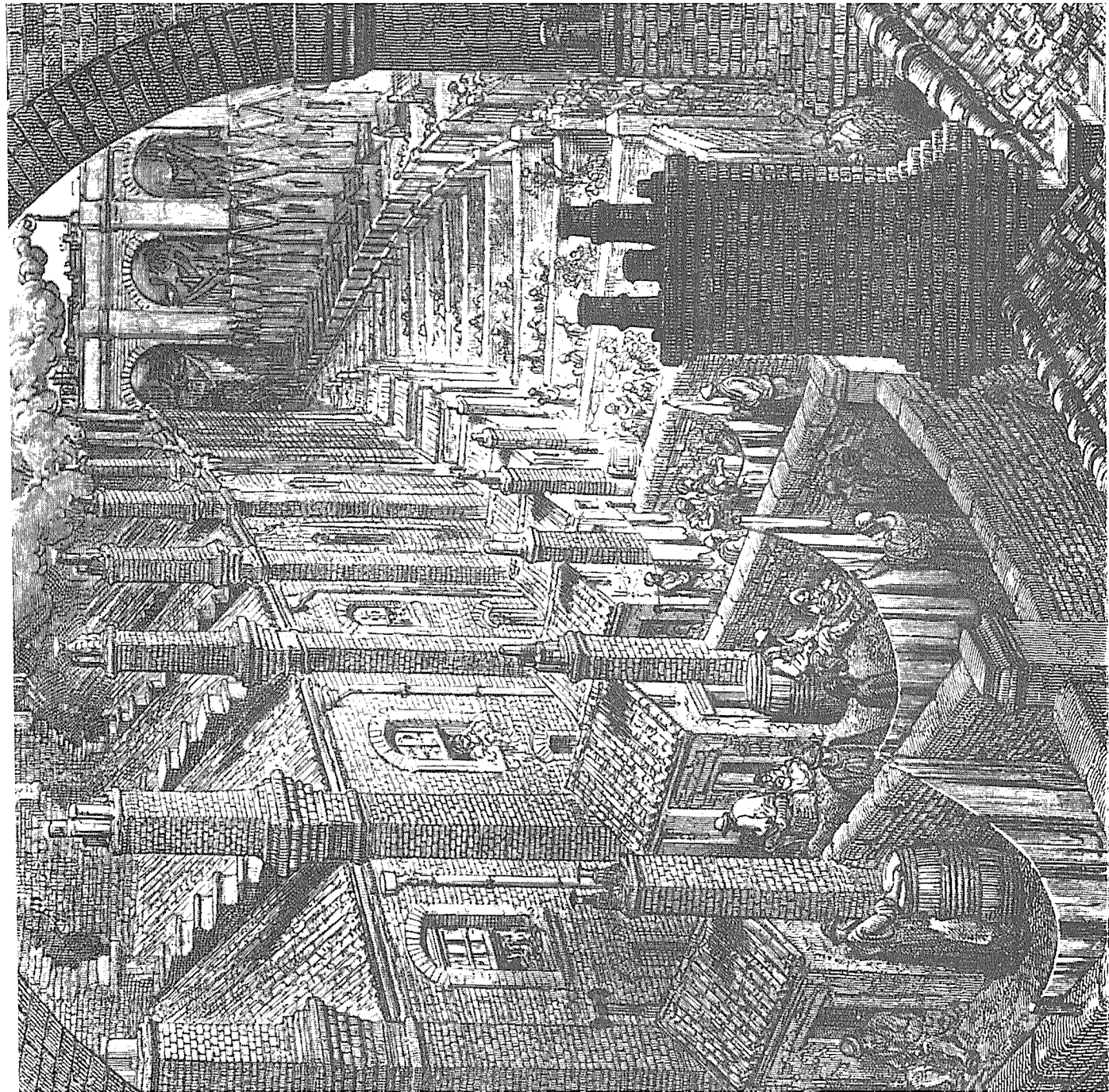
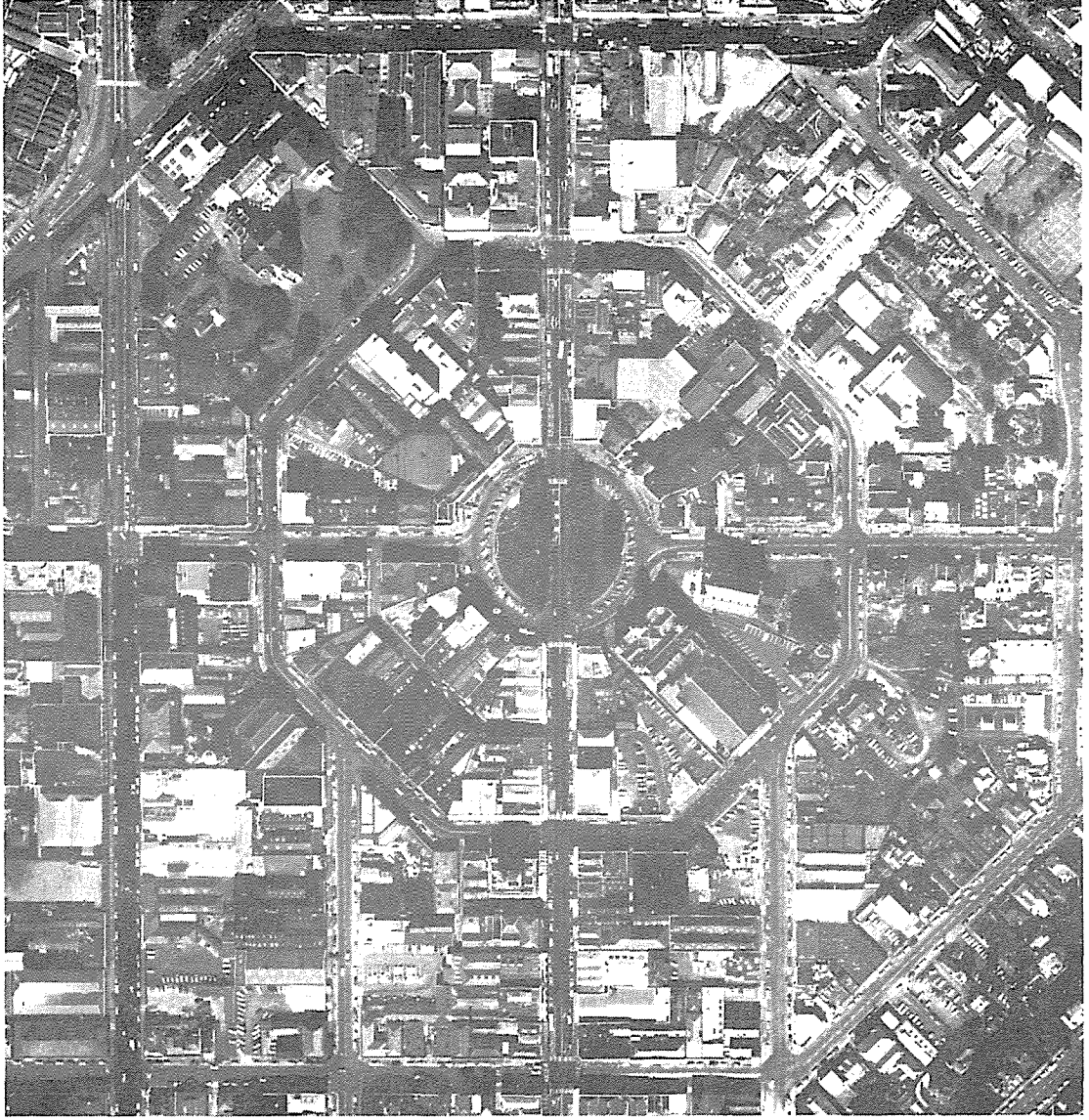


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# TOWN PLANNING QUARTERLY

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Number twenty-five September 1971

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	4	Fact & opinion
	7	Density and opportunity
Gerhard Rosenberg	10	The Victorian city as Dickens saw it
John Reid	14	Protecting the Summit Road
F.S. Robinson	17	Recent law
J.F. Northey		
D.R. Hall		
Susan Niculescu	19	Problems of research
Malcolm Latham	22	Section 18 and corporate planning
M.E. Jones	26	Settlement patterns of occupational groups
E.F. Schwarz	30	Book reviews
D.R. Hall		
Malcolm Latham		
I.W. Gunn		
R. Scott Pierson		
I. Boileau		
Conway Stewart	34	Correspondence
R.J.P. Davies		
C.M.T. Brown		
E.F. Schwarz		
B. Ray		



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Town Planning Quarterly is the official journal of the New Zealand Planning Institute Incorporated, P.O. Box 5131, Wellington.

Opinion's expressed are not necessarily those of the Institute.

Annual Subscription \$3 post free.

Address all correspondence to the publishers: Southern Cross Books, 5 Pencarrow Avenue, Auckland 3.

Telephone/Telegrams: 604-843

Published March, June, September, December.

Printed by Acme Printing Works Ltd., 137 Great North Road, Auckland.

# FACT & OPINION


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## An editorial notebook

### The Institute's new crest

The crest that adorns this issue has been adopted by the Council of behalf of the Institute. It was designed by Professor Paul Beadle of Auckland University's School of Fine Arts. Professor Beadle has provided the following description in explanation of the symbolic nature of the crest:

The pythagorean emblem of the course of life √  
a rising path with four roads to good and evil  
with the rising path extended to become the  
ancient sign for man √

superimposed on the ancient sign for the city 

### Professional Staff for Local Government

The New Zealand Planning Institute is a small group spread thinly over the country, but how thinly may give cause for surprise. Of the 18 cities in the North Island, a mere six have Members of the Institute amongst their staffs; for the South Island, the figure is two out of five. Of the country's total of 108 counties, only two, both in the North Island, have Members and not one of the nation's 115 boroughs does so.

Bearing in mind that the minimum requirement for membership is an acceptable planning academic or equivalent professional qualification plus two years' practical experience, local government cannot be accused of unseemly haste in its desire to employ adequately trained planning officers. As one would expect, the situation is quite different in the case of the regional planning authorities. Two of the six have at least one trained planner and the authorities, to a greater or lesser extent, act as consultants to their constituent councils from time to time. Other local authorities employ private consultants, a few on regular basis, but more in an ad hoc way. The fact, however, that less than five per cent of councils have

permanent professional staff is one that should not have escaped comment for so long.

Of course, if one looks more closely at the structure of local government, the indictment is less significant. For example, three quarters of the local authorities have populations of less than 10,000 people. Nevertheless, the desire on the part of Minister of Works to see all local authorities with district planning schemes by January last (in itself a forlorn as well as a questionable aim) seems especially difficult to understand in the light of such a rare recourse to expertise. Perhaps the Minister is naive enough to believe that an incompetently prepared district scheme is better than none at all. Or perhaps he has allowed himself to be too easily influenced by the clerical mind upset at the blank spaces that remain to mar the record sheets.

The evidence suggests that the nation, to date, has done little more than pay lip service to the task of land use planning.

### A Reminder for Chief Surveyors

The following is the text of a question asked of the Minister of Works by Mr R.T. Scott MBE, JP, Chairman of Piako County, at the Counties Conference, Rotorua, in June of this year:

"My Council is concerned that, despite the fact that we have an operative district scheme which has for several years specified 50 acres as the minimum size of a rural subdivision allowed as of right, some subdivisions of lesser size are getting through without reference to Council.

"I refer, sir, to those subdivisions of Crown renewable leases which are carried out on Survey Office plans approved by the Chief Surveyor and which are not deposited by the District Land Registrar and are over 10 acres in size.

"We have recently detected such a subdivision which despite a condition requiring

our approval being imposed by the Land Settlement Board is now an established fact without our consent either being sought or obtained. We can now do little about this even although the subdivision, sir, is in a form we would not have permitted a private subdivider.

"You, sir, on previous occasions have urged us to control the use and subdivision of our rural lands by using the Town and Country Planning Act. Here is a case where either the collusion by, or ignorance of, a Government Department nullifies our good work.

"It is obvious that more than a direction of the Land Settlement Board to obtain our approval is needed and perhaps the Chief Surveyor should be required to check that such approval has in fact been obtained before approving such plans.

"Can you, sir, give us an assurance that at least those land transactions involving the Crown which amount to land trading are only done after compliance with operative schemes has been assured — even if this should require a change in the existing law?"

The following quotation from the Commission of Inquiry's Report into Housing in New Zealand was written in the context of the Housing Division's activities in the sphere of land subdivision, but it is not only the Chief Surveyors who could read it with advantage.

"The Crown is the fountain of justice. In our respectful view, it is not consistent with the Crown's identification with the law that Your Excellency's Government and its agencies should claim exemption from the rules applying to the Crown's subjects in these matters. Such requirements are imposed for important social and environmental reasons, and we think that the Crown should lead and set an example."

## Living in Town

### John Harre reports from Suva:

The 1970 and 1971 seminars have established the South Pacific Seminar Series as an important contributor to the life of the region. The seminar aims to provide a forum where

academics, civil servants, planners and interested members of the general public can discuss important issues of the day.

The Second South Pacific Seminar was held at the University of the South Pacific in Suva from 14 to 17 July when the topic was "Living in Town: Problems and Priorities in Urban Planning in the South Pacific". It drew participants from many parts of the island Pacific as well as Australia and New Zealand. A grant from the Commonwealth Foundation enabled John McCreary, Professor of Social Administration at Victoria University, Wellington, and William Lim of the Singapore Planning and Urban Research Group to be invited to give public addresses, and also to ensure that there was a representation from most of the British countries in the island Pacific. In all, sixteen countries were represented and there was an average attendance of 114 at sessions of the seminar.

The topics of sessions were wide-ranging and included papers by Pacific Islanders on the problems of their towns as they saw them. The Solomon Islands film "This Man", probably more than anything else, crystallized the dilemma of development and urbanization as seen by the Pacific Islander. More specialised papers on urbanization, planning, urban society, urban housing and problems of urban life, were contributed by architects, sociologists, historians, geographers, town planners, psychologists and social workers.

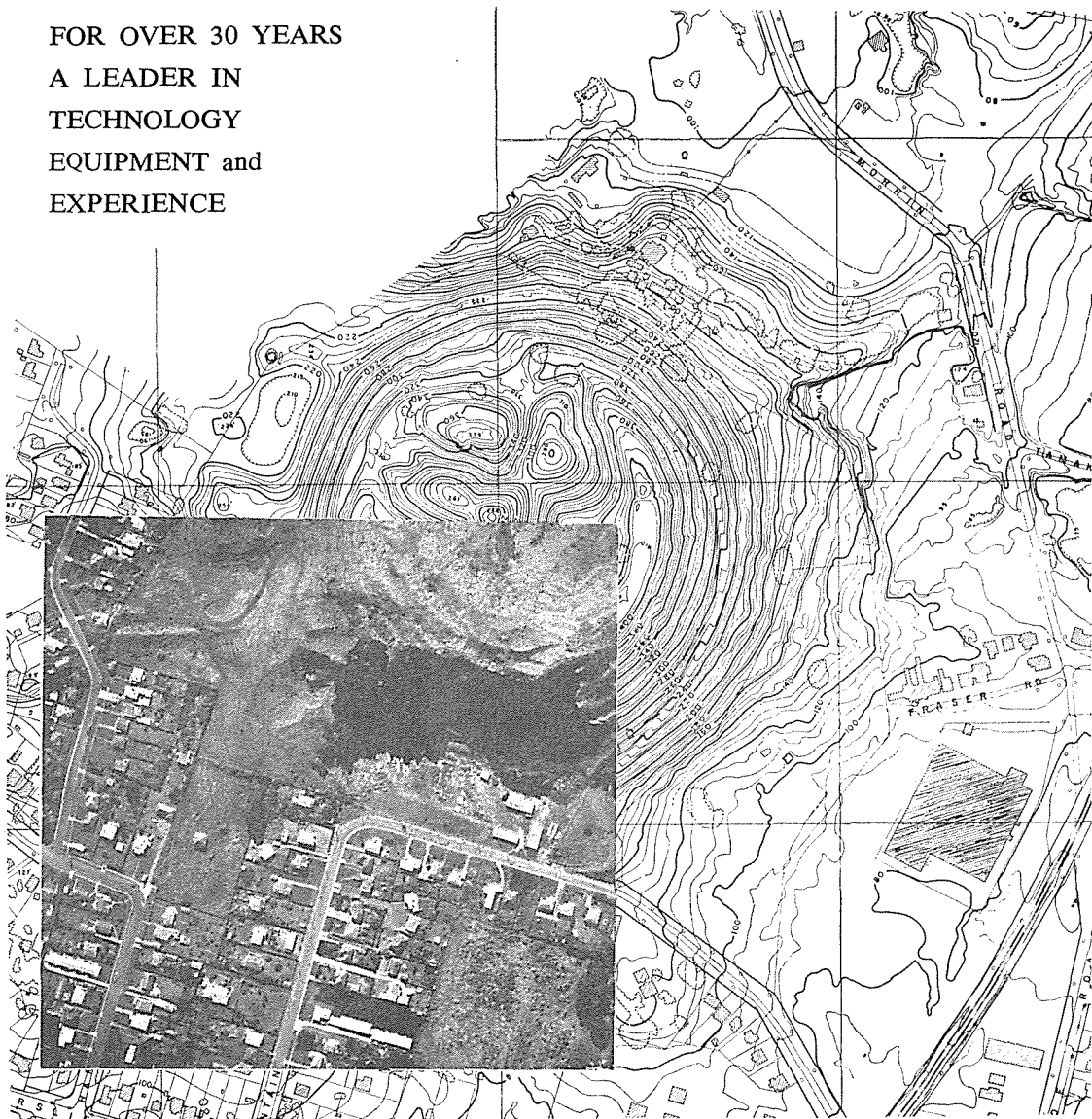
In spite of the diverse contributions to the seminar, there were recurring themes in a number of contexts, which were clearly exercising the minds of all contributors: the validity and value of traditional culture; the significance of the extended family in the contemporary situation; the utility of a systems approach to urban planning; participation of the public in the planning process; the relevance of the urban-rural dichotomy; the appropriate role of shacks and slums; tourism; urban-rural networks; relevant systems of local government. Much of the discussion was centred around these themes.

