THE UNIVERSITY OF MANITOBA

PLANNING A REGIONAL PARKS SYSTEM FOR MANITOBA

by

Brenda Louise Sims

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Recreation is a significant activity of most North Americans. Factors such as population increases, expansion of leisure time, a great degree of personal mobility and high personal incomes exert pressure on existing recreational facilities and accelerate the demand for additional recreational spaces. Yet, the provision of public recreational facilities may be overlooked in planning for rural regions.

In some instances, planners have been forced to look at the larger urban region to supply the needs of the urban centers which have no space within their boundaries for additional facilities. Provision of a regional park system serving a larger population size is often seen as one measure to alleviate the pressure on smaller parks within urban areas (Little 1969).

However, the view taken here is that regional recreational facilities should be examined not only as a need of urbanites but also as a possible need of rural residents. Traditionally, regional planning in rural areas has focused on means to augment per capita income.

> . . . regional planners are chiefly concerned with economic development or, more precisely, *with the spatial incidence of economic growth*. They are consequently interested in the structure and transformation of economic space. Their attempt is to reorganize this structure in ways to achieve a range of social objectives (Friedmann 1964:83).

Public recreational areas are basically oriented toward social needs or conservation objectives and not toward economic ends. Thus, it is seldom that regional planners consider parks as important elements of regional plans. In most instances only when the tourism potential or other economic impacts seem significant have regional recreational activities aroused a high level of interest from regional planners or government officials.

However, in a few cases governmental agencies and planners are beginning to examine the concern of rural residents for regional scale areas and facilities. For over a decade the Manitoba Parks Branch has been considering the establishment of a regional parks system for Manitoba. Although much effort has been directed in this regard recently, no such formal system has actually been implemented.

> As far as can be determined, there is no significant history of the administration of joint provincial-municipal regional parks. Discussion of this sort of parks administration must therefore be conducted on a more or less theoretical level. If it can be agreed that one range of parks functions is properly the concern of the municipality exclusively, then it becomes possible to discuss whether or not there is an intermediate range of parks needs to be filled, and if so how. What type of parks fall into this category? To what extent should the municipalities share in their establishment, control, maintenance? To what extent should the province share? What aid should the province provide other than financial, if any? A more searching question is raised: Falling as it does in the administrative no-man's land between municipal and provincial jurisdictions, is the regional park one of a number of functional needs calling for the creation, utilization or strengthening of second-tier municipalities embracing broad trading areas or similarly defined territories? (Hardy and McGilly 1961:1041).

Although the practical experience relating to the planning and administration of regional parks has increased since the above words were written, concrete data regarding such parks are still meager and scattered. This thesis attempts to analyse and synthesize the existing information

with the objective of answering some of the preceding questions in terms of a regional parks system geared to Manitoba's social, economic, political and physical environments.

In Chapter II the meaning of recreation and the social and psychological functions it performs in the lives of North Americans are examined. That section leads into an inspection in Chapter III of the factors traditionally considered in parks planning and an analysis of several recreational planning techniques.

The fourth Chapter deals with the recreation sub-systems which form the overall parks and recreational network across North America. Chapter V narrows the scope to a discussion of the concept and functions of regional parks and the types of regional parks which have been established in various countries and Canadian provinces.

In Chapter VI the focus is on Manitoba's environment, its existing parks system and the need for regional parks in the province.

Finally, the seventh chapter presents previous studies and recommendations regarding a regional parks system for the province and provides some suggestions from the writer concerning governmental policy, funding, legislation and administration for such parks in Manitoba.

CHAPTER II

RECREATION: ITS MEANING, FUNCTION AND IMPORTANCE

Recreation, Leisure and Work

Recreation is activity or experience which takes place during leisure time. The relationships between recreation and leisure and between leisure and work are worthwhile planning considerations.

