Habitat-Mount Pleasant Walk held on Saturday April 10 1976. Also for your information, Alf Worthington has been seriously ill with pneumonia during the past month and has not yet been able to complete his tabulation and summary of the "walkers' response sheets."

The Habitat walk and accompanying summary are proving extremely valuable to the Planning Department as one means to help gain better insight and understanding of the community's diverse faces. Also, the Planning Department believes that the Habitat walk, neighbourhood fairs and other community get-togethers are valuable contributions to promoting good relations among neighbours.

Regarding the "participation by invitation" and "post-walk discussion" techniques utilized in the Mount Pleasant walk I submit the following:

a) The concept of "participation by invitation" is an effective way to easily achieve a diverse, representative and manageable sized group of walkers. Witness the spontaneous intermingling of different age groups and ethnic backgrounds.

b) The concept of "post-walk discussion" is good. However, the Mount Pleasant discussion only achieved mediocrity for three reasons:

--The dining hall location was not conducive to meaningful discussion
--The post-walk discussion needed to be better prepared beforehand. Unfortunately, the walk organizers, walk leaders and animators did not commit themselves to meeting beforehand to organize the post-walk session.
--Some of the walk participants were unwilling or unable to enter into a full-hearted discussion of peoples reactions to and conclusions about walk sightings.

c) As far as I know nobody was designated responsible for ensuring that follow-through on walk impressions and conclusions was accomplished. This was failure. Appropriately, a strong citizens' group should have volunteered or been assigned to undertake this task. (Unfortunately no such full time group appears to exist in Mount Pleasant at this time.)

In general, I believe the walk was a success in that a manageable number of Mount Pleasant's citizens came together to walk and discuss.
I am certain that each participant came away somewhat more knowledgeable of hitherto unknown aspects of Mount Pleasant.

Yours truly,

[Signature]

Kitch Taylor
Mount Pleasant N.I.P. Planning Assistant
encl. 1

encl. 1
City of Vancouver

Inter-Office Correspondence

File: L85 M36
N15 M35
May 5, 1976

MEMO TO: Files L85 M36 and N15 M35

FROM: Mitch Taylor, Mount Pleasant Planning Assistant

SUBJECT: Habitat-Mount Pleasant Neighbourhood Walk held on Saturday
April 10, 1976 9:00 a.m. to 4:00 p.m.

On Saturday April 10, 1976 approximately 50 people representing a
cross-section of Mount Pleasant's population participated in a Habitat
sponsored Mount Pleasant neighbourhood walk.

The Mount Pleasant walk was one of two pilot neighbourhood walks in
Vancouver sponsored by Habitat (The second walk took place April 26 1976
in Point Grey).

The general objectives of the two initial walks are:

a) To develop the theme that Habitat is HOW PEOPLE LIVE
b) To promote the concept of encouraging Canadians to study ways
to make better/more extensive usage of existing community
resources rather than adding to them.
c) To develop criteria which may be used to initiate similar
walks in other urban centres.

Additionally, the Mount Pleasant walkers were requested to:
d) Take an indepth look at one's community with a view to
identifying and understanding what is good about Mount
Pleasant, what needs changing and why items are present or
absent.
e) Attempt to visualize what the future holds in store (given
trends) and what alternatives are perhaps more desirable
for Mount Pleasant.

The Habitat-Mount Pleasant Walk was organized by members of the local
community under the co-chairmanship of Alf Worthington (local resident)
and Mitch Taylor (Vancouver City Planning Department). All participants
were arrived by invitation and basically comprise a cross-section of
the Mount Pleasant population. Refer to Appendix I for organization
details and to Appendix II for list of participants.

The walk was routed so as to permit the participants to experience
and attempt to understand such items as: housing - variety of type,
age and condition; commercial area and associated activities; street scenes; facilities - parks, schools, churches, boys/girls clubs, vacant properties/open space, etc.; view corridors to the north and east; architecture - old and new; examples of vandalism and crime; significant cultural happenings - e.g., tea at the Sikh Temple; traffic, noise, zoning, a bird's eye view of Mount Pleasant; and more. Please refer to Appendix 111 for route details and a map.

Upon completion of the walk a luncheon and discussion session were held at the Canadian Legion Mining Hall, 117 East Broadway. After lunch, walk participants divided into subgroups to discuss the day's events and following that regrouped to open session to summarize their concerns and recommendations for change. The following is a collection of the most significant findings as recorded by Don Sinclair, Ernst Snijders and Mitch Taylor.