Although it would be claiming too much to say that consensus was reached on all issues, one of the most satisfying features of the meeting was the large measure of common ground which was evident between the academics and the people of the Pacific whose interests must always be of a central concern.

A large proportion of the papers presented are being edited for early publication at a reasonable cost.



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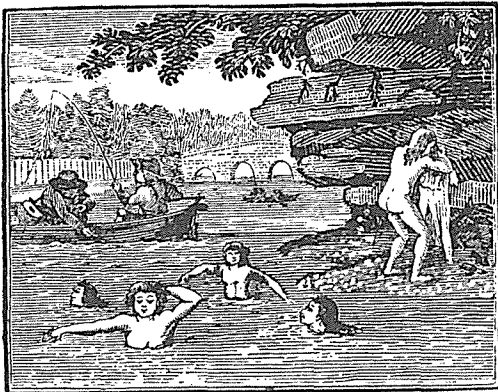
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# Density and opportunity

Variations on a Theme by K.W. Deutsch



Transactions between populations increase with the square of the populations concerned –  
 $T = \frac{1}{2} p (p-1)$

where  $T$  = transactions  
 $p$  = population

Other things being equal, where there are 10 people, there are 45 possible transactions, but where there are 20 people there are 190 possible transactions. This applies in a ‘good’ way as much as in a ‘bad’ way. The likelihood of finding good congenial friends, making business contacts, meeting the right partner, or finding the stimulating contact needed for advanced research increases with the square of the number of people available within reach – and so does the likelihood of fights, of friction, of young lads getting into bad company, or unmarried girls becoming pregnant.

Professor K.W. Deutsch, in a discussion reported in *Ekistics*, October 1969, p.253, said: “If the propensity of people to drive badly remains unchanged, the number of collisions will go up with the square of the numbers of automobiles on the road.” He also cites fights between black and white youths:

“If the propensity for black and white youngsters to fight each other remains unchanged and they live close together, the number of fights will vary in accordance with the relative size of each group, even though total population remains constant.”

Black/White	Fights
10/90	9
20/80	16
30/70	21
40/60	24
50/50	25

Another application of this mathematical causation given by Professor Deutsch is the relative numbers of automobiles and teenagers in a population: “Automobiles are stealable objects, and teenagers are people who are sometimes tempted to steal them. The PQ figure, (which gives us the product of the two groups involved in a transaction) would tell us how many such thefts are to be expected, and we could then begin to see what is happening to the propensities of teenagers.” These propensities are the “other things” that are at issue, and that have to change, in order to avoid the inevitable consequences of the fact that transactions increase more rapidly than populations:

*Gerhard Rosenberg, ARIBA, AMTPI, ANZIA, (M), is a Senior Lecturer in Town Planning at the University of Auckland.*

$$T = K \frac{PQ}{D^X}$$

where T = transactions, opportunities  
 K = propensity to do some things, a cultural factor;  
 P and Q = population groups or individuals  
 D = distance, a physical factor, related to town planning  
 X = an exponent, related to the mode of transportation.

Looking at the 'bad' effects of this situation: it is no good blaming the laxity of morals, or the permissive society, if crimes and other social evils in large and densely populated cities increase rapidly, unless one compares the actual rates of crimes to statistical expectations. On the other hand, the 'good' effects of urbanisation and higher densities also inevitably result from this statistical situation. Thus land values in commercial areas traditionally depend on the pedestrian count in front of different sites: transactions between shops and customers increase with the product of their numbers (PQ). The greater efficiency of urban compared to rural activities, and of large cities compared to smaller towns is indicated by the greater median family incomes, which have been checked against the admittedly somewhat higher cost of living, but still found substantially greater. D. Shefer, writing in *American Institute of Planners*, November, 1970, p.417, gives the median income of a rural family in U.S.A. in 1958 as \$2,400, and the income of a family in the 1 million plus category of cities as \$5,700. The difficulty lies in the need to counter the 'bad' effects of complexity, while not cutting down the 'good' effects.

Police action, prophylaxis, social services, have to increase faster than populations to keep pace with the 'bad effects'. If a hotel is frequented by twice as many guests, and their propensity to quarrel is unchanged, there will be four times as many fights, and there will certainly have to be more than twice as many chuckers-out to keep things under control.

The exponential relationship between good happenings and populations explains an important underlying reason for ever increasing concentration of people, from rural areas to towns, from towns to cities, and from smaller cities to the great centres. At the same time, one can have too much of a good thing: increasing opportunities also mean increasing

complexities, and there is a limit to what one can stand. The limits vary widely but have hardly been reached in any New Zealand city yet.

### Reducing complexity

One of the main tasks of metropolitan urban planning is to devise a way of reducing complexity in such a way that the individual has the option to choose between interaction and isolation. In the past that response of the urban dweller has been spontaneous: London has always been a vast collection of "villages". One could suit oneself whether to live within the village, or whether to venture forth. People become 'reserved', clannish, group conscious. It may be that the preference for one-class suburbs is an attempt to reduce the complexity of too many contacts.

In fact, mathematically speaking, there is no more effective way of cutting down transactions than to form sub-groups. At the same time there is the risk that by cutting down complexity, one also cuts down opportunity. If you tell your daughters not to speak to strangers in the park, it may prevent unpleasant encounters, but it may also mean that they miss out on a beautiful friendship. If we "zone" different land uses to different parts of a city, we may cut down unpleasant effects of mutual interference, but we also lose a very essential part of urban complexity and stimulation, as Jane Jacobs has been at pains to tell us in *The Death and Life of Great American Cities*. There is a dilemma here, but if we understand that we have to tackle the effects of a statistical and therefore inevitable relationship in such a way that we encourage or at least facilitate the desirable results of complexity, and counter the undesirable results, we have a good basis for dealing with the facts of urban life.

To illustrate the rapid rise of interactions with growing populations, coupled with growing concentrations, the following table shows the number of reported police cases, and compares their increase with that of the total New Zealand population and also with the rise of the population of the 18 major urban areas. It is the latter which affects the degree of concentration, i.e. the distance D between members of the population, and which determines the rise in interaction statistically to be expected.



**Police Statistics of New Zealand Police Cases (From Parliamentary Papers B 71, p.198 and New Zealand Yearbooks)**

Year	Reported		Major Urban Areas		Total	
	Cases	Index	Population	Index	Population	Index
1946	34,016	1	968,970	1	1,702,298	1
1952	42,580	1.25	1,113,982	1.15	1,939,472	1.1
1958	85,153	2.5	1,327,780	1.37	2,275,515	1.3
1964	118,422	3.6	1,573,200	1.63	2,550,114	1.5
1969	153,916	4.5	1,765,200	1.83	2,808,000	1.64
1970	165,859	4.85	1,799,000	1.86	2,820,817	1.65

If the population in the urban areas increased by a factor of 1.86 between 1946 and 1970, one would expect a rise of interaction, and therefore of crime, by a factor of 3.45. If the distance decreased within the population, a larger increase could be expected, because interactions, in the Deutsch formula are increasing in an inverse proportion to the distance factor. It is, of course not possible to weight the degree of the influence of decreased distance in an urban setting without far more specific detail, but it may well be that most of the shocking increase of reported crime – more than four times the crime for less than twice the population – is due to statistical causes, without any increase in K, or the propensity to criminal interaction.

**“Practical hints”**

Now, one may well ask: “Give us some practical hints where all this leads us.” How can a big city be designed so that ‘good’ multiplier effects of concentration are reinforced, and ‘bad’ ones restrained?

If we have another look at the formula: there is K, a cultural constant, the “other things being equal” part of the formula. Obviously other things can not remain equal. ‘Bad’ propensities will have to be curbed culturally, and ‘good’ ones reinforced. The urban life style of the big city requires a capacity to cope with a large number of “good” encounters, and a high skill in avoiding or diverting ‘bad’ ones. An urban person has to accept more complexity, must be able to stand up to shocks that in a less crowded milieu would possibly have been very traumatic – he must be tolerant, humane, and must have a strong sense of humour. This is not a new thing: it is typical of the London Cockney, the Berliner, the New York taxi driver.

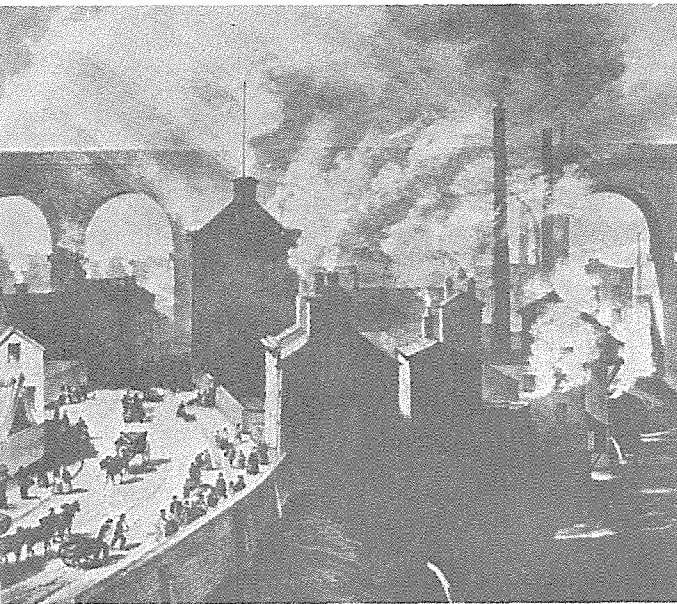
The other elements in the formula are D, the distance and the exponent x, which relates to transport. These are a matter of physical planning policy: where encounters are likely to be ‘bad’, one has to keep the distance large; thus instead of having twice as many odd assorted people in an hotel, and four times as many chuckers-out, there would have to be two separate hotels, and people would be likely to choose the company where brawls are less frequent. Or, if post-operative infections in hospitals increase faster than the number of beds, one would have the choice of having smaller hospitals, or else introduce very much more powerful counter-measures against the H-bug, or whatever causes the infections.

On the other hand, where nothing but good can come from increased interactions – such as in a university – the scale would be large, distances within the campus would be reduced and meeting places made available wherever possible. All this, of course, would remain within the limits of a sophisticated complexity. No place must become so big, that even an urban and urbane man finds that things get too complex for him.

As to the urban area as a whole, it would have to be a “city of a hundred villages”, full of intimate as well as concentrated places and occasions – where one can either participate or withdraw at will to a very much simplified home ground. If the statistical dilemma can be solved at all, it will have to be tackled on all three levels: the cultural, the physical planning and the transport-technical level.

John Reid

## The Victorian City — as Dickens saw it



In my view, we can find in the novels of Victorian England, not only the physical aspects of 19th century England, including its buildings and homes as seen with eyes often more perceptive than those of statisticians, painters and historians, but also find clearly enunciated for the first time those problems of urban growth and housing that confront city dwellers today. No novelist is more fruitful in this regard than Charles Dickens. In essence, Dickens is not a realistic novelist; his major effects are gained by the exercise of a powerful transforming imagination and a gift for the fantastic and poetic. But his imagination was always stimulated by the real; he was a keen and exact observer and uniquely able to incorporate precisely seen and carefully remembered realistic detail into his highly personal vision. In this way, he was able to describe the Victorian world with exact clarity and at the same time to convey its mood and sensibility as even as assiduous chronicler like Henry Mayhew was unable to do.

But, before indicating the ways in which he viewed city and dwelling, let me first look quickly at the Victorian city and the problems it posed. The industrial revolution caught everyone unprepared; the rapid growth of the new 19th century technology and the development of factories and industry threw living and housing conditions into chaos. Traditionally rooted in the land and based upon an agricultural economy, Britain was unable to cope with the sudden dislocations caused by the transition from country to town which the industrialisation of Britain brought about and by the explosion of the population which accompanied it. In London and the great new industrial centres such as Manchester, Birmingham and Liverpool, small town joined small town to produce the original of the great conurbations we now know only too well. The development of the railways complicated matters; with its growth, the physical appearance of England was transformed by bridges, cuttings, culverts, tunnels. In places the railway appeared like a cataclysmic force, as in Dickens's vivid description of its effects on the slum area of Stagg's Gardens in *Dombey and Son*:

‘The first shock of an earthquake had rent the neighbourhood to its centre . . . Houses were knocked down; streets broken through and stopped; deep pits and trenches dug in the ground; enormous heaps of earth and clay thrown up; buildings that were undermined and shaking, propped by great beams of wood . . . . Everywhere were bridges that led nowhere; thoroughfares that were wholly impassable;

*This article is an abridged version of the 1971 Vernon Brown Memorial Lecture presented at Auckland in April by J.C. Reid, MA, Litt D (NZ), Professor of English at the University of Auckland and well-known writer and speaker.*

Babel towers of chimneys, wanting half their height; temporary wooden houses and enclosures, in the most unlikely situations; carcasses of ragged tenements and fragments of unfinished walls and arches, and piles of scaffolding and wildernesses of bricks, and giant forms of cranes, and tripods straddling above nothing.'

Later in the same novel, we see the results of the completed railway, both in its own form and in that of the buildings which surrounded it and which developed ribbon-wise along its route:

'There was no such place as Stagg's Gardens. It had vanished from the earth. Where the old rotten summer-houses had once stood, palaces now reared their heads and granite columns of gigantic girth opened a vista to the railway world beyond. The miserable waste ground, where the refuse matter had been heaped of yore, was swallowed up and gone; and in its frowsy stead were tiers of warehouses . . . Bridges that had led to nothing, led to villas, gardens, churches, healthy public walks. The carcasses of houses, and beginnings of new thoroughfares, had started off upon the line at steam's own speed and shot away into the country on a master train.'

With these changes, the population grew from 9 millions in England and Wales in 1801 to 16 million in 1841 and 32 million in 1901 – quadrupling in a century. Rows of hastily erected alleys, lanes, close courts, back-to-back streets of uniform dwellings became the order of the day, in a desperate attempt to cope. The story is only too familiar of the state of the ordinary people's dwellings in the 19th century and the appalling conditions which led great reformers like the public health and drainage leader, Edwin Chadwick, to try to ameliorate them. In Manchester there were 1,599 cellars in which 3 persons, 738 where 4, and 281 where 5, slept in one bed. In one area 7,000 people shared 33 privies. In Liverpool, over 40,000 lived in fetid cellars polluted by cesspools. The squalor of London's 'Rookery' was notorious throughout Europe.

These phenomena changed the character of the Victorian city, as did the rise of the speculative builder and the developer. Georgian London, with its general dignity and sense of proportion and grandeur, was almost swamped by the dwellings of the poor and the working-class. The modern city, that sprawling, ungainly, incongruous "Wen", in Cobbet's phrase, of mixed styles and architecture, with all its headaches, had arrived. The odour Royalty itself lived in was hardly that of sanctity. In 1844, 53 overflowing cess-

pits were found under Windsor Castle. As late as 1848, the drainage of Buckingham Palace was so defective that its precincts 'reeked with filth and pestilential odours from the absence of proper drainage.'

In these conditions, slums developed almost overnight. It is significant that the word 'slums' itself was unknown until Pierce Egan first put it into print in *Life in London* in 1821. The Dickensian descriptions of slums emphasise not only their sordid and filthy nature, but the overcrowded conditions, as of a pulsating life proliferating and bursting through the borders designed to restrict it, in, for instance, his memorable picture of the slum 'Tom-All-Along's' in *Bleak House*:

'It is a black, dilapidated street, avoided by all decent people; where the crazy houses were seized upon, when their decay was far advanced, by some bold vagrants, who, after establishing their own possession, took to letting them out in lodgings. Now, these tumbling tenements contain, by night, a swarm of misery. As, on the ruined human wretch, vermin parasites appear, so these ruined shelters have bred a crowd of foul human existence that crawls in and out of gaps in walls and boards, and coils itself to sleep, in maggot numbers, where the rain drips in; and comes and goes, fetching and carrying fever.'