Recreation has been considered the opposite of work or time remaining after working hours, but actually the division is not so crude. Stanley Detering (1970) reviews the mass of literature regarding leisure and concludes that time might be categorized most accurately as work time, maintenance time, obligated time, and discretionary time.

Work time includes time spent working, time spent traveling to and from work and time spent in educational preparation for work. Maintenance time is the time set aside for activities which are biological necessities. Obligated time encompasses nonwork time that is socially obligated, such as business luncheons and cocktail parties. Discretionary time is the actual free time or leisure time remaining after activities associated with the other categories have been completed (Detering 1970).

It is within discretionary or leisure time that recreation takes place. While God and work dominated Cotton Mather's time, self and leisure are becoming more important today (Satterthwaite 1970:106).

Burton, a well-known recreational planner, describes a current way of viewing work and leisure.

> Far from being an alternative to work, recreation pre-supposes the existence of work, so as to provide a contrast or complement to it. Thus, current trends towards a reduction of weekly working hours and an increase of free time represent a 'redistribution' of the balance of time between work and recreation rather than a trend toward the replacement of work by recreation (1971:19).

Burton cites evidence from the United States which shows that shortening of the work week often leads to a portion of the workers' taking second jobs. This may imply that although leisure time is quite important to many people, there is some minimum level below which workers will not want the length of their working week to fall (Burton 1971:20).

Clawson and Knetsch distinguish between recreation and leisure.

> Leisure is *time* of a special kind; recreation is *activity* (or inactivity) of special kinds. Recreation takes place during leisure; but not all leisure is given over to recreation (1966:12).

The relationship between leisure and recreation can be qualified by aspects such as timing and location, e.g., the day outing and the annual vacation, outdoor and indoor recreation (Burton 1971:20) or urban and non-urban recreation.

The reason for examining the relationships among recreation, leisure and work becomes clear as a planner tries to understand existing recreational patterns and to predict future changes in recreational demand. Leisure time and attendant recreation have increased greatly in North America as work and maintenance time have been reduced by labor- and time-saving devices. To what extent this will continue into the future is a concern of most recreational planners and to governmental agencies charged with the responsibility of establishing facilities now which will meet future needs.

Definition of Recreation

Although the general definition of recreation as activity which takes place during leisure time is widely accepted, recreation can assume a variety of forms. Watching television, swimming, knitting, stock car racing, reading, picnicking are all recreational activities for various individuals. Some of these pastimes may be considered work for other individuals who receive compensation for their participation in the activity.

Reviewing the literature concerning the definition of recreation enables a planner to grasp more fully the social, psychological and behavioral dimensions of recreation. Burton defines recreation in terms of the functions it performs:

> . . . recreation may be defined as participation, in its broadest sense, in any pursuits--other than those associated with work and necessary tasks of a personal and social nature--which a person undertakes freely for purposes of relaxation or entertainment or for his own personal or social development (1971:20).

Driver prefers to think of recreation as an experience, rather than an activity, which is intrinsically self-rewarding and voluntary and which occurs during non-obligated leisure time (1973).

> The recreational state is the state or level of the experience . . . this experience exists to the extent to which the needs or desires to recreate are gratified. Thus, *recreation itself is a state of mind*. This explains why it is so easy for us to engage in certain forms of recreation by doing nothing more than thinking (Driver and Tocher 1970:19).

Clawson and Knetsch divide the total recreational experience into five phases: (1) anticipation; (2) travel to actual site; (3) on-site experiences and activities; (4) travel back; and (5) recollection (1966:33-34).

Recreation, whether considered as an activity or as an experience, is often, for research and park/program administrative purposes, divided into two categories: "outdoor recreation" and "indoor recreation". This distinction has been useful in the past since activities, e.g., hiking, fishing, occurring primarily in natural or outdoor settings seemed to require analysis separate from the more programmed type of activities, e.g., crafts, gymnastics, taking place indoors. However, several problems are associated with the use of the traditional terminology.