General Comments:

-Walk participants were in general agreement that in Mount Pleasant we have a community of highly transient, lower income people crowded onto a small land area with insufficient recreational and social facilities to adequately meet their needs. (If one excludes the land occupied by light industry Mount Pleasant has a much higher population density than most other Vancouver neighbourhoods). Also, current development trends that are occurring north of Broadway tend to aggravate an already acute situation. (This comment refers to apartment buildings that house families but do not contain any children's play areas).

-At present in Mount Pleasant, as in most other inner city neighbourhoods, overbuilding is occurring with little or no forethought about future consequences.

-The walk brought together members of the community with each other and with members of decision making bodies affection the community (Planning, Police, Resources Bd., etc.) to openly and informally examine and comment upon various aspects of Mount Pleasant. Because many of the walk participants are, or will be, involved in shaping Mount Pleasant's future, the extra little bit of knowledge gained today should help make the future that much better.

-Mount Pleasant is a forgotten community. Over the last 40 years many of Mount Pleasant's taxpdollars that should have been returned to the community have been directed elsewhere.

-Mount Pleasant contains a vast amount of untapped social and physical resources that could be harnessed if the key can be found. For a variety of reasons and to the detriment of the community most Mount Pleasant residents do not take an active interest in their community. Many regard it as a "proving ground" before moving on to greener pasture. Also, numerous facilities such as some churches and schools are grossly under-utilized after regular hours. Walk participants felt that to help correct the above co-ordinated commitment from various government agencies is needed so as to help restore self-esteem to Mount
Mount Pleasant. Mount Pleasant Team Policing, Resources Bd., and N.I.P. are positive steps in this direction.

The walk was considered as fun and worthwhile revealing many hitherto unknown qualities to the participants. In particular, everyone seemed grateful for the warm hearted reception extended by the Sikh community during tea break.

Specific Concerns and Recommendations for Change:

Participants were extremely distressed by the lack of children's playareas, useable open space, and adequate storage facilities in new apartment development. It was generally agreed that it was important to maintain a solid stock of family oriented housing throughout all parts of Mount Pleasant. As such, it was recommended that the City and developers undertake to rectify above noted inadequacies.

Parks development is a high priority item. Useable facilities and effective open-structured programs (such as Kivan and Kimount) are essential in order to channel the area's youth into constructive activities. In the long run such financial outlays will be more than offset by savings in social costs.

-2 forms of street improvements are needed:

a) Aesthetic - curbing, paving and boulevard trees are deemed advisable. On behalf of several local clubs some walk participants indicated a willingness to install wooden curbs (ex-railroad ties) and plant trees for nominal cost—fund raising projects—if the materials can be arranged.

b) Traffic - pedestrians should take preference over vehicles. 12th Avenue was identified as a case in point. It is virtually impossible for a pedestrian to safely cross 12th Ave. at certain hours at particular crosswalks (i.e., outside Kivan Boys/Girls Club.) Walk participants felt that in as much as Highway No. 1 signs were recently erected that special 30 mph signs should also be installed so as to emphasize to motorists that 12th Avenue is a residential street in addition to serving as part of the Trans Canada Highway!!

-Junked cars and half renovated homes should be removed or remedied at owners' expense

-A new home for Kivan Boys/Girls Club is needed to replace the existing fire-damaged structure.

-The flat roofs of industrial plant should be opened for recreational use; eg., tennis, beer gardens, chess, etc.

-Additional community meeting facilities are needed in Mount Pleasant. Presently underutilized churches would be adequate if the congregations would agree and if operating costs could be secured.
Walk participants felt that existing shopping facilities were generally adequate and well located though not necessarily of good design. (Kingsgate Mall's inward-looking design received critical comment).

Strong community spirit is needed in Mount Pleasant. Developments and happenings such as Sunnymoon Park (5th and Carolina) whereby local residents come together to improve their community are successful means to achieve the above.

The high level of ethnicity in Mount Pleasant is viewed as a valuable asset to the community and mingling of different ethnic backgrounds (such as happened during the Habitat walk) are valuable to good relations and understanding among neighbours.

In summary, the walk participants were in general agreement that the Habitat walk was an enjoyable and worthwhile experience.