His novels are full of picture after picture of the ways in which London's poor lived; to take just another brief example, the presentation of Jacob's Island in *Oliver Twist*:

'Crazy wooden galleries common to the backs of half a dozen houses, with holes from which to look upon the slime beneath; windows, broken and patched, with poles thrust out, on which to dry the linen that is never there; rooms so small, so filthy, so confined, that the air would seem too tainted even for the dirt and squalor which they shelter; wooden chambers thrusting themselves out above the mud, and threatening to fall into it – as some have done; dirt-besmeared walls and decaying foundations; every repulsive lineament of poverty, every loathsome indication of filth, rot and garbage.'

Throughout all such descriptions runs a keen sense that the character of the city had altered. Dickens was in fact possessed with the idea of retaining what was, in his view, important and individual in the old twisted by-ways on the London he loved. He knew that this, like everything else, was at the mercy of time. As he wrote in *Sketches of Boz*:

'A few years hence, and the antiquary of another generation looking into some mouldy record of the strife and passions that agitated the world in these times, may glance his eye over the pages we have just filled; and not all his knowledge of the history of the past, not all his black-letter lore, or his skill in book-collecting . . . may help him to the whereabouts, either of Scotland Yard or any one of the landmarks we have mentioned in describing it.'

It was a fortunate historical accident that Dickens should have been writing at the time when it was still possible for an observer to lay hold of some sections of the prototype of the great new cities, before the character of old London had been destroyed. As he walked indefatigably around the city, he saw it both as it had been and as it was becoming. By capturing Londong at this significant point in its development, he made it a permanent element of the European consciousness. This way of seeing was his own, and yet his cumulative description is so vivid and so imaginatively sustained that, even today, many people, especially those with a literary background, see London through his eyes.

How Dickens viewed the city as a whole is perhaps best figured through the celebrated chapter in *Martin Chuzzlewitt* called 'Town and Todger's'. This magnificent and lengthy description of the environment of Todger's boarding-house and the view from Todgers shows London as a patchwork, made up of buildings of all styles, churches and ghostly little churchyards, narrow thoroughfares, decayed mansions, gloomy court-yards, queer old taverns, blind alleys, strange solitary pumps, cellerages, rats.:

'You couldn't walk about Todger's neighbourhood, as you could in any other neighbourhood. You groped your way for an hour through lanes and bye-ways, and court-yards, and passages; and you never once emerged upon anything that might reasonably be called a street. A kind of resigned distraction came over the stranger as he trod those devious mazes, and, giving himself up for lost, went in and out and round about and quietly turned back again when he came to a dead wall or was stopped by an iron railing, and felt that the means of escape might possibly present themselves in their own good time, but that to anticipate them was hopeless.'

And the view from the roof of Todgers is:

' . . . steeples, towers, belfries, shining vanes, and masts of ships; a very forest. Gables, housetops, garret-windows, wilderness upon wilderness. Smoke and noise enough for all the world at once.'

When a 20th century urban-planner considers London, or a large modern city, he sees what Dickens saw — not a discernible whole but a mass of details. Thus, Kevin Lynch in *The Image of the City* argues that American and most British cities are not 'legible' — a legible city he defines as one whose districts or landmarks or pathways are easily identifiable. The main faults of cities, according to Lynch, are perceptual stress (noise, heat, dust and confusion), lack of visible identity (lack of diversity), illegibility and rigidity (lack of openness) — all of these are already features of Dicken's London.

It is no wonder then that for many 19th century men, the desirable way of life seemed to be that of the country. As Sir Walter Scott wrote in his *Chronicles of the Cannongate*:

'A nobler contrast can hardly exist than that of the huge city, dark with the smoke of ages, and groaning with the various sounds of active industry or idle revel, and the lofty and craggy hill, silent and solitary as the grave; the one exhibiting the full tide of existence, pressing forward with the force of an inundation; the other resembling some timeworn anchorite, whose life passes as silent and unobserved as the slender rill which escapes unheard, and scarce seen, from the fountain of his patron saint.'

One of the persistent motifs of the 19th century literature is the myth of rural goodness and beauty as opposed to the total Evil of the city. The Victorians found the new city perplexing and distressing; they could not grasp its largeness; it was, too, a strange contradiction, a thing of bricks and mortar that had its own life, that was growing and devouring. Hence, when little Nell and her grandfather escape in *The Old Curiosity Shop* from the smoke and filth of London, they look back from the freshness of the country, with its birds, flowers, grass, and leaves, at 'old St Paul's looming through the smoke', then on they pass, through the industrial hell to the Midlands:

' . . . The clustered roofs and piles of buildings trembling with the working of engines, and dimly resounding with their shrieks and throbbings; the tall chimneys vomiting forth a black vapour, which hung in a dense, ill-favoured cloud above the house-tops, and filled the air with gloom; the clank of hammers beating upon iron, the roar of busy streets and noisy crowds, gradually augmenting until all the various sounds blended into one . . . In a large and lofty building, supported by pillars of iron, with great black apertures in the upper walls, open to the external air . . . in this gloomy

place, moving like demons among the flame and smoke, dimly and fitfully seen, flushed and tormented by the burning fires . . . a number of men laboured like giants . . . On every side, tall chimneys, crowding on each other and presenting that endless repetition of the same dull, ugly form that is the horror of oppressive dreams, poured out their plague of smoke, obscured the light and made foul the melancholy air.'

It is in a mouldering old church in a quiet country town that they find peace.

But it was not only the proliferation of the slums and the growth of industrial pollution so graphically figured above, that depressed Dickens. He found a cause for sadness in what was happening in Victorian times to many of the finest and most gracious parts of London.

The effects of such changes are, I think, best set out in a passage in *Little Dorrit* of which I shall quote only the beginning:

'They rode to the top of Oxford Street and there alighting, dived in among the great streets of melancholy stateliness, and the little streets that try to be as stately and succeed in being more melancholy, of which there is a labyrinth near Park Lane. Wildernesses of corner houses, with barbarous old porticoes and appurtenances; horrors that came into existence under some wrong-headed person in some wrong-headed time, still demanding the blind admiration of all ensuing generations . . . frowned upon the twilight, Parasite tenements, with the cramp in their whole frame, from the dwarf hall-door on the giant model of His Grace's in the Square to the squeezed window of the boudoir commanding the dunghills in the Wews, made the evening doleful. Rickety dwellings of undoubted fashion, but of a capacity to hold nothing comfortably except a dismal smell, looked like the last result of the great mansions' breeding in-and-in; and, where their little supplementary bows and balconies were supported on thin iron columns, seemed to be scrupulously resting upon crutches.'

There is evidence in every one of his novels of his keen eye for, and interest in, individual dwellings as well.

Before Dickens, houses in books were almost always so much stage-furniture, stylised and stereotyped. He was the first novelist to see houses and buildings as individual things, with a character of their own, and related not only to the personality of their owners, but also to the total environment of which they formed part. In this way, he was revolutionary, both in his belief and desire that each house should be an

individual thing and not merely a machine for living in or part of a set of standard units, and also in his feeling that it was not just the very wealthy who should have the chance to express their individuality in a building. We still have a good way to go before we are able to realise either his ideal of a city that exists for its inhabitants and that is free from the odious accompaniments of modern urbanism or his ideal of a house that is truly a part of the people it contains.

With all this concern for architecture, it is ironical that the sole architect we find in Dickens's fiction is the odious hypocrite, Mr Pecksniff, who lives off the work of fee-paying pupils:

'Mr Pecksniff proceeded to entrust Martin with the materials necessary for its execution; dwelling meanwhile on the magical effect of a few finishing touches from the hand of a master; which, indeed, as some people said, was unquestionably very surprising, and almost miraculous; as there were cases on record in which the masterly introduction of an additional back window, or a kitchen door, or half-a-dozen steps, or even a water-spout, had made the design of a pupil Mr Pecksniff's own work, and had brought substantial rewards into that gentleman's pocket. But such is the magic of genius, which changes all it handles into gold!'

However, there is no reason to suppose that Dickens intended Mr Pecksniff to be a typical architect any more than he intended Micawber to be a typical magistrate.

Of course, Dickens offers no solution to the problems of unplanned urban growth or of housing; it is not the business of the novelist to offer solutions, although it may well be part of his business to highlight problems. What is astonishing about Dickens is that he asks the right questions. More than a century ago, he saw, with surprising clarity, the beginnings of most of the major difficulties that face urban planners today and their effects in terms of human misery, or happiness. He saw, too, the fact that the new city and the new character of many of its inhabitants called for new solutions. As he did this with such imaginative force that, as we read him, we find he is our contemporary. There are hundreds of descriptions in his novels similar to those I have quoted – each with its point to make.

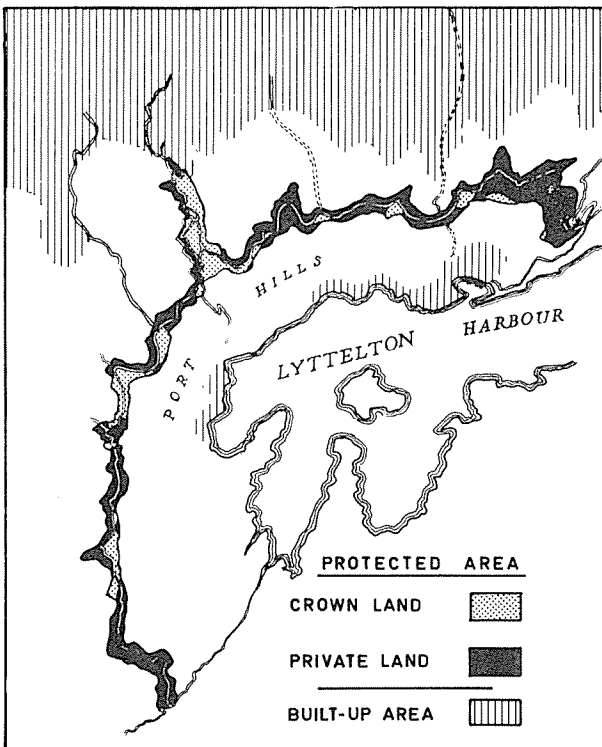
But, as he himself writes, at the end of one of the *Sketches of Boz* "as a description of them all, however slight, would require a volume, we make our bow, and drop the curtain".



F.S. Robinson

# Protecting the Summit Road

## Part II Incompleteness of Local Act to Provide Full Control



*F.S. Robinson, DipTP (Hons), (M), is Regional Planning Officer with the Christchurch Regional Planning Authority.*

The first article of this series described events leading up to the enactment of special legislation to protect the scenic amenities of the Summit Road. It indicated that neither the Town and Country Planning Act 1953, nor any other existing statute was capable of effecting the desired control over development of the Port Hills. As a result of steps taken by the Christchurch Regional Planning Authority the Summit Road (Canterbury) Protection Act, 1963, came into force.

The need to introduce special control measures had been precipitated by a request for subdivision of land fronting the Summit Road. It was feared that any subsequent house building would encourage further demands for subdivision and building. An investigation of the existing situation showed that the number of houses and baches along the Summit Road was negligible, there being 6 altogether. These are grouped in two locations and all but one are relatively inconspicuous from the road. Farming operations involved little in the way of structures other than fencing and water tanks. By far the biggest impact on the scenic amenities was made by installations for which government departments were responsible. Radio communications installations existed at three sites and two major power lines crossed the hills – one on steel pylons and the other on double wooden poles. Overhead feeder lines serviced two locations and the telephone lines to Lyttelton also went over the hills.

The 1963 act provided for an area of protection within which the regional authority could exercise control over subdivision to less than 10 acres, the repair, erection or extension of any structure or the planting of trees by any owner or occupier of the land within that area. The protected area included all land between the summit of the Port Hills and a line 100 feet below the level of the Summit Road – excluding crown land.

Within the limited protected area the sort of development which could occur to spoil the view to or from the Summit Road is very slight in the case of private developers. Government development on the other hand can and does have significant effect. This is particularly so in the case of communications stations. These can occur on crown land, which is exempt from the Summit Road Act, or on private land, where by virtue of being government works no control can be exercised in terms of the act. Exemption could also occur in any particular case where crown land were sold or leased to private

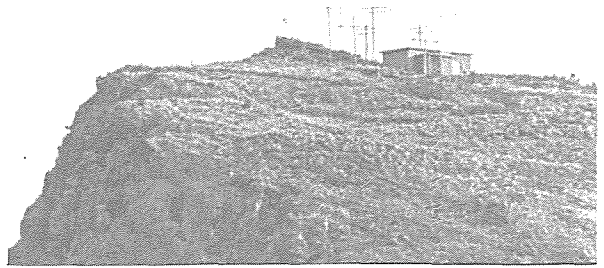
interests or where crown land came into private ownership by an exchange of land.

The biggest threat to the preservation of the scenic amenity of the Port Hills is, therefore, government development. Hence it is important that government agencies are controllable within the area desired to be protected. However it is not necessary for local legislation to effect such control. If there was general legislation for the control of government development against environmental intrusion, this could be extended, if necessary, to include the Summit Road. No such legislation exists. If it did, such controversies as the Manapouri issue need never have arisen.

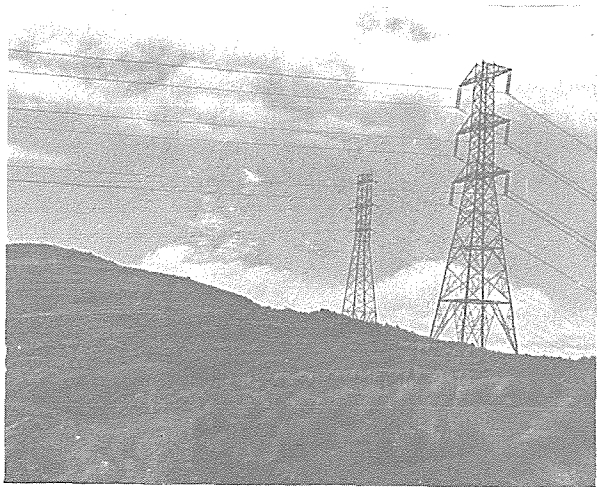
Since there is no control over government works and until there is, the regional authority could reasonably be given such power without undue national harm for two reasons. Firstly, by its very nature it is charged with the conservation of resources, which can, of course, include the protection of amenity. It is also charged with the co-ordination of essential services which can include the efficient promotion of such services as communications installations and electric power distribution. Secondly, the Summit Road Act makes adequate provision for final approval for appeal to the government-appointed Town and Country Planning Appeal Board.

A difficulty arises in any attempt at control of development for which government departments are responsible, ostensibly on the basic principle that "the crown" should not be bound by a local authority. But a distinction can be made here between "the government" and "the crown". There can be no argument against central government being superior to local government. Various works, however, are carried out in the name of "the crown" and the responsibility for them rests with government departments, but they are in fact, works of public utility nature which could equally well be managed by private undertakings (and are in certain countries). The right of a local authority to modify or even prohibit works of this nature in the public interest cannot reasonable be regarded as an interference in the government of the country.

The regional authority has, therefore, pursued a policy of trying to bind the crown to the provisions of the Summit Road Act. A clause to this effect was included in the original bill when it came before parliament in 1963. The bill was introduced in late August of that year with a general election due in November. By October



Government works – communications station.



Government works – power pylons.

it was obvious that if the bill was not brought forward for its second reading immediately there would be little chance of the legislation being passed for perhaps the best part of a year. Pressure was exerted by the regional authority and local M.P.'s, but the Local Bills Committee would only allow the bill to proceed if the clause binding the crown was deleted. Because it felt that legislation to declare the protected area could not be delayed the regional authority accepted the amendment and the act was passed accordingly on 22nd October, 1963. Protection of the Summit Road and the Port Hills skyline was assured – but not so far as the actions of government departments were concerned. It was pointed out at the time that the authority could come back at a later date and seek amendment to the act.

It soon became apparent that the regional planning authority's concern was well founded as the scenic amenity was threatened by two proposals, one to erect a television transmitter and the other a v.h.f. radio station. In both cases, however, the regional authority was able to influence the agencies concerned to modify their proposals so that the effect on visual amenity was considerably reduced.

Eighteen months after the Summit Road Act came into force steps were initiated to have the act amended so that its provisions would be binding on the crown. As in the case of the original bill, the Member of Parliament for Lyttelton, Mr N.E. Kirk, agreed to introduce the amendment. At the hearing of the Local Bills Committee, it became apparent that the clause that "this act shall bind the crown" had little hope of success. In his submissions the chairman of the authority suggested an alternative:-

"Any proposals for public works in the area to which this act applies for which the crown has any financial or other responsibilities shall be submitted to the authority for comment at the earliest possible stage, and all such proposals for public works shall take into account at the design stage the natural features of the area, and shall be designed in such a way as to cause the least possible damage to the scenic amenities of the area."

When the bill was reported back to the House it contained the following amendment inserted by the Local Bills Committee:-

"Any public work for which the crown has any financial or other responsibility and which is proposed to be undertaken on any land in the area to which this act applies, or on the land coloured

yellow on the plans referred to in section 4 of this act, shall be discussed by the appropriate officers of the crown with the authority with a view to securing the approval of the authority for such public work before that public work is commenced."