> . . . close scrutiny inevitably reveals that the distinction between outdoor and indoor recreation with respect to their location is blurred and with time becomes even more so: very frequently both indoor and outdoor forms are carried on with respect to the same activity, e.g., swimming, hockey, tennis, track and field, basketball, etc. Most of the outdoor sports and games take place in urban areas, whereas the number of indoor recreational facilities in the countryside is growing. Therefore it seems that the distinction between urban and non-urban recreation clearly determined spacially is more significant. . . . than the distinction between outdoor and indoor recreation which is confusing by attempting to associate it with any specific environment (Mieczkowski 1970:251).

This current paper, accepting the definitions of both Burton and Driver, considers recreation as activity and experience and concerns itself primarily with recreation occurring in non-urban settings.

The necessity of grasping the dimensions of "recreation" relates not only to a definition of the term, but also to an idea of the functions recreation serves.

Functions of Recreation

In the past the functions of outdoor recreation have been idealized:

> We know that wholesome play acts as a preventive of delinquency and other misuses of time and energy; and we also know that it is a great educator physically, mentally and morally (Hammer 1928:preface).

No sound scientific proof for assumptions that recreational activities can prevent juvenile delinquency or provide good mental health is available (see Clawson and Knetsch 1966:267, Styles 1970:49 and Cornwell 1966:19-31). However, it seems reasonable to believe that recreation does perform positive functions such as relieving mental as well as physical stress for many people.

As stated in Burton's definition of recreation above, he thinks recreation can function in positive ways to provide relaxation, entertainment and the opportunity for personal and social development. In addition to these positive aspects, Burton also recognizes the negative functions recreation can perform. For example, television-watching as a time-filler between two chosen or positive pursuits is a negative function from the motivation standpoint (Burton 1971:19).

Currently, research is underway to assess the social functions of recreation. One such project is in progress in the Department of Agricultural Economics at Washington State University "to isolate and measure the effects which the availability of recreational facilities has on social stability in urban areas" (Egediusen and Barkley 1970:122). The work was given impetus by the fact that all the investigations following the major riots in the United States have identified the inadequacy of recreational facilities or opportunities in the violence-stricken area as one cause of the upheaval (Egediusen and Barkley (1970:122).*

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* Jane Jacobs finds the "remedy" of more parks to soothe violence-ridden neighborhoods to be ironic. She has observed that much of city violence begins in parks (1961:75-76).

The research is confronted by many problems. A proper definition and statistical index of social stability is difficult to obtain. The researchers realize that "recreation is not a homogeneous product, . . . and that what will contribute to stability in an upper class urban white neighborhood may in no way work in a college town . . . or in a ghetto area . . ." (Egediusen and Barkley 1970:132).

The multifarious nature of recreation and its functions make an assessment of its "social productivity" extremely difficult. Yet, such research is important for a better understanding of the value of recreation in modern society.

Klausner has examined the important social context within which recreation happens. To some extent the boundaries of the recreational group may depend on the size of the community. The residents of a small culturally homogeneous town may all belong to the same recreational group. In large cities, a culturally homogeneous neighborhood may form the recreational group. The more mobile residents of cities may confine their recreational activities to a "social circle" of individuals with similar lifestyles (Klausner 1969:62).

Three dimensions of recreation are recognized by Klausner: one deals with the social relationship between man and man, as mentioned above; another is the relationship between man and nature; and the third encompasses the relationship of man with himself in psychological terms (Klausner 1969:64-65).

The psychological aspect may take either a passive form in which the individual receives an input from the environment or an active form in which the individual works on the environment for some satisfaction (Klausner 1969:65).

Like Klausner, Driver and Tocher are concerned with the psychological aspects of recreation. More specifically, Driver and Tocher consider the

> . . . psychological and physiological forces, motives, drives, etc., which cause the recreationists to pursue the recreational goal-object(s) and to experience recreation (1970:11).