The information, concerns, and suggestions brought to light by the walk participants will be incorporated into the City Planning Department's growing knowledge base on Mount Pleasant. Also, items that specifically relate to the Neighbourhood Improvement Program (N.I.P.) located in the southeast quadrant of Mount Pleasant will be fed into the Department's N.I.P. data base.

Appendix IV is a copy of the "Walkers Kit" that was distributed to each participant.

Mitch Taylor, Mount Pleasant Planning Assistant

MT/mt
THIS SUNDAY SEE YOUR NEIGHBOURHOOD THROUGH NEW EYES

Is West Point Grey a perfect area—or can it be improved here and there?

Are all features and facilities of our neighbourhood being put to best use?

Have we any overlooked resources to be developed if we all get together?

Join your neighbours this Sunday afternoon, walk around West Point Grey and afterwards chalk up your thoughts at a design-in with artists bringing your ideas graphically to life. It’s part of the Habitat Neighbourhood Inventory Program, and it could be a guide to city planners, politicians—and all of us.

Three orientation sessions before the walk will get you off on the right foot, with the history of Point Grey in slides shown by Vancouver Historical Insights. Polaroids provided so groups can do a camera inventory of what they see (or why not bring your own?). Hand-out maps allow you to set your own walking tour—or bring your bikes to see that much more. Some buses also available.

Come to Our Lady of Perpetual Help School, 2550 Camosun St. It’s this Sunday, April 25. Orientation at 11:30 a.m., 12:30 or 1:15 p.m.—as you like. Design-in at Our Lady School after the walk will be particular fun for the kids, and light refreshments are available. More from the Habitat Information Centre, 131 Water St. in Gastown.
HABITAT—WEST POINT GREY NEIGHBOURHOOD WALK

SUNDAY, APRIL 25, 1976 - 11.30 am - 5.00 pm

PURPOSE: To explore and assess existing community resources and assets and to suggest new and alternative uses for them, where appropriate;

to heighten awareness among citizens of improvements to their community which they can initiate themselves;

to stress that HABITAT is a beginning of a global search for solutions to the problems of human settlements, or how and where people live.

DATE AND TIME: Sunday, April 25, 1976, from Our Lady of Perpetual Help School, 2550 Camosun Street. Participants may come at 11.30 a.m., 12.30 p.m. or 1.15 p.m. for pre-walk briefings and depart in small groups. There will be no guides. Each group will be loaned a Point Grey map and a Polaroid camera to take up to eight pictures along its route. Activities will end by 5 p.m.

PARTICIPANTS: Open to all Point Grey residents, including children. Organizers hope for a large turnout of families with bicycles who can cover a large area in a short time. Residents from other city sections are also welcome.

ROUTE: There is no prescribed route - but area to be covered is bounded by Alma, 16th Avenue, Blanca, to residential northeast section of University Endowment Lands and North West Marine Drive, EXCLUDING all government properties, HABITAT FORUM site and Jericho Beach park. Walkers and bikers (car riding is also permitted) should take pictures of points of particular community interest, such as sites and buildings that might be put to new or alternative uses.

POST WALK SESSION: Participants may return to school with camera and pictures at any time. They will trace and mark their route on a huge aerial map of Point Grey, report on their impressions and use pictures for "design-in", a freestyle graphic inventory of community assets. Animators will record the impressions of the participants. Musicians will be on hand.

SPECIAL ARRANGEMENTS: Light refreshments will be available. Senior citizens not firm of foot and physically handicapped may take a tour of the area in Airporter buses specially chartered for the event, which will depart from the school every half hour after 12 noon.

FOR INFORMATION: Pat Carney: Rick Scobie:
Canada has more community resources than most of the 140 countries which will be represented at HABITAT: United Nations Conference on Human Settlements in Vancouver May 31 - June 11. The challenge to Canadians is to make greater use of our existing resources, rather than adding to them.

HOW TO VIEW YOUR COMMUNITY

West Point Grey is a unique community within the larger City of Vancouver. When you are walking, biking or busing through the community, ask yourself:

--What do I enjoy about our community? What do I dislike?
--What do I wish to preserve? What would I like to change?
--How did our community emerge? Where is it going?
--What resources do we have in our community? What do we lack?
    What can we provide ourselves?
--Who are my neighbours?