The difference between these suggested amendments is twofold. First, the regional authority's intention was to make the act operative over the crown land area as well as private land, whilst that of the committee retained the distinction. Secondly, the authority's suggestion was that any proposals for government works be submitted to it before they got to the design stage, whilst the committee's amendment implied that the authority's role was merely a rubber stamp to a final design proposal.

Following lengthy debate in Parliament the bill was passed in its amended form as recommended by the Local Bills Committee. The second attempt to bind the crown had failed but a slight gain had been achieved. The legislation in this respect remains the same today but it has always been a live issue and whether for this reason or not there has been every attempt by governments departments to show willingness to consult. In consultation, however, the discussion has only been in respect of firm proposals with the department concerned indicating the limits of the field within which modification could be considered. But consultation alone cannot prevent a rash of undesirable development occurring and for this reason the regional authority must continue to press for more positive control.

It is interesting to note that although this was a local bill and therefore supposedly subject to a free vote, when it came to the question of whether or not the crown should be bound, the National Government both in 1963 and again in 1965 voted against whilst the Opposition voted in favour. Whether or not this indicates a point of basic difference in Labour and National Party thinking, an interesting sidelight in 1968 certainly smacks of party shenanigan. The regional authority had sponsored a further amendment to the act to extend the powers to include quarrying. The amendment passed its second reading with no debate and a week later before a committee of the whole house the member for Lyttelton, now Leader of the Opposition, moved an amendment to the bill to include a new sub-clause adding at the end of the definition of "structure" the words "whether initiated and/or undertaken by or on behalf of any government department". There was no debate and

the bill was reported with the amendment included.

Before the bill came up for its third reading someone on the government benches had become aware of the subterfuge, if that was what it was, with the result that a further committee debate ensued with government members claiming they hadn't heard what Mr Kirk had said when moving the amendment; that the way in which he had done it was a cunning act; and that he was "trifling with the crown". Mr Kirk retorted that government members hadn't known what was going on the previous week and still didn't know what was going on; that parliament's will should not be set aside by the Minister of Electricity; and that events indicated that parliament was a rubber stamp in the hands of cabinet. This made good copy for the newspapers. The outcome was that after two further lengthy debates in the house the bill was approved in its original form.

The fourth and latest attempt to introduce legislation to bind the crown in respect of government works on the Port Hills was in June, 1970. The 1969 election still left the National Party in power with a narrow majority but there was a new Labour member for Lyttelton — Mr T.M. McGuigan to whom was entrusted the task of introducing the amendment bill. The bill got no further than the committee stages although it appeared on the order paper for over four months.

So, although a good deal of progress has been made towards protecting a small part of the natural environment in Canterbury, the Summit Road area is still not secure from depredations which can occur by the hand of government departments. The record of events in the four attempts to have the crown bound by the Summit Road Act makes interesting reading in Hansard. Every device in parliamentary debate appears to have been used at some time or other but the "free" vote on these local bills has always finished on party lines. Perhaps another attempt to achieve what the regional authority considers desirable should be made when a Labour Government is in power. Whether it would succeed or not is highly problematical.

## RECENT LAW

*Ubi jus ibi remedium* in question

The judgment of McMullin J. in *Attorney-General and Robb v Mt Roskill Borough Council and another* given on 14 May 1971 involved two issues of general interest. They were the validity of a very general dispensing power reserved to the Council by the ordinances included in its district scheme, and the exercise of the discretionary powers of the Court in relation to an application for injunction and certiorari.

The Court was asked for a declaration that the ordinance was invalid, an injunction against the Council restraining it from continuing to permit the erection of a house, and certiorari to quash the purported modification of the scheme and the building permit. Though the declaration sought was made, the other relief claimed was refused on the ground that the loss suffered by the second plaintiff was negligible. Costs were awarded against the Council, but these and the declaration of invalidity were likely to be seen by the second plaintiff as inadequate. He is left in a situation where the Court, having denied the validity of the ordinance on the basis of which the building permit was issued, has nonetheless done nothing to prevent the building being completed in accordance with that permit. Mr Robb could perhaps be excused for questioning the adequacy of a legal system which recognises the invalidity of the authority under which action has been taken but takes no steps to prevent the consequences of that invalidity.

Ordinance 13, under which the Council acted, is understood to have a counterpart in other district schemes. It provided: "*Modifications of Bulk & Location Requirements* The Council may, in the case of any particular site either absolutely or conditionally, modify or dispense with any one of more of the bulk and location requirements prescribed in Ordinance 9, if it is satisfied that:

- (a) it is not reasonable or practicable to enforce those requirements in respect of that site; and
- (b) the modification or dispensation will not detract in any substantial way from the amenities of adjoining properties of the neighbourhood generally.

*Provided however, that:*

nothing in this ordinance shall prevent the Council from proceeding under and exercising its powers under Ordinance 8 whether or not any application to exercise the powers conferred by the ordinance or any of them has been made or dealt with.” The Court declared that

The effect of Ords. 2 and 9 is that, unless the Council exercises its dispensing power under Ord. 13, a property owner in an area zoned as Residential A cannot build closer to the road frontage than 33 feet.”

Initially, the chairman of the Town Planning Committee, presumably pursuant to the Town and Country Planning Act 1953, s.4 (1) (a) (ii), granted the second defendant permission to build his house closer to the front boundary than 33 feet, as prescribed in Ordinance 9. The Council subsequently confirmed the dispensation.

It was argued that the Ordinance was *ultra vires* in that it was repugnant to the Act and particularly to those provisions which call for notice and provide an opportunity for those affected to state their objections before approval is given to a departure from an operative scheme. This argument was accepted by the Court which, while recognising that some discretionary power must be reserved under a district scheme, found Ordinance 13 too broad in that the Council could, for example have waived both the density and height requirements set by the scheme without allowing an opportunity for objection.

Even the Statutes Amendment Act 1945, s.2(2), which recognises that discretionary authority may be conferred by a “regulation” assuming that it applied to a district scheme and to ordinances, could not save provisions which were repugnant to the Act under which they were made. There are obvious similarities between the effect of the By Laws Act 1910, S13, as to the reservation of dispensing powers and the Statutes Amendment Act 1945, s.2(2). Neither will support the delegation of legislative power (*Hawkes Bay Raw Milk Producers’ Cooperative Co., Ltd. v New Zealand Milk Board (1961) N.Z.L.R. 218*) or presumably the delegation of judicial authority. Repugnancy to the enabling Act will invalidate both a regulation and a by law. Even the conferment of wide discretionary authority without guidelines as to its exercise may, quite apart from repugnancy, be seen to be *ultra vires*. A by law would clearly be invalid on this ground despite s.13. A similar conclusion in relation to a “regulation” would appear to be justified.

J.F. Northey.

## RECENT LAW

*CASE NOTE: S.J. Booth and Others v. Wairarapa South County Council – No. 1 Town and Country Planning Appeal Board. Hearing 12/11/70, decision 19/2/71.*

An interesting ordinance from a part of the country where interesting ordinances are commoner than might be expected gave the No. 1 Town and Country Planning Appeal Board under the chairmanship of Mr A.R. Turner S.M. an opportunity to strike a blow for those who would like to see standards expressed otherwise than in feet and acres and the like.

The ordinance dealing with subdivisions in rural zones included no such standards but only a requirement that, in the case of subdivisions for farming purposes, the resulting area be capable of being used as an independent economic unit, based on the productivity or potential productivity of the soil. Proper evidence of the suitability of the area, and that the new allotment is likely to be used for the type of farming use proposed, is required.

Overriding all this, consent could be refused where there was likely to be an un-economic demand for any public service, unreasonably interference with traffic, or prejudice to foreseeable future economic use of the land for urban purposes. Joint Family Home subdivisions are provided for and subdivisions for other uses approved as conditional uses or specified departures will be permitted if the area and frontage is appropriate for the proposed use. Demand for public services and traffic must be considered here, too.

The appellants’ principal objection was that there were no minimum standards in terms of feet, acres or perches, so that the ordinance was unreasonable and uncertain. Under sections 18 and 21 and the Second Schedule of the Town and Country Planning Act 1953, and referring to *Chandler and Co. v. Onehunga Borough Council 1966 NZLR 397*, the Board could see no reason why particular cases could not be left for the council as the elected representatives of the district to decide seeing that the ordinance appeared to provide the best means of control. The Board upheld that standards could be stated in terms of economics instead of arbitrary minima expressed in acres or perches. According to the



decision "It is a case of adopting the method or technique which will most effectively tend to promote in the public interest the best use of rural land and to achieve the general purpose of the district scheme."

The Board, however, did see advantage in a mandatory council hearing for an applicant and required it to be incorporated in the ordinance (but a right of appeal to the Appeal Board could only be given under the statute, it was pointed out.) It was also suggested, though, that S.35 could be availed of for obtaining a review of the case before the Board.

An interesting subsidiary point was that the Appeal Board deferred making a formal order in terms of the decision for six weeks, so that the appellants would have an opportunity for applying for a case to be stated for the Supreme Court on any matter of law raised by the appeal. That is, it in effect gave the appellants a right of appeal to the Supreme Court on a point of law.

It is also interesting, and perhaps significant, that the same Board had already shown an inclination to think along these lines in at least one other case. In *Hussey v Waimairi County Council* 3 NZTCPA 258, decided about three months earlier, the Board was dealing with a less desirable ordinance where uncertainty had been created by hedging a fixed standard with various possible exceptions including an overriding power to refuse. However in the course of the decision the Board did make this statement: "The criterion for rural subdivision should not be an arbitrary minimum standard area for the whole of a County requiring a departure from the scheme for any subdivision below that minimum. Rather each subdivision should be judged on its merits according to soil classification and the minimum of land of that type necessary to constitute an economic unit for the kind of farming for which the locality is best suited."

D.R. Hall.

#### Late publication

We regret the delay in publication of this issue. Our printer's move to new premises made a hold-up unavoidable.

Susan Niculescu

## Research problems

### Problems of Sociologically-Oriented Architectural Research

The problems can be divided into five groups or levels of generality. Firstly there are problems general to all research. Then there are problems specific to interdisciplinary research and problems of research in new fields. Finally there are problems specific to sociological research and problems specific to sociologically oriented architectural research.

#### Problems general to all research

There are four problems general to all research. The first of these is the need to assume the existence of a world distinct from the self. This is an old problem in philosophy and there is a well-known school of philosophers, the solipsists, who argue that there is no proof of the existence of a world distinct from the self. This question cannot be proved or even tested. One side, or the other, has to be assumed. At this general level this problem may seem unimportant, but applied to the process of perception, suddenly the solipsistic argument seems 'real'. Consider a person observing a designed environment. Obviously the 'image' that the person receives is, in part, mechanically reproducible (as in a photograph). But the 'image' is rather more than a mechanical reproduction. The 'image' also includes interpretation. A very common interpretation is from the two-dimensional reproduction on the back of the eyeball to a three-dimensional world

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'out there'. However, a considerable amount of interpretation takes place of which we are not aware and, of course, interpretation can always go wrong. So we have no reason to believe that what we see is what is there. Hence the full impact of the solipsistic quandary.

The second problem is the need to assume that this world (which is distinct from the self) is observable. This assumption raises two issues. Firstly the relativity of different points of view and secondly the uncertainty of the effect of observation on the phenomenon observed. We can never know exactly how someone else sees something or exactly what effect our observation has on the phenomenon we are observing. We have to assume that both the difference in point of view and the act of observation do not substantially alter the phenomenon observed. This is a much more vulnerable assumption than "the existence of a world distinct from the self" because it is very often challenged. For research purposes it is of great importance to keep these assumptions in mind and to attempt to continually ensure that the act of observation or the point of view adopted do not substantially alter the phenomenon observed.

The third problem is the need to assume that this world (which is distinct from the self) is worth observing. Whether research is worthwhile or not is a question of value and thus is not 'proveable' one way or the other. However, reasons for research are often put forward to justify the expenditure of 'scarce resources' such as time, money, and manpower. Such reasons often claim that the value of knowledge lies in its scarcity; it too becomes a scarce resource. This idea of the 'scarce resource' nature of knowledge is quite false and potentially very harmful. Knowledge is not a scarce resource in the sense that it is not a quantifiable commodity. It is not possible to deplete knowledge in the same manner that an oil field may be depleted. Knowledge is such that the whole is not necessarily equal to the sum of its parts. The apparent quantifiable nature of knowledge exists merely in the quantifiable nature of the 'scarce resources' used to obtain the knowledge. Even the so-called 'scarce resources' are not as scarce or as quantifiable as they appear. The amount of money, for example, in a community depends not only on the total of all the various sums of money around but also on the rate with which money changes hands.

The fourth problem general to all research

is how to communicate the theory or hypothesis most effectively. If the theorist and the person with whom he is communicating agree on the basic assumptions there is no problem. If, however, the assumptions are not explicitly stated then the theorist and his audience may appear to agree on the basic assumptions when in fact they do not. This situation is very common and gives rise to the interminable circular arguments usually associated with academia. The third possibility is that the theorist and his audience openly disagree on the basic assumptions. In such a situation the audience can be 'helped' to understand the theory in three ways. The theorist may appeal to the 'common sense' of the audience; he may use the audience's belief in his ability; or, finally, he may use physical threat and coercion. In our present-day western society (and especially in the discipline of architecture) we usually use the second alternative. This constant appeal to the audience's belief in the ability of the theorist has several very harmful effects. These harmful effects all arise from the one central issue; constant appeal to the audience's belief makes the ability of the theorist into a concrete fact. This reification of ability implies that the theorist has a special relationship with 'knowledge': a relationship which is only attainable by a select few. This alienates the audience from the creation of 'knowledge'. This issue of reification and thus alienation is the root of such problems as "the scarcity of knowledge myth" and "the use of jargon". (Also, incidentally, the root of the fixed class system, and a considerable number of mental disorders).

The first alternative (the appeal to common sense) is, potentially, the least alienating, most personal, means of persuasion. It can, however, also be used in a highly alienating manner. If the appeal to common sense is made without empathy it can become as alienating as an appeal to the belief in the ability of the theorist. The third alternative (the use of physical threat and coercion) is also, potentially, not an alienating means of persuasion. As used in a family situation (say slapping an annoying child) it is not at all alienating. It becomes alienating when it is institutionalised (as in war). What is harmful about the use of physical assault is not the actual physical assault but rather that it is impersonal and for superficial reasons.

Thus to most effectively communicate a hypothesis the assumptions must be stated. If

they are not agreed upon one of three courses may be taken. However, as Scott Greer has remarked, "In short, when discourse fails war takes over. The argument goes to the biggest battalions."

### **Problems specific to interdisciplinary research**

The second group of problems are those specific to interdisciplinary research. They are all associated with one factor: the lack of common background of the people involved in the research. This factor highlights several problems inherent in research in general but usually only noticed as problems in interdisciplinary research.

The first problem is the use of jargon. This is not so noticeable among people of similar training or background as it is among people from different disciplines. The problem of jargon emphasises the necessity for lucidity and the simple use of words. It also indicates the potential for the copious use of such simple devices as analogies and examples.

The other problem is the hidden assumption or 'self-evident truth'. Any theory assumes certain unprovable ideas and builds upon these in a logical fashion. If these assumptions are not stated then discussion of the theory is often reduced to an argument about the 'self-evident truths' upon which it is based. Such assumptions must be explicitly stated and agreed upon before the theory is discussed.

### **Problems of research in new fields**

The third group of problems are those associated with research in new fields. These can be broadly divided into two types: general problems of pioneering research and problems associated with research method in new fields.

There are three general problems. The first is that there is a lack of qualified people with whom the research may be discussed. This very rapidly produces an unreal feeling of total intellectual isolation. Which, in turn, gives the research an appearance of meaninglessness. This is, of course, very depressing but the depression can be greatly relieved by understanding the cause. The second problem is the lack of role definition. This problem has two parts. Firstly the organisation may not have a slot for a researcher and, if the organisation is fossilized, a slot for the researcher may be hard to create. This occurred in the Housing Division of the Ministry of Works in Wellington recently where a sociological researcher was employed

as a draughtsman until the necessary organisational changes could be made. Secondly, having created a slot for a researcher, the members of the organisation will still be unsure of what to expect from a researcher. This became very obvious in some research I did recently in Auckland. (This situation was doubly unfortunate in that I, as the apprentice researcher, was also unsure of what a researcher could do.) The third problem is the difficulty of obtaining finance. Research is totally unprofitable at the beginning, thus it is hard to find finance for research except from a non-profit organisation such as a government department.

There are three problems associated with research method in new fields. The first is the lack of methodological precedent. There are no 'routine methods' except on the most general level. This can be an advantage because it means that even the most simple research is intriguing. In a well established field (such as chemistry, for example) there is a vast amount of mundane (in the sense of routine) research going on all the time. The second problem is the lack of an accepted theoretical framework in which to place the research hypothesis. This leads to the third problem which is whether to tackle a broad field superficially (and thus largely speculatively) or a narrow one in depth (and thus without a broader theoretical context). Preferably research in a new field should advance on both levels at once. However, in practice, most researchers pick one level and ignore the other.