Driver hypothesizes that individuals choose recreation to satisfy needs generated in their non-recreational time. People, having problems they cannot or will not solve in their everyday life spaces, turn to the recreational context to find a solution. Research is in progress to isolate the variables in the recreational satisfaction of needs (Driver 1973).

Although scientific evidence regarding the social and psychological functions of recreation is not decisive, the research in progress seems to indicate the functions of recreation are important for most individuals.

CHAPTER III

PLANNING FOR NON-URBAN RECREATION

Planning Approaches

Planning for regional parks can be approached from three basic perspectives:

(1) Regional parks can be viewed as integral elements of a comprehensive plan or policy statement. Whether the plan or policy statement is regional or provincial in scope, it is comprehensive in that it considers the interrelationships between all major land uses and their attendant social and economic implications.

(2) Regional facilities can be considered as parts of a recreation plan separate from plans for other land uses. A recreation plan can be provincial in scope, considering the interrelationships of all levels of parks (provincial, regional and local) or it can be regional in scope, considering the recreational activities for various regions separately.

(3) Regional parks can be approached on an individual, site-specific basis. Planning in this instance involves conceptual planning for a specific site and detail design of the park.

Beyond the basic levels of planning, Kraus (1971) identifies several approaches to urban recreational planning. It may be expected that most of these approaches will continue to be applied to planning for non-urban recreation. Kraus contends that since planners are drawn from a variety of disciplines, they apply to parks planning several specialized approaches which reflect their professional training (1971: 432-433).

First, Kraus discusses the economist's approach to recreational planning. In this approach, the planner attempts to model the "consumption" of recreation in terms of demand and supply factors which can be analysed as in the market system. Costs are measured in terms of time and money expended in seeking recreation (Kraus 1971:433). Economic models will be discussed more fully in a later section of this chapter.

Kraus discusses a number of other specialized approaches to recreational planning which might be applied to non-urban areas. He mentions a conservationist-oriented approach,

> . . . it gives primary emphasis to the need to retain and protect open spaces, green belts, natural areas, historic sites, and parks and to resist their use for any purpose, including recreation, that might alter the natural environment (1971:433).

In a politically-motivated planning approach, parks and recreation are used to win votes. Finally, a "social needs approach"

> . . . stresses planning that provides social opportunities and services through which disadvantaged people may solve their problems (Kraus 1971:434).

Another approach, which is not specialized, should be added to the list by Kraus. Increasingly, parks planners are beginning to recognize the necessity of a systems concept or approach.

> The underlying concept of parks systems is relatively new. It can be simply stated as follows: within a given land area

> all parks, no matter how large they may be, or for what purpose they were established, are related to each other, to the use of resources in the landscape which includes them, and the society which supports them. Reservations of land and water resources, particularly for parks and recreation, exert as profound an influence on the use of the resources surrounding them and upon the societies which control their fate as society and historic land-use patterns exert on the reserves; parks cannot be considered in isolation. When one consciously takes into account as many of the biological, physical and social interrelationships as possible in considering various kinds of parks and park programs for a region, a nation, or groups of nations, he is engaging in planning systems of parks, or park systems planning (Hart 1966:xi).

The Parks Systems Planning Committee proposed in 1973 that the Federal-Provincial Parks Conference adopt the following definition which was modified from Hart's definition:

> Park Systems planning is:
>
> the process of identifying and integrating both in a resource and in a sociologic sense, park and recreational needs of Canada in a programme of resource base selection, recreational development and management. It is understood that parks system planning must take account of the cooperative roles of the various public and private sectors of the economy (Parks Systems Planning Committee 1973:3).

The Parks Systems Planning Committee felt the adoption of parks systems guidelines would (1) facilitate cooperation between public and private recreation agencies; (2) insure sound planning for the preservation of unique environments; (3) facilitate the provision of a wide variety of recreational opportunities by the various service levels and insure that the opportunities related to those offered at other levels; (4) aid in the integration of the tourist industry into park and recreational system plans; (5) clarify the economic and social implications of recreational development in relation to other resource uses; and (6) provide adequate means for public participation in park systems planning (1973:4-5).