WHAT TO LOOK FOR

West Point Grey's resources include the beaches and potential parklands bordering the area, the spectacular view of the mountains and the sea, its diverse population. Here is a partial list to get you started on your inventory:

PARKS AND PLAYGROUNDS  LIBRARIES
SWIMMING POOLS  STREETS/ROADS
BICYCLE PATHS  SHOPPING AREAS
TREES  BUS SERVICE
OPEN/WASTED SPACE  PARKING SPACES
CHURCHES/CHURCH HALLS  SINGLE FAMILY HOMES
SCHOOLS  APARTMENTS
COMMUNITY CENTRES  FIRE HALLS
DAY CARE CENTRES  OTHER BUILDINGS

... and anything else you perceive to be a community resource! Bring your ideas back to the "Design-In" at Our Lady of Perpetual Help School Gym.
SCENARIO FOR THE SLIDE PRESENTATION ON THE DEVELOPMENT OF POINT GREY

The development of Vancouver's Point Grey area differed markedly from that of other residential areas of the city. Because of these differences, Point Grey is probably the only area in the city which has remained virtually unchanged since its fine homes were constructed.

Originally part of the 5,000 acre land grant given the C.P.R. by the Provincial Government, the Municipality of Point Grey ceded from South Vancouver in 1908. The middle-income groups who settled Point Grey searched for quality urban environments and did not want to be controlled by the by-laws in Vancouver, by-laws which were much lower in standard than the elite Point Grey residents desired.

Throughout Vancouver's history, residential development tended to follow the construction of inter-urban and streetcar routes. The original street car line went from the West End to Strathcona and these areas were developed in the 1890's. When the street car line was extended across False Creek to 16th Avenue (the southern limit of Vancouver), areas such as Mount Pleasant, Fairview, and later Shaughnessy were built up. From 1910 until the 1930's, parcels of land in East Vancouver and South Vancouver and subdivisions in Kitsilano and Point Grey were developed. Again, the development followed the extension of the street car and interurban routes.

Unlike the early residential development and that of East and South Vancouver, Point Grey was developed systematically and consistently. Careful attention was given to neighbourhood amenities. Streets were paved and treed, sidewalks were constructed, utility lines were located along back lanes, and ornamental street lighting was installed. Homes in each subdivision of Point Grey were designed to complement one another in both architecture and position on the property. Each subdivision had its distinct character.

When Point Grey amalgamated with Vancouver in 1929, it gave up control of its by-laws. By this time, however, development was more or less complete. And while residential areas close to downtown and in East and South Vancouver have changed dramatically from the construction of high rises and apartments, the Point Grey area has remained virtually in tact. What the future holds will depend upon the involvement of Point Grey residents in their community.

*****

To illustrate this story of Point Grey, I would suggest using slides which would briefly trace the development of the older residential areas, followed by slides of the interurban lines. Early shots of Point Grey subdivisions could then be contrasted with the unplanned, haphazard development in other parts of the city. The unique character of Point Grey would become obvious.
West Point Grey is located in the most north-western corner of Vancouver. It is bounded by the beautiful beaches of Spanish Banks on the north and the University Endowment lands to the south and west. A major Park development is now underway adjacent to the Waterfront at Jericho. Over 70% of West Point Grey residents have ethnic origins in the British Isles. Over 38% have gone to University compared to 17% in the City. Over 30% of the labour force is in the professional, teaching/medical categories. Incomes are higher than in the city as a whole. Many houses were built in the early 1900's when the area was first populated. Many homes afford beautiful views of English Bay because of the hilly nature of the area.
**LOCAL AREA: WEST POINT GREY**