### **Problems specific to sociological research**

The fourth group of problems are those associated with sociological research. There are two problems in this group. The first is the difficulty of obtaining research funds, to employ people to gather and process data. This problem is largely only associated with research in universities and other government-financed organisations. It is, nowadays, fairly common practice to obtain finance for the purchase of material equipment. The 'purchase' of something as immaterial as man-hours, specialist skills, or even raw data is, however, rather more difficult to obtain. The second problem is the lack of "hard cold fact" type answers provided by sociological research. This is particularly difficult for the financier (who is paying "hard cold cash") to understand. Very often what is required by the financier is social survey work rather than sociological research. That is, the financier often requires census or opinion-poll type

data, not a well tested hypothesis. The provision of theoretical results (whether explanatory or predictive) can be disconcerting to one who expected a pile of data. Sociological research is not centrally concerned with counting (whether counting objects or opinions) but rather with the understanding of phenomena. The kind of results to be expected are not merely "70% of New Zealanders prefer to live in detached suburban homes" but rather "a belief in familism as a way of life implies a preference for detached suburban houses."

#### Problems specific to sociologically-oriented architectural research

The fifth group of problems are those specific to sociologically-oriented architectural research. There are two problems in this group. The first problem is the lack of theory shared between sociology and architecture. Until very recently the two disciplines have to a great extent not only ignored each other but also have not even been interested in common ideas. Sociologists have, from the beginning of the century, been interested in location as a social variable. Not only the location of cities (which Weber studied) but also, more recently the location of various groups of people within the city (studied by Shevsky, Williams, Bell, Burgess and the Chicago School of Ecology from the 1920's onward). Architects have always been interested in people but they have never attempted to theorise. Also they have never admitted the right of an "uneducated" person to respond to the environment in his own way. Recently, owing to the repeated failure of many large scale housing projects, it has been increasingly obvious that the architect and planner desperately need a theory of the inter-relation between people's behaviour patterns and the designed environment. It is also becoming more obvious that response to the environment is no less 'real' because it is from an aesthetically "uneducated" person.

The second problem is that architecture is not an academic discipline in the usual sense. Architects do not use (or train their apprentices to use) the analytic method of thought. The practice of architecture is based on synthetic thought. The end product is a solution. Sociology and other research-oriented disciplines are mainly analytic in method of thought. The end product is a

Malcolm Latham

## Section 18 and corporate planning

Frequently quoted, but not always applied, Section 18 of the Act is the corner stone of town planning legislation in New Zealand. Without it, or something very like it, the discipline which our Institute professes and the contribution which its members set out to accomplish would both be the poorer.\*

Section 18 is one of the few sections of the Act to have remained unchanged for the life of the 1953 legislation. Under the umbrella of its very complete common sense, planning schemes developed from Section 18 have moved from small tentative beginnings to third generation complex policy and technical instruments whose power, long dormant, is now both recognised and challenged by ever more articulate spokesmen. Nominally at least, the Section 18 ideals are part of the policy language of the communities whose planned growth and change they provide and aspiration for.

That there is still a long way to go is apparent in many ways. Not the least of these would be the observation that during the whole of the past 17 years both the interpretation of Section 18 and the planning work actually done in New Zealand local government have emphasised physical development. There has been only a varying degree of lip service paid to its social and economic bases.

Although the newer district and regional schemes in New Zealand have broken with the

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\* S.18 of the Town & Country Planning Act 1953 reads in full:

Every district scheme shall have for its general purpose the development of the area to which it relates (including, where necessary, the replanning and reconstruction of any area therein that has already been subdivided and built on) in such a way as will most effectively tend to promote and safeguard the health, safety, and convenience, and the economic and general welfare of its inhabitants, and the amenities of every part of the area.

continued page 29

earlier, almost complete, dependence upon the elaboration of the physical state, most urban planning in the country is still predominantly concerned with the "what" rather than the "how". The physical development plan or the district scheme has tended to become the end product of a long and complicated planning process rather than the means towards whatever goals are judged to be desirable by the authority doing the planning. Much of the Act, of course, derives from, and directs itself to, the nature of physical development, which view is further substantiated by the nature and contents of both schedules and the regulations

Most local government planning departments, I would venture to suggest, have as their prime present functions the administration of district or regional schemes and the creation of other physical development plans that may be found necessary or desirable. Yet their production is only part of the real requirements that are the ideals of Section 18 and only half the job that I think Section 18 intends, as I will attempt to show.

Even as recently as 1969-70 we have seen the severance of physical planning from economic and social planning emphasised in the quite separate treatment given to each part by the National Development Conference (the Social and Cultural sector has yet to produce its contribution).

The recommendations from the Physical Environment Conference are good and necessary but there seems little appreciation yet of the essential link among physical, social and economic changes. Some of the recommendations of the conference are in direct and open confrontation with those of the economic sector (the N.D.C. proper). For example, it was the deliberations of the N.D.C. that resulted in the regional development study undertaken by the Institute of Economic Research. The study was primarily economic in its focus. Yet recommendation 153 of the Physical Development Conference calls for equivalent research of which the primary focus is physical and social. There is a high probability that this research, if ever undertaken, would result in conclusions opposed to those of the Regional Development (economic) study. In planning, at least, the independent evolution of separate goals will foster their continued confrontation. Something more is needed.

### Policy analysis

Now consider Section 18 as two halves,

which it really is. The first half places a distinct emphasis upon physical planning:

"Every district scheme shall have for its general purpose the development of the area to which it relates (including where necessary the replanning and reconstruction of any area therein that has already been subdivided and built on) . . . . ."

It is from this root that the traditional physical planning unit has developed in the form of the planning unit in New Zealand local government today. Its primary job is to make wise physical development plans.

It is hard work to make wise development plans and I would not wish to discredit either the task or the better performances that have been shown. But the law is elaborate and comprehensive in its outline, if not entirely resolved in its detail; town planning practice in the authorities that are out in front is well developed; acceptance of town planning regulations, if not welcomed by all, is subscribed to by most. As an idea in practice, town planning as it is known is healthy and functioning and well past its nadir in New Zealand. The coverage of the country by district schemes will fill out and their quality will improve. The profession will grow as will its respect and the wisdom of its judgment. The town planning viewpoint will become more apparent and its practitioners more expert. We can look forward to a day when solidity, stability and security characterise the profession.

That is a lot to look forward to, of course, but I refuse to believe that that is all there is to it. What I've outlined requires no great imagination to conjure up. It is the establishment view of the establishment in prospect.

In the meantime, a great many things will be going on in which we, as planners, have very little say but which affect us mightily. In my limited experience planners in local government have little influence in such fundamental tasks as setting community development goals, ranking priorities for capital expenditure, creating working capital budget programmes (the 3-5 or 6 year kind) or advising on development policy issues involving many specialist parts of a corporation. I am not saying that planners are excluded from these deliberations; merely that the present administrative local government organisation in New Zealand does not consciously pursue policy planning as an expertise in itself (or if it does, then at only a very primitive level). Nor, lest I



be accused of empire building, do I say that planners ought to control this aspect of local authority business. What I am saying is that I believe there is a need for strengthened central management in local authority administration, especially on the main policy planning issues and I believe that planners have a role to play in policy planning.

### Local government structure

While not pretending intimate knowledge of the structure of New Zealand local government organisations, the stereotype is fairly straightforward in its block organisation. There are several departments which correspond to the main operational functions the authority is charged with; there are a number of committees roughly paralleling these departments (although some departments are responsible to more than one committee) and there is the council. Servicing the whole with varying degrees of central administrative co-ordination and direction are a number of parts of which the core is a central clerical and accounting function. At the head of the administration is a town clerk whose functions nominally approach those of corporate general manager but whose defined authority is much less than his industrial cousin enjoys.

At the council-committee level there is no central committee charged solely with examining and recommending major policy in the whole organisation. At the staff level there is no control group assessing and suggesting policy alternatives, evaluating and recommending chosen possibilities.

These are generalisations and I know there are some authorities in which various aspects of central administrative control is further developed than others. All the same I think my comments valid as a general criticism and can point to no authority which effectively disproves the lack of intensive corporate evaluation of major policy issues at the council level, backed by full-time highly qualified corporate planning staff whose task it is to project the competitive effects of the various policy courses the council might follow in resolving the major issues before it.

I think these are severe weaknesses in local government administration. We have a council-committee structure that places councillors in ludicrously different positions on major policy depending upon which committee the issues comes up through. They are frequently without any corporate guidance because in place

of corporate goals is an ad-hoc collection of departmental-committee policies that will come into increasing conflict as the issues cross more departmental-committee boundaries and their expedient solution is no longer acceptable as the best available standard of public policy making. Separate policies were fine for the days when things could be done in relative isolation from each other; without much impact upon each other; when issues and projects were simpler; when the scale was smaller. But things are different now.

Much has been written recently of the increasing frequency of first-time novel problems and situations that the traditional, monolithic administrative bureaucracy either can not solve or has great difficulty in dealing with. More problems in public policy making are crossing the previously watertight functional boundaries. More frequently we will find that the only effective solutions to the problems urban government is faced with are those arrived at by teams of specialists whose entire focus and orientation is to the project in hand and not to the administrative hierarchies which employ them.

### Identification of goals and objectives

In these circumstances, there is a critical need for a strong central policy-making arm of the organisation which can devote its entire energies to projecting the impact of present policies, can bring some order into the chaotic state of long term (3-5 years) local government financial planning, and can apply the best available talent towards the evaluation of different corporate goals. It is in these areas that planners can claim some of the abilities that fit them to the task. More than that, it is a requirement of the planner that he contributes to this purpose. Consider Section 18 again but this time, with the emphasis and the order reversed:

“In such a way as will most effectively tend to promote and safeguard the health, safety and convenience and the economic and general welfare of its inhabitants and the amenities of every part of the area, (every district scheme shall . . . . .)”

That is a different picture. That is a reference to “how” rather than “what”, to means rather than ends. Here, there are broad human goals which in turn are capable of supporting policies, objectives and proposals. For example, Section 18 of the Act calls upon the planning authority to effectively promote everyone’s

economic welfare. If this were translated into a goal statement we might read it as follows:

*“Goal: To maximise the economic welfare of all citizens of the district.”*

The goal is too broad to carry any specific meaning but if a set of policies is worked out to carry progress towards that goal, then the following might be a typical example:

*“Policy: To concentrate more financial resources upon the task of housing renovation within the district.”*

Once again the policy needs to be supported by more specific objectives. A further typical example might be:

*“Objective: To create a fund of \$250,000 within three years which would be administered for the purposes of housing renewal.”*

At this stage the meaning of the goals and the policies created under them is becoming clearer and the supporting actions more precise. It is a relatively easy step from here to the proposals which would help seek the objectives which arise from the policies that in turn are drawn from the goals. A typical proposal could be:

*“Proposal: To offer in suitable cases and within designated renewal areas, an interest free suspensory loan not exceeding \$5,000 for the renovation of existing residential properties.”*

A similar progression from the general to the particular can be worked out for the other areas mentioned in Section 18 (in practice, of course, the progression is very often the other way and the abstractions of policies and goals are frequently more clearly arrived at by accumulating specific objectives and proposals beforehand).

The example shown develops financial objectives and proposals from policies and goals that are economic and social in nature. There is also of course a physical development manifestation. Each of these areas would be developed in context. The whole progression could just as easily have been an expression of physical development goals, policies, objectives and proposals. A moment's reflection would now show that with this reversal of the parts of Section 18, instead of being ends, the physical development plans (the preparation of which is the primary function of the traditional planning unit) now become means. The real ends are the goals that are contained in the second half of Section 18. Thus, more than physical development plans are needed. Parallel statements of economic and social development policies and plans are needed too, because

they are inseparable.

Little is yet practised at the district level to show the essential interdependence of social, economic and physical planning. The discharge of such an onerous responsibility demands that the principal planning function extends well beyond the capability for preparation of physical land use development plans. Yet expansion along the “line” function – increased technical complexity and competence within the physical land use planning activity – is insufficient to meet the demands. The challenge of Section 18 lies in its comprehensiveness and only strong co-ordinated effort by a whole administration, all parts of which are pervaded by the same goals, can offer the performance necessary. A goal that is not wholly subscribed to ultimately means a proposal not wholly implemented. Eventually dissipated effort and performance failures are the negative rewards that must follow lack of commitment.

It follows that achievement of objectives that flow from the goals described above demands a planning unit which is more than technically competent in its “line” functions (preparation of physical development plans etc.) The unit must be capable of influencing the corporate aims which in the absence of central administrative and policy level evaluation will tend to be disparate, conflicting and inefficient.

A new style planning unit operating more in a staff than a line function does seem essential if the true goals of the Act are to be pursued effectively in the future. The maintenance of a traditional land use planning unit is important and its future is not denied but this unit is incapable, at the level of activity and influence implied, of exerting sufficient pressure upon the process of selecting mid-to-long range corporate planning goals. The necessary position in any substantial business corporation belongs to the arm of top management that brings together the policy making skills in the entire organisation under strong central management. In New Zealand local government there is no such concentration of policy resources and nor is there any tradition of strong central management over the whole of the corporate activities. A corporate planning unit at the centre of policy making, able to advise upon the major issues of framing goals, selecting priorities and marshalling resources is not a whole answer but it is a part of an answer and one that appears to me to offer tantalising challenge to planners.

# Settlement patterns of occupational groups

## An Upper Hutt Study

Although the settlement distribution between different types of people within an urban area may reflect differing tastes in environment, it is likely to be strongly influenced by:

(a) The size of income available to a household for accommodation and, conjointly with it, for travel to work and to commercial and community facilities. Where the choice of residential localities includes areas of higher environmental quality than others in such terms as scenery, microclimate and accessibility, clearly the more amenable areas will on a competitive market attract a higher price and will tend to be pre-empted by those persons with the greatest income.

(b) The social aspirations or values, of the types of people amongst whom a household prefers, or is prepared to live. On the one hand can be expected a tendency for affluent sections of society to wish to avoid living amongst less affluent groups, particularly if the latter are also less educated. At the other extreme one would expect a tendency for a less affluent but relatively well educated family to aspire to live amongst well educated (and probably more affluent) groups. Minor inversions can also be expected amongst those whose means have improved and who could afford to move to a higher valued neighbourhood than their own but remain through family loyalties or local commitments.

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The following notes arise from a case study made in Upper Hutt of the extent to which segregation of groups of people can occur naturally in housing areas, on the basis of the occupation and income of householders; and the relation of such segregation to environment. This type of study was pioneered by Duncan and Duncan in Chicago and some comparisons will be made with their findings. In the Upper Hutt study, a further distinction was made by dwelling type and will be discussed separately.

The Chicago study showed a substantial difference in income between occupational groups and a broadly corresponding segregation of settlement. New Zealand on the other hand appears to convey an image at least overseas that there is little "class distinction" and that people of all walks of life typically live alongside each other. It was largely to test this concept that the Upper Hutt study was made.

### Significance of occupation on income

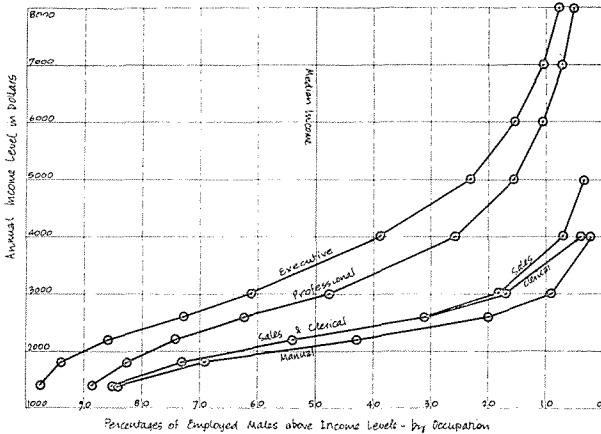
As shown in Table 1, occupations have a strong correlation with income in New Zealand and form a distinct general hierarchy. Indeed the order and relative scale is very similar to that found in Chicago. In both situations the executive and professional groups show very much higher median incomes than any other group, while the clerical and manual groups record higher incomes at less than two-thirds the respective executive figure. The only notable difference is that in New Zealand, sales workers are also recorded at this lower level whereas in Chicago they achieved a higher position intermediate in the scale.

TABLE 1. Male Income Structure – New Zealand 1966

Occupational Group	N.Z. Census Code	Index of Median Income
Executive (incl. Administrative)	1	100
Professional (incl. Technical)	0	84
Sales Workers	3	65
Clerical workers	2	65
Manual workers	7/8, Pt.6	60

As illustrated in Figure 1, there is also in New Zealand a progressive narrowing of income range down through the occupational scale, except insofar as the top-paid 3 per cent of the sales group attain appreciably higher earnings than their clerical counterparts. Almost 80 per cent of the former are insurance and

Figure 1. Income Range within Occupational Groups - New Zealand 1966



estate agents, and commercial and manufacturers' representatives, many of whom no doubt have practically an executive function. Indeed insurance and estate agents taken alone show an income range similar to the professional group. Similarly within the manual group, the building trades record an income range approaching that of the sales group as a whole.