The Committee outlined eight guidelines for park systems planning:

(1) Goals Statement and Hierarchy of Objectives

(2) Inventory of Supply

(3) Socio-economic Considerations

(4) Elements of Consumption and Demand

(5) Analysis and Classification (methods for inventory evaluation)

(6) Public Participation and Public Support

(7) Coordinated Planning and Management

(8) Evaluation Procedures Development (1973:6-12).

These primarily self-explanatory guidelines are factors which must be studied during the recreational planning process. They will be discussed more fully in Chapter VII.

Most of the above mentioned approaches to varying degrees examine: (1) the socio-economic characteristics of the user population; (2) the physical environment where parks are to be located; and (3) the economics of park development. A difference of emphasis on these particular factors distinguishes between the approaches.

The following sections discuss these three planning considerations and specific planning techniques used to analyse them. Then follows a discussion of recreational demand which is a complex of factors with which the planner must deal.

This chapter ends with a section examining the planner's traditional reliance on standards as recreational goals and as measures of success or failure of the recreational plan.

Recreational Planning Based on Demographic Characteristics

The ways people use their leisure time, the particular recreational activities in which they engage, are strongly related to the characteristics and the past experiences of the people themselves. Knowledge of this is an essential planning tool.

> The use of leisure depends more directly upon the nature of the population than upon the geographic situation. . . . The size and density, the physical and mental health, the composition, including sex, race, nationality, and individual differences, and the mobility and distribution of the population, especially the movement to cities, are all important conditioners of leisure and recreation (Neumeyer and Neumeyer 1958:146).

Various activities appeal to different individuals. The study by the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission (ORRRC) in the United States in the early 60's "assumed that participation in a given outdoor activity is predictable from the social and economic characteristics of the participant" (Ferriss et al. 1962:4). The study examined the relationships between participation rates and factors such as age, sex, family income, region, size of place of residence, ethnic background, education and occupation. Age was naturally found to be an important determinant of recreational participation (ORRRC 1962:29). (For a discussion of the way recreational preferences and needs change as people change mentally and physically throughout their lifetimes, see Abrahamsen 1958:179-211).

The ORRRC Study also found that place of residence was a conditioning factor of recreational preference.

> Suburbanites and people who live in the county participate more than city people. There are also, of course, differences of emphasis: people living farther out tend to favor camping, fishing, and, in particular, hunting--the activities that most

> involve 'roughing it'; while city people emphasize sightseeing and pleasure driving, picnicking, and, most of all, swimming. Contributing to the differences are factors other than place of residence, notably income and age. When all these factors are held constant, however, people in outlying areas still show the highest rate. The simple fact of access, in short, promotes use (ORRRC: 1962:29).

One's perception of recreational opportunity is conditioned by education, "dictates of fashion", socio-cultural background (Ferriss 1970:51) and other factors. In his research, Burch has found that different cultural groups prefer distinct recreational activities. In regard to occupational culture, he thinks that people engaged in occupations which emphasize self-mastery will most likely ". . . minimize television, emphasize arts, walk for pleasure, hike, cross-country ski and sail" (1970:73). On the other hand, people whose occupations emphasize "conformity to routines established by others" will most likely "emphasize television, minimize the higher arts, avoid walking, dress for downhill skiing, undress for water-skiing and drive power boats for pleasure" (Burch 1970:73).

In planning recreational areas it is important

> . . . to consider the particular choices of individuals and groups to accommodate the great range of possibilities for action that are required by a pluralistic society which includes racial and ethnic minorities, teenagers, single men and women, the elderly. The behaviour and aspirations of the various segments of the population and how these are evolving are becoming the bases for designing open space, rather than the desires of a mythical typical family (Marcou 1971:15).