**1971 STATISTICS**

| 1. POPULATION | 11,865 | 100% |
| 2. AREA | 1.4 square miles | 896 acres |
| 3. DENSITY | 13.24 persons/acre |
| 4. SEX - Male | 5,605 | 47.2% |
| - Female | 6,265 | 52.8% |
| 5. AGE - 0 - 14 | 2,400 | 20.2% |
| - 15 - 19 | 1,125 | 9.5% |
| - 20 - 34 | 2,720 | 22.9% |
| - 35 - 54 | 2,765 | 23.3% |
| - 55 - 64 | 1,315 | 11.1% |
| - 65 & over | 1,550 | 13.0% |
| 6. MARITAL STATUS - Single | 5,370 | 45.3% |
| - Married | 5,270 | 44.4% |
| - Other | 1,225 | 10.3% |
| 7. FAMILIES (Total) | 2,940 | 100% |
| - 1 parent families | 340 | 11.6% |
| - 2 parent families | 2,600 | 88.4% |
| Number of Children (0 - 24) | | |
| Living at home | | |
| None | 1,210 | 41.2% |
| One | 560 | 19.1% |
| Two | 580 | 19.8% |
| Three | 330 | 11.2% |
| Four + | 255 | 8.7% |
| Average Number of children 0 - 24 in families | 2.25 |
| 8. HOUSEHOLDS (Total) | 3,955 | 100% |
| - Female Head | 1,025 | 25.9% |
| - Male Head | 2,930 | 74.1% |
| 9. DWELLINGS (Total) | 3,945 | 100% |
| Tenure: | | |
| - Owned | 2,625 | 66.5% |
| - Rented | 1,320 | 33.5% |
| Type: | | |
| - Single detached | 2,980 | 75.5% |
| - Apartment | 795 | 20.2% |
| - All other | 170 | 4.3% |
9. **Dwellings (cont’d)**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of Residence</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Less than 1 year</td>
<td>710</td>
<td>18.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - 2 years</td>
<td>575</td>
<td>14.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 - 5 years</td>
<td>595</td>
<td>15.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 - 10 years</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>15.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 10 years</td>
<td>1,475</td>
<td>37.4%</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Average persons per room:</th>
<th>.49</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Single detached</td>
<td>.49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apartment</td>
<td>.52</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>All other</td>
<td>.54</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tenant-Occupied Cash Rent:</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>less than $50</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$50 - $74</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>4.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$75 - $99</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$100 - $124</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>14.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$125 - $149</td>
<td>280</td>
<td>21.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$150 - $174</td>
<td>320</td>
<td>24.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$175 - $199</td>
<td>155</td>
<td>11.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$200 - $224</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
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<tr>
<td>$225 - $249</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>3.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$250 &amp; over</td>
<td>105</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Owner-Occupied Value</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>less than $12499</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$12500 - $17499</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>2.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$17500 - $22499</td>
<td>210</td>
<td>8.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$22500 - $27499</td>
<td>425</td>
<td>16.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$27500 - $32499</td>
<td>555</td>
<td>21.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$32500 - $37499</td>
<td>410</td>
<td>15.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$37500 - $42499</td>
<td>325</td>
<td>12.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$42500 - $52499</td>
<td>360</td>
<td>13.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$52500 - $62499</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>4.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$62500 or more</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>6.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

10. **Number of Intermunicipal Moves of Population**

| No moves in past 5 years | 8,675    | 77.7%  |
| Moved once in past 5 years | 1,235   | 11.0%  |
| 2 moves in past 5 years | 605      | 5.4%   |
| 3 moves in past 5 years | 325      | 2.9%   |
| 4 moves in past 5 years | 155      | 1.4%   |
| 5 or more moves in past 5 years | 175 | 1.6% |

11. **Ethnic Groups (By Ethnic Origin)**

| British Isles | 8,405 | 70.7% |
| French        | 305   | 2.6%  |
| German        | 540   | 4.5%  |
11. ETHNIC GROUPS (cont'd)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ethnic Group</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Italian</td>
<td>120</td>
<td>1.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chinese</td>
<td>440</td>
<td>3.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Indo-Pakistani</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>0.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Japanese</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>0.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Greek</td>
<td>95</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Netherlands</td>
<td>160</td>
<td>1.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Scandinavian</td>
<td>385</td>
<td>3.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Portuguese or Spanish</td>
<td>90</td>
<td>0.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>East European</td>
<td>630</td>
<td>5.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other and not stated</td>
<td>590</td>
<td>5.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. PERCENTAGE WITH ENGLISH AS MOTHER TONGUE

<p>| | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>87.2%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

13. SCHOOLING

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>School Level</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>0.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kindergarten - Grade 6</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>2.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades 7 - 9</td>
<td>980</td>
<td>10.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grades 10 - 13</td>
<td>4,535</td>
<td>47.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1 - 2 years University</td>
<td>1,020</td>
<td>10.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 or more years University</td>
<td>2,700</td>
<td>28.5%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

14. LABOUR FORCE

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Unemployment</td>
<td>5,750</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Percentage of Labour Force</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Male</td>
<td>3,380</td>
<td>58.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Female</td>
<td>2,370</td>
<td>41.2%</td>
</tr>
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</table>