It was impossible to obtain income data for Upper Hutt alone but the settlement study was limited to the broad occupational groups and no reason could be found to suggest any substantial divergence from the national income pattern at this general level. Settlement patterns were therefore analysed on this assumption.

### Division of study area by environment

The study area comprised the largely residential suburbs of Silverstream, Heretaunga and Trentham, and contained 1,080 houses and flats. Householders represented a wide range of occupations comprised of 40 per cent manual and 60 per cent non-manual workers. On the other hand, residents were almost all of one race (in this case British) and virtually all property was transacted on the commercial market. The composition of residents between each part of the area had not therefore been influenced by race or government letting policy. The area contained a diversity of environment in terms of elevation and outlook, areas of natural beauty, an unsightly and smoky brick works and an area of slight flood risk near the Heretaunga Stream. In all, the area was considered divisible into thirteen environmental localities of 70-130 households, offering ample basis for competition.

### Division of study area by land value

Residential properties were studied in terms of their land or "site" value, using the "unimproved" valuations of the Government Valuation Department. All sites in the study area carried the same residential zoning under the local district scheme with a common range of permitted uses, and values were compared between sites of the same size and residential use.

Three grades of land were clearly identifiable, each with a distinct and consistent level of value. An area of highest value corresponded with two elevated localities of Silverstream flanked and interspersed with native bush, lying well to the sun and with extensive views of bush clad hills. An area of lowest value corresponded predictably with the localities of the brick works and the Heretaunga Stream; and an area of medium value comprised flat localities with good accessibility but an undistinguished natural environment, and an elevated locality with views somewhat marred by the brick works. The three grades were therefore substantially environmental divisions and so provided a convenient basis for comparison of settlement patterns.

### Settlement patterns by land value

As illustrated in Table 2, occupation in order of income showed a firm relationship with the value of locality chosen for residence. Accordingly only a small proportion of executive and professional workers occupied low valued land. Again in line with the noted distinctions in income range, representation of sales and manual workers in the high valued areas was limited very largely to insurance and estate agents, sales representatives and building tradesmen, while clerical workers were notably absent. Not surprisingly, the pattern for women and retired men corresponded substantially to the overall average.

TABLE 2. Distribution of occupational groups by land value - Upper Hutt 1969

Occupation of householder (in order of national median incomes)	Lowest Valued Local. %	Medium Valued Local. %	Highest Valued Local. %
Male Executives, etc.	9.2	43.7	47.1
Male Professionals, etc.	12.0	48.8	39.2
Male Sales Workers	20.6	69.1	10.3
Male Clerical Workers	17.6	80.5	1.9
Male Manual Workers	22.7	73.4	3.9
Women & Retired Men	14.0	78.1	7.9

## Indices of comparison

Duncan and Duncan adopted two indices to compare areal settlement patterns. The first was an index of "dissimilarity" between any two occupational groups in terms of the percentage of one group which would have to relocate to make its distribution between localities proportionate to that of the other group. This index was calculated across the thirteen Upper Hutt localities and is recorded in Figure 2. In the Upper Hutt case the index was also inverted as a measure of "similarity" between any two groups and the principal values are illustrated in Figure 3. The two figures emphasise the respective coincidence of the highest earning and lowest earning occupational groups, and a distinct separation of the two except for a degree of settlement in executive and professional areas by the highest paid of the sales group. Duncan and Duncan reported a somewhat similar situation in Chicago but its executives and professionals were joined by more of the sales group and by a significant proportion of clerical workers. In view of the relatively high income position of the Chicago sales group its greater upward association is understandable, but the different patterns for clerical workers in the two studies is somewhat surprising with their income positions so similar. Duncan and Duncan ascribe the residential elevation of clerical workers in Chicago to their greater education than other workers of similar income, combined with evidence of preparedness to commit a larger proportion of income to housing; which could suggest that their New Zealand counterparts take a different attitude.

Duncan and Duncan's second index was that of "segregation", representing the index of dissimilarity between an occupational group and all others combined. This is expressed for Upper Hutt in Figure 4 and illustrates more directly the scale of separation at each end of the occupational scale, particularly with the higher earning groups.

Taking houses separately, the Upper Hutt pattern of indices was very similar to the gross situation. However for flats, apart from a high coincidence of executive and professional distributions, the areal pattern of occupations was slightly less determinate, very likely because rental and own-your-own flats were classed together.

## Conclusions

There are clearly sufficient distinctions in

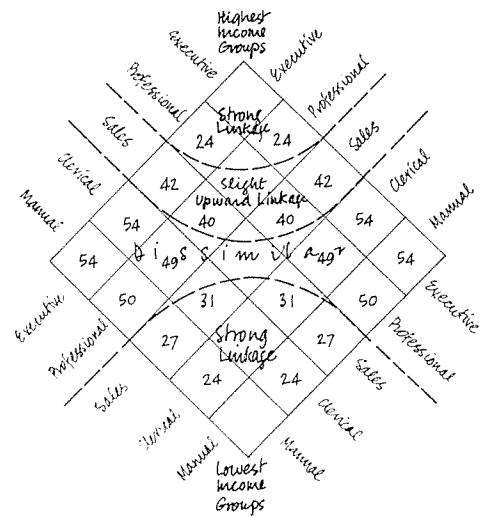


Figure 2. Index of Dissimilarity in Areal Distribution of Pairs of Occupational Groups - All Dwelling Types - Upper Hutt

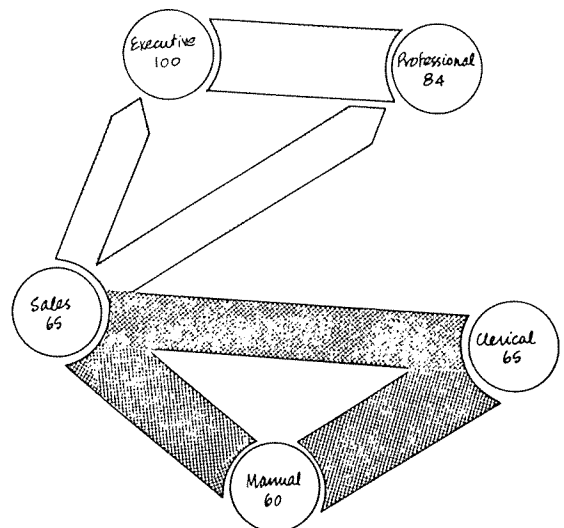


Figure 3. Principal "Similarities" in Areal Distribution of Pairs of Occupational Groups - Upper Hutt

Notes: "similarity" means the extent of linked distribution & is measured by the width of bars. The groups are arranged in order of index of median income (see values shown)

- Linkages with High-Earning Groups
- ▨ Linkages between Low-Earning Groups



New Zealand between the broad income positions of different occupational groups to cause a degree of segregation by residence where there is effective competition between localities of different environment and value. Such segregation was quite evident in the area studied and in general terms there appeared to be a distinct element of predictability between type of land and the section of the community which it attracted.

Before zoning land for residential growth, urban planners need to observe the local market reaction of different occupational groups to different types of residential land and should take the pattern into account in subsequent planning decisions. Although this particular case study illustrated an area containing a broad range of occupational and income groups within a single neighbourhood (sharing the same shops, primary school, kindergarten and churches), the Urban Expansion Working Party of the Physical Environment Committee has observed that this is not generally the situation and has suggested that a greater effort should be made to limit "blocks of like households" to "street groups" or less. The "broad spectrum of social and economic classes" sought by the Working Party is more likely to occur if individual neighbourhoods are zoned across a variety of environments, including land of sufficient quality to attract buyers from the "executive" and "professional" groups. Conversely, if a neighbourhood suffers a shortage of manual labour, the zoning of high quality land might best be deferred in favour of lands of lesser value.

In short, the whole strategy of residential zoning at both neighbourhood and metropolitan level needs to be seen in marketing terms if social and labour objectives are to be pursued

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2. *Wise's Post Office Directory, 1969-70*. H. Wise & Co., Dunedin; and *Parliamentary Electoral Roll, 1969 - Heretaunga* (for occupations of householders).
3. Valuation Department Records (as indexed by Wellington Regional Planning Authority).
4. O.D. & B. Duncan, "Residential Distribution and Occupational Stratification" (1949), *Studies in Human Ecology*. Ed. G.A. Theodorson, New York, 1961, pp.155-164.
5. Physical Environment Committee, *Report of the Working Party on Urban Development and Expansion for the Physical Environment Conference May 1970*. Government Printer, p.34, para.21.

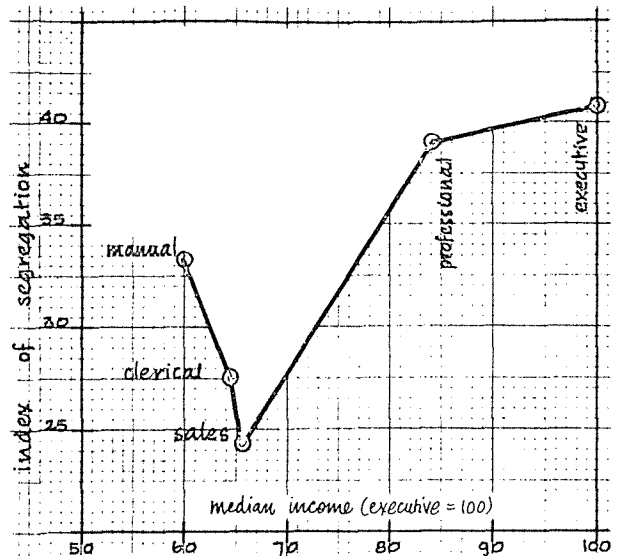


FIG. 4. INDEX OF SEGREGATION OF EMPLOYED MALES - UPPER HALF

#### Staff Vacancies

Both prospective employers and employees approach the Town Planning Department of the University of Auckland from time to time concerning employment opportunities.

This is the season of the year when students, especially, are beginning to weigh the prospects of private practice, versus central or local government, against further academic work or overseas exploration. The Town Planning Department is very happy to act as an employment agency and, to that end, employers may find it convenient soon to inform the department of their likely needs for 1972.

SUSAN NICULESCU (continued from page 22)

clearer understanding. It should not be inferred that sociology is purely analytic, (sociologists themselves have pointed out the impossibility of taking an amoral stance on numerous issues) or indeed that architecture is purely synthetic. Also, it should not be inferred that there is anything inherently right or wrong about the analytic or the synthetic method. Both have considerable merit. The important point is that the two methods of thought are essentially very different and that this difference provokes considerable problems.

The problems outlined above are only those of which, I personally, have become aware. There may be many others. These problems are, obviously, not insoluble. And, once they are clearly defined, they are well on the way to being solved.

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## Reviews

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**Decently and in Order: The Government of the City of Auckland 1840-1971.** G.W.A. Bush, Auckland: Collins, 1971. 637 pp. \$5.

No further attempt at amalgamation of the myriad of local government units within the Auckland region, or for that matter, in any other major New Zealand urban area, should fail for the lack of information on the evolutionary process of multi-functional urban government. The history of Auckland, which carries the misnomer title *Decently and in Order*, based on a biblical phrase that Dr Bush refers us to, is anything but in order, and except for the last thirty years or so, is a rather infamous comedy of local government, but this in turn raises the question: "What is democracy?" If ever the prince of the renaissance, Machiavelli, had been able to look at this history objectively, he certainly would have blushed with envy. The countless intrigues; the endless manoeuvres; the so-called consultations before the unanimous vote; the political gamble; each would be a lesson to the manipulators of humanity of that era.

Renaissance deuxième, but also our own age, could not better have been depicted by Bush, who in a concise account, truly reveals a city history where nepotism and personal enrichment are not uncommon features. If then some councillors did operate a utility system for which, in the public interest, they demanded compensation, one really wonders what type of democracy 20th century immigrant new town Auckland with its waves of depression and unemployment, had to offer.

It is clear from Dr Bush's account

that Auckland's democracy is at variance with the text book theories which clearly set out and define the role and function of a democracy based on a tiered system of government, regional government and local government, based, in turn, on statutory legislation and statutory authorised bylaws. One could speak perhaps of a diffused government! On the credit side, however, is the addiction to a reserve policy, induced under the Hobson instructions, which is the outstanding gain of the politically-sick Auckland of before the 1900s. No matter what the type of person, reserves were by everyone considered sacrosanct and the escapees of industrial England made them sacrosanct to such an extent that the present ratio of public open space per head of population on the isthmus is the highest in the Auckland region. No cheese-paring or skimpy policies for the setting aside of reserves, now so common under some other autonomous territorial bodies. Bush reveals this picture in quite a chatty way, accurately describing the character traits of the personalities but also the circumstances which made this Auckland's history.

Is this book without blemishes? Not altogether! For instance, the political cartoons are not befitting a book of this magnitude. Also Auckland's early history before 1870 is better depicted by McLintock's (1958) *Crown Colony of New Zealand*. McLintock is also better at describing the introduction of the legal-administrative system into the fabric of Maori civilization, but then Bush deals only with the Auckland of 1870-1970. Yet again this history is not as detailed as, for instance, Ian Cumming's (1959) *Glorious Enterprise* which deals with the history of Auckland's Education Board. However, if one really wants more detailed insight and information, a glance at the numerous reference sources, an act of intellectual honesty, constantly applied by Dr Bush, is a useful tool. Another blemish is the incorrect reference to the first introduction of Auckland's building bylaws stated to have occurred in 1871. The earliest building bylaws were promulgated in 1854 based on the authority given under the 1854

Auckland City Act. On the credit side, however, is the reference to the policy "one dwelling per lot" already required by the Remuera Board District of 1912. The present one dwelling per lot rule was believed to have been instituted under the 1925 Auckland City Building bylaws.

The end result is a picture which is supported by the technique of intense research of council minutes and press articles of the many directing the few in the execution of public works for which never sufficient funds are available and which, invariably, were carried out as relief work to alleviate unemployment. To call this Auckland a polis in a metropolis is hardly true and is some affront to our Hellenistic inheritance.

The usefulness of the book mainly lies in the field of public administration and political science, hence the introductory note in this critique on the amalgamation of local body territories. But the book carries the implied warning that we must guard against the irresponsible behaviour of elected representatives, who can seriously undermine the very institution of local government. The Auckland City Council has found in Dr Bush a wholehearted supporter of good local government and is to be congratulated on its choice.

— E.F. Schwarz

**(Kelly's) Summary of the Law Relating to Surveying in New Zealand, 4th ed.,** by B.H. Davis, 1971, 296 pp. (no publisher shown). \$6.00.

This edition is of similar content to the 1958 version, the only change being the addition of one chapter. In the absence of a preface or introduction one can only surmise the reasons for bringing out a fourth edition. Perhaps it is partly because the work is being carried on by its own momentum and partly because there is some demand from surveyors and students of surveying — although the surveying aspects have, if anything, been played down in this edition. It must have been difficult for the (unidentified) publishers or

promoters of it to decide whether to publish or not. Whatever their motives, there remains the question of the value of potted versions of topics, material on which is available elsewhere in more expansive and useful form. At the most they serve as introductions. They could not be used in practise because the treatment of them is too superficial. In some cases, little more than abbreviated excerpts of statutory provisions are given. Apart from a student having his very first look at the subject, who would be interested in this sort of treatment?

This comment applies particularly to the chapters on subdivision and town planning. For example, what use to anyone is a mere four lines on compensation under the Town and Country Planning Act, including no reference to the exceptions to the general rule of compensation for injurious affection?

By way of general comment, as potted versions of several of the topics dealt with are also now available in McVeagh's "Land Valuation Law", let us hope that any further similar publications for particular professions having fringe contacts with law are confined to new material. On the other hand the chapters on "Roads and Streets" and "Taking Land for Public Works" are useful because the subject matter has not been written up anywhere else and reasonable coverage of the subject can be given in a single character.

Much of the book has been reprinted from the previous edition with little change, although the statutory provisions, as far as can be seen, and as could be expected, have been checked and updated where necessary. The new edition did, however, reach its lowest point when it republished some "Selected Town and Country Planning Appeals". Unfortunately these were "selected" for the 1958 edition and are now of little significance. Appending the title of a further 15 or so more recent Appeal Board decisions of no clear merit above other possibilities, does not help the cause much.

As the new author is no doubt fully aware, no attempt has been made to refer comprehensively to even the most important up-to-date decided cases on the different topics

touched upon. The only real innovation is the first chapter "Introduction to Law", which, apart from the section on statutory interpretation, is new. It may be useful to persons approaching law for the first time, but even here it may be better to refer to a fuller work such as O'Keefe and Farrands "Introduction to New Zealand Law".

The author has been caught in a difficult situation as regards mining, with the new Bill having been in the air for some time but not coming to fruition. He has done the best he could, but the chapter is likely to be soon out of date. This raises the question of whether legal texts generally should be brought out in loose-leaf form for quick continual updating. This technique is used in a few cases — Rathkopf's "Law of Zoning and Planning", Heap's "Encyclopaedia of Planning Law" and Jolliffe's "Local Government Law in New Zealand", are examples — but these are the exceptions rather than the rule.