15. EXPERIENCED LABOUR FORCE BY OCCUPATION

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Managerial</td>
<td>365</td>
<td>6.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>13.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching/Medical</td>
<td>925</td>
<td>17.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical</td>
<td>1,140</td>
<td>21.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sales</td>
<td>755</td>
<td>14.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Service</td>
<td>595</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>1.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Processing</td>
<td>330</td>
<td>6.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation</td>
<td>185</td>
<td>3.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>80</td>
<td>1.6%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16. EXPERIENCED LABOUR FORCE BY INDUSTRY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Industry</th>
<th>Count</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Resources</td>
<td>125</td>
<td>2.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manufacturing</td>
<td>595</td>
<td>11.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Construction</td>
<td>135</td>
<td>2.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Transportation &amp; Utilities</td>
<td>420</td>
<td>7.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trade</td>
<td>820</td>
<td>15.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Finance, Insurance &amp; Real Estate</td>
<td>340</td>
<td>6.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Community Business &amp; Personal Service</td>
<td>2,450</td>
<td>46.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government</td>
<td>410</td>
<td>7.8%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 17. INCOME

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total with Income</th>
<th>3,945</th>
<th>100%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No income</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under $4,000</td>
<td>583</td>
<td>14.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$4,000 - $6,999</td>
<td>580</td>
<td>14.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$7,000 - $9,999</td>
<td>615</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$10,000 - $12,999</td>
<td>620</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$13,000 - $15,999</td>
<td>495</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$16,000 or more</td>
<td>1,040</td>
<td>26.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- Source: 1971 Census Data

### Definitions:

1. **Family**: Consists of a husband and wife with or without children who have never been married, regardless of age, or a parent with one or more children never married, living in the same dwelling. A family may also consist of a man or woman living with a guardianship child or a ward under 21 years for whom no pay was received.

2. **Household**: A person or group of persons occupying one dwelling.

3. **Dwelling**: Refers to a structurally separate set of living quarters with a private entrance from outside or from a common hallway or stairway inside the building. Dwellings under construction are not included. There are private and collective dwellings, but data on housing were collected for private dwellings only.

4. **Number of inter-municipal moves of population**: This refers to persons 5 years and over.

5. **Schooling**: This refers to persons 15 years and over.

6. **Labour force**: This refers to persons 15 years and over.

**Note**: All numbers have been random rounded so as not to single out any individual. Differences in population totals in different categories result in part from random rounding.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name</th>
<th>Address</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>P. Dickins</td>
<td>4136 W 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Raymond Kossipke</td>
<td>2525 W 7th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>J. Laffey</td>
<td>4138 W 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tara G. Ilkin</td>
<td>3706 W 1st</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Marilyn J. Wilson</td>
<td>9350 Lecun Avenue</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Susan C. Nelson</td>
<td>4000 W 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June McEwen</td>
<td>1233 W 10th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>June Beat</td>
<td>4420 W 6th Ave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jimmie Sheffield</td>
<td>4621 W 7th Ave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Andrew Crocker</td>
<td>11433 W 13th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Suki Clark</td>
<td>4677 W 15th Ave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Brian Rankin</td>
<td>4391 W 14th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Armond Rankin</td>
<td>4344 W 14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ann S. Weiler</td>
<td>4555 W 12th Ave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ethel P. Chick</td>
<td>4435 W 22nd Ave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Louise Sander</td>
<td>4123 W 11/12 Ave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Richard Whittaker</td>
<td>Abilene</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Stu Jody Gaylord</td>
<td>4681 W 9th Ave</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rolfesen's (4)</td>
<td>4644 W 12th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Karen Rankin</td>
<td>4394 W 14th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Robbie Minnely</td>
<td>3803 W 11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carol</td>
<td>102-4158 W 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mary Jean Minnely</td>
<td>3803 W 19th</td>
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<td>Joan K. Murray</td>
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Additional notes:
- 4600 W. 12th Ave.
- 3510 Delranie
- 4164 W. 12th Ave.
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<tr>
<td>Melody Bakers</td>
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<td>John W. Normand</td>
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<td>[JERICHO AREA CITIZENS ASSOC. 3765 W. 34th Ave. 228-0932]</td>
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<tr>
<td>[Mr. GIUBERT/TACA rep. here today]</td>
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<td>Anne Davis</td>
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