To sum up, readers of previous editions will know what to expect in terms of coverage. Except for one or two subjects that lend themselves to short exposition, the book will be useful only at a very elementary level.

— D.R. Hall

**Future Shock**, Alvin Toffler. London; Bodley Head; 1970. pp 504. \$5.85.

To ignore Toffler's book would be to invite the criticism that one lives in the past and lacks appreciation of this changing world. Yet to swallow it whole, "Future Shock" would cause more than indigestion; it would brand one as a captive of change for the sake of change — the future or bust. Thus, "Future Shock" compels: ignore it at your peril but if you do succumb, mind the trendy pitfalls.

Toffler says, on the last page, that "the basic thrust of this book is diagnosis" but in the introduction the author is less circumspect. Here, he offers a "broad new theory of adaption" which will "help us come to terms with the future" . . . . "by demonstrating a method" in a book which "sets out to change the reader in a subtle yet significant sense." My reading leaves me sure that the book is more descriptive than diagnostic, more concerned with counting innumerable facets of modern life than with analysing its structure. To planners, much of the material is old stuff and Toffler will seem like an articulate late starter in the planning game. The book tells us (yet again) of the "accelerative thrust" of change; the pace of urbanisation; the increasing mobility of technological society; the waste makers; the break down of monolithic organisations into ad hoc project oriented groups etc. Parts one and two combine much of what has been said before.

The theme is extended and enriched but somewhat overdone with a surfeit of descriptive example in parts 3 and 4. The subject is the rate of change and its manifestations. The message is that we are entering not a changed society but a new one which Toffler labels "super industrial" and which he endows with the characteristics of transience, novelty, over-choice and fragmentation of self, of family, of culture, of life. The characteristics are undeniable but I would argue with Toffler on the score of their penetration in society. He argues that change today is phenomenal; I would argue that Toffler exaggerates the phenomenon of change. My defence is probably more



reactionary than considered and it is frightening that time may prove Toffler an accurate prophet.

In part 5, "The Limits of Adaptability" the real core of the book is exposed. In a couple of far too short chapters amounting to only 35 of the 430 pages of actual text, Toffler discusses the physical and psychological dimensions of "Future Shock". This he defines as "the human response to overstimulation" or "the shattering stress and disorientation that we induce in individuals by subjecting them to too much change in too short a time". It is clear from the bibliography that there is an extensive literature in the medical sciences upon these problems but the material is new to me and, as the central theme, I would like it to have been more extensively aired.

The weakest part of the book is part 6; "Strategies for Survival" which offers no strategies and few isolated tactics, some of which are really very trite. Yet for all its rather pompous rhetoric and over-stated arguments "Future Shock" is a useful digest of the effects of rapid change and the results if society does not clarify its goals. That no new answers are presented might at least encourage planners to chalk-up a few more years (or is it days, now?) of life for the current game of goal - stating which we all enjoy even if none of us has been able to master.

While not essential reading for planners, "Future Shock" is easy going despite its length and those who do read it will emerge a little more knowledgeable about the changes it is our job to monitor and guide.

— Malcolm Latham

**The Effluent Society : Pollution in Australia.** D. Whittington. Sydney; Nelson. 1970. 160 pp. \$4.15.

Don Whittington has produced what appears to be an everymans' edition of the Senate Select Committee Reports on Pollution in Australia. He presents a Rachel Carson type expose of the problems of both air

and water pollution in a string of fascinating case histories illustrating how insidiously today's problems have crept up on Australia through indifference and insensitivity to environmental values. The style of writing could be monotonous for some, but there is no doubt that the material is highly suitable for public consumption and a veritable feast for the pollution conscious.

One wonders what lessons we in New Zealand can learn from this book. Bearing in mind that legislative and technical control of pollution in this country is well advanced compared to Australia we have yet no room for complacency. The "she'll be right mate" attitude of the "fair dinkum Aussie" is no less a Kiwi trait, and many of the examples given from across the Tasman have parallels here. This book will do us good in New Zealand if only to illustrate the infinite variety of ways in which pollution can influence the daily activities of every individual. Particularly it could well be compulsory reading at all political levels from ministers of the crown through MPs and local authority council members to backyard politicians.

— I.W. Gunn

**Conserving New Zealand's Heritage.** P.H.C. Lucas, Wellington, Government Printer, 1970; 94 pp. \$0.90.

With the support of a Winston Churchill Memorial Trust Fellowship Mr Lucas spent four months travelling the length and breadth of the United States and Canada investigating the ways Americans and Canadians express their concern for their national landscape and historical heritage. *Conserving New Zealand's Heritage* is the result of this study. With a thoroughness indicating considerable interest and insight he has compiled a comprehensive manual of much worthwhile information and ideas gathered from his firsthand experience.

The bulk (68 of 84 pages of text) of the report deals with the national parks, the remainder with employment of youth in special programmes such as the U.S. Job Corps; areas of special interest historically involving for example preservation

of a reconstructed western town or landmark battlefield; and the usefulness of international cooperation in park development and management.

Discussion of national parks includes: 1. National Parks and the Environment; 2 Planning; 3. Building, facilities and services; 4. Interpretation; 5. Finance; 6. Management; 7. Legal aspects of Park Management and Public Policy; 8. Concession Operations; 9. A National Park System. Every chapter summarizes general lessons for New Zealand.

The most striking observations are found in the chapters on Buildings, Facilities and Services, and Interpretation. The first describes the appropriateness of development details to the park experience: the small scale design elements such as signs, roads, building and utilities. The second describes the park service attitudes toward visitors as well as management's contribution to visitor understanding of not just facts but of natural principles of which the parks and all that they contain are examples. Visitors to North American parks were most impressed for example wherever they found courtesy and helpfulness of personnel, minimal development and interpretation of the landscape.

The park experience would be considerably weakened without the less visible foundations of planning and finance. Basic to all land use planning is the differentiation of land resources according to their usefulness to man, embodied in a land classification system. North American park classification systems are generally based on the nature and intensity of environmental disturbance. Without a knowledge of resource inventory the actual choice of a park or the development of its master plan would be fruitless. The master plan is actually a guideline for development rather than a detailed map. Its tools are policy statements and its creation is by a wide range of people.

Although separate, the chapter "A National Park System" could have added meaning if discussed in the context of a land classification system. The U.S. park system includes three series of parks based on nature, history and recreation. Implicit in a land

differentiation system is variety of approach and detail which contributes to an enriched and therefore more stable environment. Provision of historic centres, motorcar parkways, nature walks, bicycle trails, picnic and swimming, and other popular facilities alleviates overcrowding in sensitive wilderness areas and national parks where the essence of such areas often conflicts with these many popular enjoyments. Diversification of parks therefore should proceed according to the needs of the people and potentialities of the landscape.

The chapter on finance stresses two ideas: (1) that it is absolutely necessary to have a minimum of three years fiscal (as well as planning, design and development) programming for national programme success; (2) and that the parks generate increasing tourist income for services that the parks do not and should not provide (the basic conflict of interest between managing landscape and earning income) and therefore that it is the taxpayer and not the user who should pay nearly the full cost for the parks. As a long term reusable resource — in terms of tourist dollars — land in parks can often outproduce land in mines, hydroplants or individual sites.

Staffing procedures and qualifications contribute substantially to the quality of management and public relations rendered by the North American park services. Mr Lucas covers the national park system as well as individual park organisation. He also emphasises conditions of employment, seasonal help, and the importance of the university for staff training and research.

Mr Lucas has organised his report in typical manual style which is appropriate to the large amount of detail included and to his intended audience. This report should be on the required reading list for all those people involved in managing New Zealand's reserves on a local or national level. Legislators concerned with national economic growth will find it useful. The general public should be made aware of their responsibilities ranging from protecting historically unique areas and beautiful landscapes such as are found in numerous parts of the Coromandel

Peninsula and Northland, to the development of appropriate tourist facilities. As Mr Lucas nobly believes, New Zealand cannot afford not to learn from the mistakes and successes of others.

— R. Scott Pierson

**People and Planning: the sociology of housing in Sunderland** by Norman Dennis; London, Faber and Faber, 1970. pp 392. 4.50.

In an introduction A.H. Halsey of the Department of Social and Administrative Studies in Oxford describes Mr Dennis as a loyal local Sunderland patriot with inside experience as a full-time local government planner for over a year before undertaking the research which is the subject of this book.

Mr Dennis has examined the housing programme of the Sunderland Corporation in the early 1960s as it concerns the redevelopment of obsolete housing. He has carried out a survey of one in fifteen of the households affected and has reached a series of critical conclusions about the council's policies and the planners who assisted in framing them.

Mr Dennis begins his study with an analysis of the corporation's population forecasts which were consistently over-estimated. He ascribes this to the desire of the corporation for a larger town, the desire of the planners for generous land-use allocations in order to provide flexibility in planning and, lastly, the self-interest of the departmental staff who could secure better prospects for promotion in a growing town. This slur upon the officials of the Sunderland Corporation was effectively rebutted in the correspondence columns of the *Town Planning Institute Journal*, September/October, 1970.

Mr Dennis alleges that having undertaken a larger housing programme than the increase in the town's population justified, the corporation turned to slum clearance as a means of filling new houses. He suggests that superficial judgements were made about the fitness of houses and that houses were demolished where there was no

need. In answer to objections from a minority of the people affected, the council justified its clearance activities in the name of the broader public interest. The nature of this interest is the heart of the problem and Mr Dennis throws little new light upon it.

The book serves to illustrate the impact of public programmes of urban improvement upon individual householders, all of those wishes can never be satisfied. The much-discussed devices of public participation may offer some improvement in the situation but only at the expense of more official effort involving more staff and higher costs to the community as a whole. If the public generally is not prepared to pay more in rates to support a larger bureaucracy then the planning methods must be cut to fit the available budget. Bureaucracy is an easy target for critics such as Mr Dennis. Had he used his time as a full-time local government planner to better purpose, he might have acquired greater insight into the workings of bureaucracy and he might have come up with some more constructive remedies. As it is, his work surely tends to widen the gap that already exists between public officials and their sociologist critics.

— I. Boileau

**Planning and People: an introduction to urban planning in Australia** by James Colman; Sydney; Angus and Robertson, 1971. pp.70. \$3.50 (paperback).

James Colman is an Australian planner who was commissioned by the Planning Research Centre of the University of Sydney to write a plain man's guide to planning. This book represents his attempt to describe a complex activity in simple language.

Mr Colman's task has not been easy because the organisation for urban planning is different in each of the six Australian States and different again in Canberra and the other Federal Territories. The treatment of any one of these planning systems in an adequate fashion would require more than the seventy pages of the book. It follows that the author has had to take a broad and non-

legalistic approach in explaining the nature and purpose of planning in Australia. This breadth of approach renders the book suitable for general use beyond the borders of Australia.

The style is concise and informative. Mr Colman describes the development of urban planning with references to leading contemporary personalities in the planning world and the philosophers who contribute formative ideas. He then discusses the evolving nature of the planning process and the different ways in which people are affected by planning or can contribute to it. There is a brief section on planning law followed by a general discussion under the heading, "The Search for the Good Environment".

The final section concerned with environmental challenges is the most interesting. Mr Colman ascribes contemporary failures in environmental management to the lack of an overall strategy. He suggests that high on the list of remedies is the need for the reform of the political and governmental institutions concerned with planning. He points out that at the national level there is no Australian agency with responsibility for urban affairs. At the State level governmental agencies are inadequate and at the local level the units of government reflect conditions that existed fifty or more years ago.

The main impediment to a wide circulation for this book will be its cost, which seems excessive for so slim a volume containing some simple diagrams and a dozen photographic illustrations, whose quality of reproduction is not the best.

— I. Boileau

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## Correspondence

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### Defining a harbour

Sir,  
Mr Moran's interesting article in TPQ 24 clearly set out the limitations of the Harbours Act with respect to the planning control of reclamations. He also mentioned some of the provisions of the Town and Country Planning Act. A closer investigation of this legislation, however, reveals considerable ambiguity and confusion about the responsibility for planning control of harbours and navigable waterways.

It is usually considered that the jurisdiction of a territorial local authority (and therefore its planning control) extends only to high water mark and to areas which have been approved for reclamation. By requiring only territorial local authorities to prepare district schemes, the Act indicates that its main interest is with the land. There is no direct requirement that harbours are or should be subject to the provisions of the Act.

The definition of the district (S.2 of the Act) for which the planning scheme must be prepared is full of uncertainties. From this definition it could be inferred that councils may include 'areas' as well as land in their district schemes, and harbours are 'areas' if nothing else. Similarly, marinas, moorings, wharves etc. are 'structures or other works' to which section 2 of the Act could apply. The fact that no local authority has yet tried to extend its planning control in this way does not mean that it is not legally possible to do so.

It might be thought that as harbours are regional resources the Act would require them to be dealt with in regional planning schemes. Section 3 of the Act states the general purposes of regional planning schemes. These could be interpreted as includ-

ing harbours and the First Schedule to the Act specifically mentions harbours and navigable waterways. What is not clear, however, is whether 'harbours' mean the water, the sea bed, the structures located on the harbour, or the land surrounding the harbour. Nor is there any indication of how the harbour is to be planned if it is not included in a regional planning district.

Although the planning region is limited to the combined districts of the territorial local authorities within it, the Act also states that regard shall be had for 'natural geographic boundaries'. There could be a good case for regarding harbours as part of the 'natural geographic' region.

It seems obvious that the draftsmen of the various Acts did not foresee the difficulties which have occurred through the absence of specific delegation of planning control of harbours, lakes, and navigable waterways, and the lack of clear definitions of these terms. The time is overdue for a review of the legislation. Mr Moran's article, and these further observations, may hopefully provide the necessary stimulus.  
— Conway Stewart (Auckland).

### CRDA article "unhelpful"

Sir,  
As the planning consultant responsible for the Ranui CRDA (ultimately 206 acres, 900 house sites, post primary and primary schools, shopping community and social centre, together with neighbourhood recreation; Stage 1 approved under CRDA procedure is for 65½ acres, 306 sections) I was interested in reading Rex Hannam's article on CRDA development (TPQ24) but found it unhelpful.

As there are few examples (if any) of residential development actually built under this type of procedure, it is surely a bit early to knock the idea as being less than satisfactory. The problems which Mr Hannam foresees probably relate more to his ideas of what a CRDA is, rather than what will necessarily occur. After all the problems are there to be solved in an evolving situation rather than be comprehensively rejected without trial.

The unhelpful part of Mr Hannam's article was his categorising of CRDA's into "pure" and "quasi" divisions and I reject his definition that in a CRDA "the site is developed as an architectural conception", at this stage this would provide too many unnecessary complications.

I prefer the concept of a CRDA as being an attitude of a council which is prepared to say that "we are prepared to put aside our pre-conceived (and well tested) ideas on residential development as expressed in the code of ordinances and our engineering standards, provided that you can prove to the satisfaction of council, the public and the Appeal Board, that your proposed development will improve the quality of the amenities to be enjoyed by the residents of the area."

At Ranui equal attention was given to social, economic and physical criteria and the design solution had to meet performance standards established for the various sub-sets of these criteria.

Whilst there was indeed "considerable debate between (ourselves) and the council in respect of standards" this was deliberate dialogue designed to find the right answers. As a basis for negotiation I consider it to be almost essential to have an alternative form of development which could be allowed "as of right" to use as a base for determination of standards.

Whilst Ranui is not yet off the ground, it is intended to start earth works this coming season. I'm sure that it won't suffer from being only a "quasi-CRDA".

— R.J.P. Davies (Auckland)

### CRDA article "pessimistic"

Sir,  
I found the first part of Rex Hannam's article on CRDA's (TPQ 24) useful as a description of the techniques tried so far, but his section on problems and his conclusions are so pessimistic that I feel bound to put another point of view.

To take his problems in the order raised:

"Only large local authorities are likely to employ staffs of the size and competence necessary to prepare and

administer CRDA's". Possibly true, but as a reasonably high proportion of new building takes place in their territories, surely this is the better way round.

"As CRDA's would probably be confined to the large developers who are often involved in low-cost housing the approach could be used as a means of lowering costs rather than raising environmental quality". I do not think it matters whether this guess is right or wrong — either outcome is a valid thing for a planning authority to facilitate. If the planning authority thinks the environmental quality of a CRD will be less than that produced by the normal standards then it should push the developer into something better, and I would favour councils giving advance warning in their scheme statements that they will do this if necessary.

"Experiments are more likely to be attempted on small scale developments by smaller builders who could well be excluded under some CRDA clauses". The large Ranui development shows that at least one large developer can, after all, spread his risks more widely than a small man.

"Comprehensive entities are prone to premature obsolescence where conditions change, as their inter-related nature can inhibit adaptation."

I would agree that non-comprehensively developed quarter-acre sections allow a good deal of scope for change, because there is plenty of section left after the house is built. But in Wellington at least

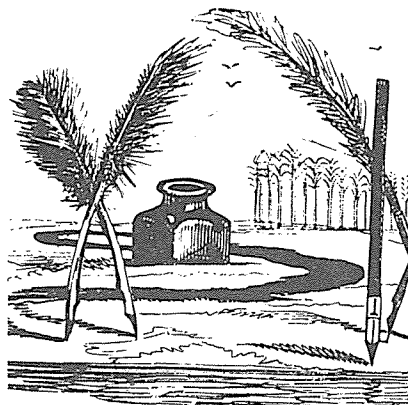
sections are commonly nearer eighth-acre, and with the standard yard and other requirements there is not much scope for manoeuvre either at the initial building stage or later. So I think it preferable to be able to use land more intelligently at one stage at least — the initial stage. I don't even agree with Mr Hannam's comment on obsolescence as applied to the field of housing. It sounds right in theory but in practice people seem to positively enjoy all sorts of supposedly substandard and inappropriate residential environments once they exist and have matured.

"CRDA's could create a dual standard in housing in that they could create a different standard of environment. This . . . does raise problems of public acceptability." For the reason just given I do not believe public acceptability will be a problem once the areas have been lived in for a while. If it is a problem at the time of the initial sale the developers will swiftly back off.

Turning to Mr Hannam's conclusions I think his suggested quasi-CRDA's may well be very useful. But I do not agree at all with his forecast that CRDA's will "be used as an excuse for avoiding revision of the present obsolete subdivision and bulk and location controls". My forecast is just the opposite, for planning authorities faced with innovations in CRDA proposals will be forced into thinking about what these achieve and what the normal standards achieve, to enable them to decide whether the "standard of environment" will be better or worse.

My general view is that the design alternatives available to subdividers and builders working independently and within set standards are just about exhausted, particularly with small sections. I am convinced that the development of alternatives depends largely on a more integrated approach to subdivision and the siting and design of the buildings. So I wish CRDA's well and am quite prepared to put up with the mistakes which will inevitably be made in the process of finding out how to handle them.

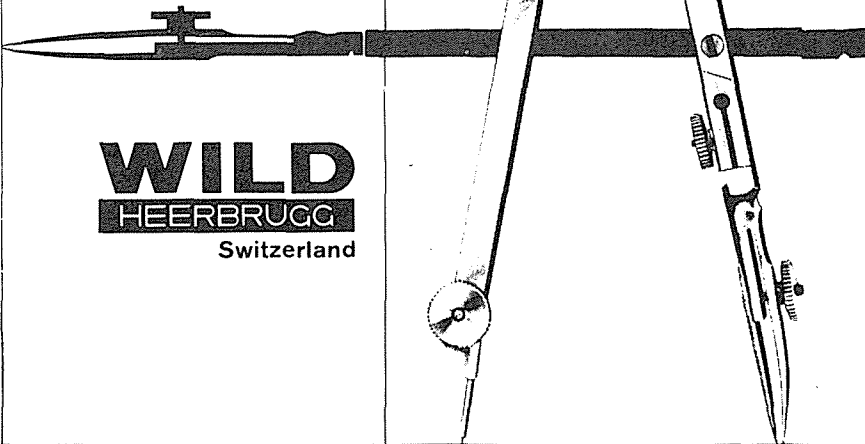
— C.M.T. Brown (Wellington)





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#### CRDA article "accurate"

Sir,  
Rex Hannam's description of  
CRDA, (why not CDA?) schemes is,  
to judge from my own experience, a  
fairly accurate picture of the advan-  
tages and disadvantages of such  
schemes.

Invariably, these schemes have as  
their aim the maximum utilization of  
services and land which may  
mean an increase in return on capital  
investment by the developer and an  
increase in the annual return in rates  
by local councils in whose area the  
development takes place. The maxi-  
mum utilization of land results in an  
increased number of lots per acre.  
That being so one should seriously  
consider the social costs and benefits  
for which the future generations will  
become responsible, if such CDA's  
are developed for land which pos-  
sesses few natural advantages, such as  
a good view.

Such land is often of low value —  
and I am thinking here especially of  
the future development of the  
Albany basin — and has therefore a  
low resale value. Such land will  
attract the low income groups, who  
have sufficient means only to acquire  
a low cost house, low cost implying  
a lesser quality house in terms of con-  
struction and finish. Such a low cost  
house has a minimum square foot  
area but often has to accommodate  
a household for which this square  
foot area is quite insufficient.

Since, about all, the low income  
groups have no surplus funds, and  
will never have any surplus funds, to  
enable them to improve upon their  
individual dwelling or land, let alone  
to improve upon the initial unfavour-  
able natural surroundings, then their  
special needs such as social amenities  
and ample open space should be  
allowed for in any zoning ordinance  
covering the CDA.

— E.F. Schwarz (Auckland)



**NEW ZEALAND PLANNING INSTITUTE**  
**Professional Cards**

These notices are inserted for the general information and guidance of the public. The consultant firms listed have one or more Members of the New Zealand Planning Institute amongst their partners.

**Peter Bagnall and Associates**  
P.O. Box 2506, Auckland  
and  
P.O. Box 2333, Wellington

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**Hrstitch, Curtis, Simmons & Partners**  
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**Porter and Martin**  
P.O. Box 5029  
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## Regional Development

Sir,

I have read with interest Mr Crawford's review of Regional Development in New Zealand by T.K. McDonald, in TPQ24. I strongly feel that Mr Crawford did not give sufficient emphasis to the points which this report failed to take into account in arriving at its conclusions. Obviously time and space do not permit a full discussion of all these points. Without delving into all the details of that report, however, I shall endeavour to put forward the main issues which, I think, a report of such importance should take into account before spelling out any judgment.

First, the report is based on a very narrow definition of economics. In addition to this, it made only a partial analysis of the main issues involved with developmental and regional planning. Although there may be some disagreement on the detailed aspects of regional planning, broadly it can be defined as attempting to arrive at a rational spatial distribution of economic and social opportunities for the inhabitants of a country within a broad framework of national growth and development. No doubt the concept of national growth and development may lead to conceptual disagreement — but it does not necessarily mean that non-economic issues like culture, ethnic homogeneity, social factors, concern for an environment, urban stresses on unprepared rural population, regional pride etc. should not be given due consideration in the preparation of regional policies. The report gave hardly any consideration to these issues.

Second, the report in its excessive exuberance to champion the cause of a national growth maximisation, campaigned for the maximum milking of the cow even though it might deny the calf its proper share. In the process, the calf becomes a sick animal which needs constant medication at a later date, something which could have been avoided by earlier balanced milking and proper feeding. Therefore, the degree of milking and the question of an adequate share for the calf, should be decided after a careful pathological

examination of all the factors involved. I do not see that the report has done any such examination although it came out with a strong prescription!

Third, the report was emphatic in publicising the relative failures of regional policies in some foreign countries. But strangely it did not attempt to bring forward what would have happened to those areas in the absence of any plan. Where would the Scottish economy have been today without the deliberate regional policies that were implemented there? Maybe they did not reach the desired objectives — but it would be a great mistake to say that they did not arrest the deterioration — even if only partially.

Fourth, along with the countries with a successful regional plan implementation record, there are countries where failure to provide a proper regional development policy in time has been a principal factor in the disastrous political and social consequences which probably could have been avoided with timely action. The recent separatist unrest in Canada and Italy are examples of this. The New Zealand situation, of course, is not directly analogous — but a weighted recognition of socio-political issues would have increased the creditability of the McDonald report as a balanced one.

Lastly, increasing concern and awareness for an unpolluted environment are compelling the developed countries to adopt a policy for ecologically balanced regional development — which again the report did not attempt to evaluate. It should be borne in mind that man is taking more from nature than he is putting back — and in this respect all on this planet are equally responsible!

These criticisms are not meant to infer that the report was without merit. On the contrary, the report deserves credit for generating wide debate, and hence highlighting the relevant issues for the first time in New Zealand, not only to the decision makers but to everyone concerned with balanced regional development.

— B. Ray (Wellington)

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## Institute affairs

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### Membership

The following have been elected:

### New Student Members

J.I.G. Christensen  
R.F. Coldham, MNZIS  
K.D. George, MNZIS  
J.D. Gunnell, Dip TP, MNZIS

### Resignation

P.C. Bolster has resigned from Student Membership.

### Recent Movements

M.J.M. Cooper MA(VUW). Investigating Officer, Head Office, MOW, to Edinburgh to further studies.

P.R. Diebert B Arch, Dip TP(Auck) from Architect, Architectural Division, Head Office, MOW, to Architect-Planner, Environmental Design Section, Town Planning Division, Head Office, MOW, Wellington.

J.R. Stewart BA(Otago), Investigating Officer, Head Office, MOW, to Edinburgh to further studies.

R.G. Stroud Dip TP(Auck), MNZIS, (M), Senior Planner, Wellington City Council to Kalmac Property Consultants, Wellington.

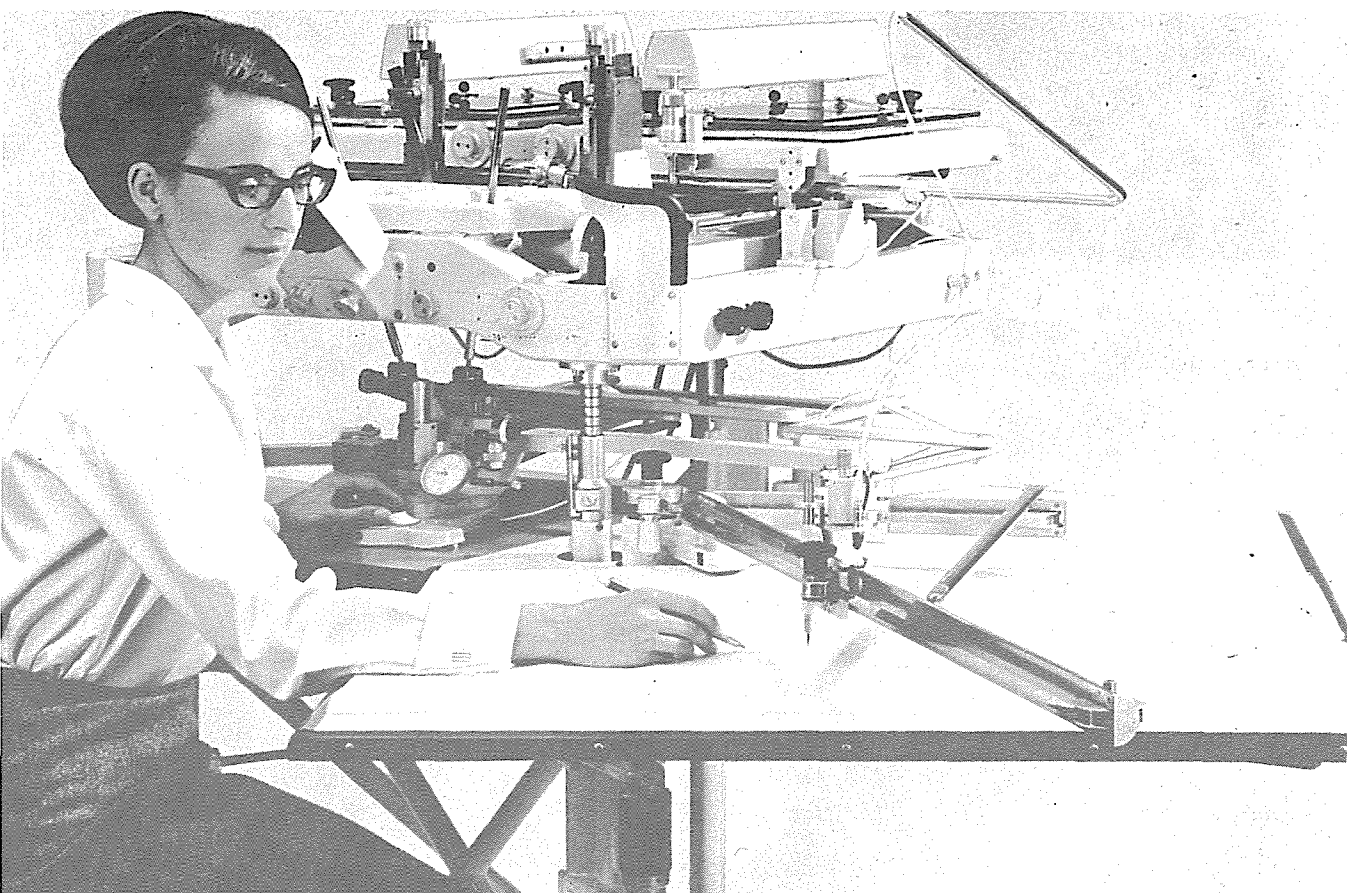
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### PARTNERSHIP

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Davie, Lovell-Smith and Partners, Registered Surveyors, Consulting Engineers and Chartered Town Planners are pleased to announce they have taken into partnership William Herbert Barker, Dip TP, MNZPI, Grad. NZIS. Mr Barker first joined the firm from Wellington as a Senior Planning Assistant in 1969. The firm will continue under the same name at the same address.

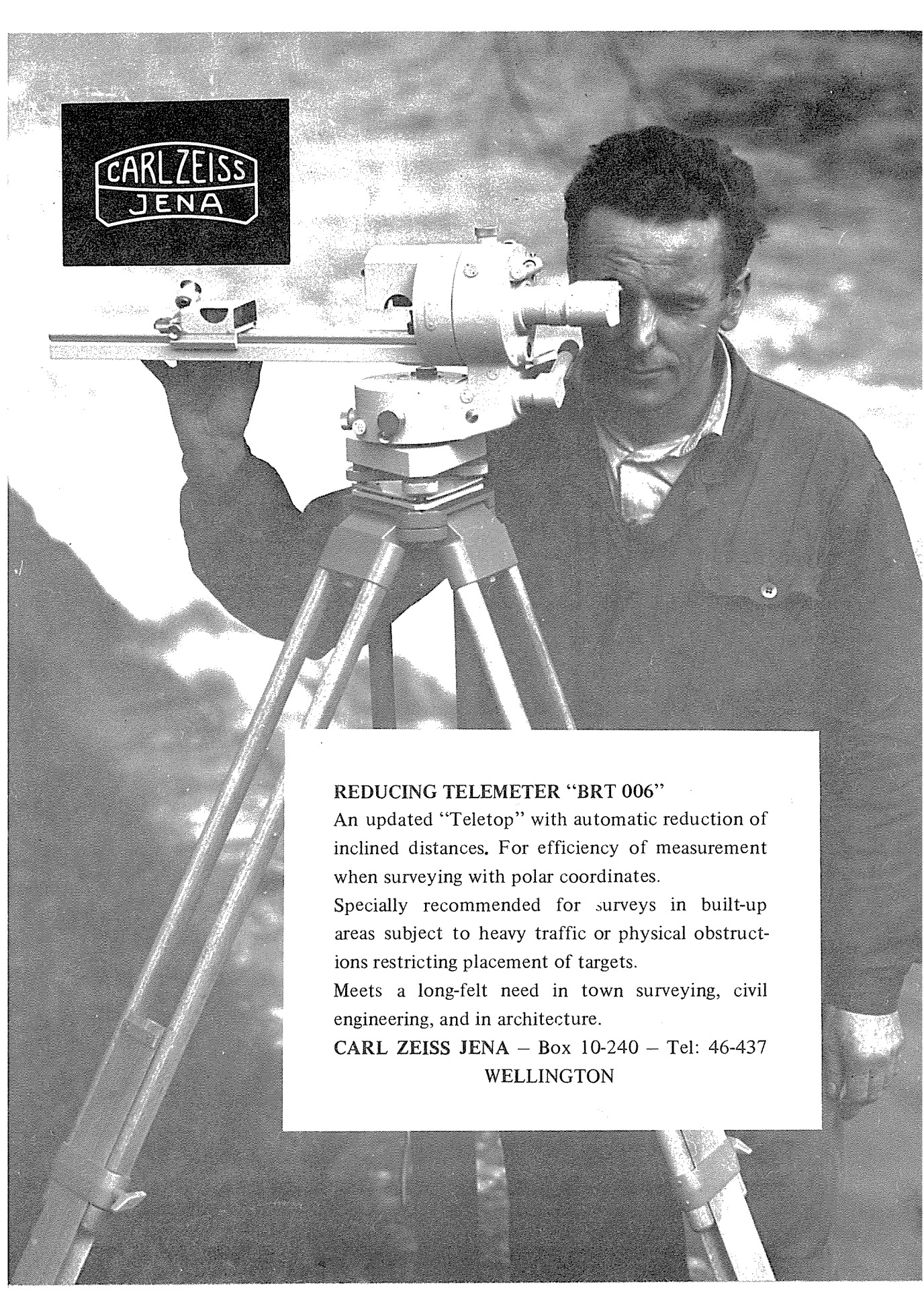
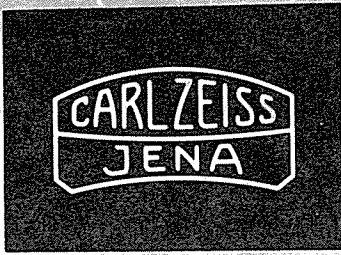
R.B. Lovell-Smith 198 Hereford St,  
J.M.H. Davie Christchurch 1.  
A.P. Todd  
Nancy Northcroft P.O. Box 679,  
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