Recreational Planning Based on Features of the Physical Environment

As North Americans generally become more aware of and concerned about man's destructive use of the earth, recreational planners are

beginning to develop various techniques for assessing the impact of recreational activities on the environment.

Modern man's recreational activities are, in a great many instances, harmful to the environment he seeks to enjoy. Artur Glikson (1971) traces the origins and evolution of recreational land problems in industrialized countries. As large numbers of peasants left the countryside for jobs in industrializing towns, profound changes took place. Urban areas expanded at the expense of rural resources. The rural landscape was gradually transformed through "deforestation, mechanization of agriculture, parcellation, introduction of monocultures, faulty methods of cultivation, mining, and construction of industrial and power plants" (Glikson 1971:17).

People in the crowded industrial cities yearned for a holiday in their old countryside. Pressure of the vacationers on the country resorts and rural areas began to erode the peaceful recreational nature of the areas. Vacationers were forced to travel further and further from the cities to find the relaxation they were seeking (Glikson: 1971:18).

The pressure today on many parks and other recreational areas is immense. Canada's national parks, which were used by 13 million visitors in 1970 (Parks Canada 1973), are showing signs of ecological damage. Parks Canada planners and administrators are searching for ways of achieving a balance between use and conservation. So far, Parks Canada has closed some fragile areas to intensive uses such as camping and has begun restricting the growth of visitor-attracting services within park boundaries.

The U.S. National Park Service is trying to deal with the same problem of overuse causing irreparable damage to the environment. In 1973 the Parks Service began on an experimental basis a computerized campground reservation system in several of the national parks. Also back-country travel in wilderness areas in three of the national parks (Kings Canyon, Rocky Mountains, and Great Smoky Mountain) is being limited to the number of persons the areas can accommodate without environmental damage (Northern States Power Company 1973:39).

Environmental damage by visitors is not restricted to harm of plants, animals, land and water. Archaeological and historical sites, or man-made aspects of the environment which are worthy of preservation, are also being spoiled. Mesa Verde, prehistoric home of the magnificent cliff-dwellers in Colorado, is one example. Limits on the numbers of tourists to be accommodated daily have already been imposed there (Personal Communication, Cline 1973).

Parks Canada administrators are following closely current research on "biological and psychological carrying capacities" with the hope that such information will enable them 'to set realistic limits on the numbers of people that should be using a park or portion thereof'" (Winnipeg Free Press 1973:6). Foresters and parks planners throughout many countries are becoming interested in understanding more fully the natural environment and the level of human usage and development it can tolerate.

Lime and Stankey define recreational carrying capacity as:

> . . . the character of use that can be supported over a specified time by an area developed at a certain level without causing excessive damage to either the physical environment or the experience for the visitor (1971:175).

They outline the three basic and closely interwoven components of carrying capacity as: "(1) management objectives, (2) visitor attitudes, and (3) recreational impact on physical resources" (Lime and Stankey 1971:175). In addition, they view carrying capacity as a dynamic concept which can be manipulated by the recreational manager. Management techniques such as landscape design, the zoning of areas by degree of usage permitted, rotating use and the planting of hardy floral species can be used to extend the carrying capacity of a site (Lime and Stankey 1971).

Lime and Stankey (1971) emphasize the need to understand ecological processes before management personnel attempt to augment the carrying capacity. Likewise, a knowledge of natural processes and how they may limit future use is essential in recreational site selection since certain areas are intrinsically suitable for certain uses while others are less so.

Along with impact analysis techniques, suitability or attractiveness models have recently been added to the planner's tool kit. An environmental suitability model and an impact model are being developed and tested by the Department of Landscape Architecture at the University of Manitoba. The suitability model involves the weighting of certain environmental features, e.g., degree of slope, soil moisture, vegetation stability, etc. relative to their suitability for certain land uses, e.g., tent camping, picnic areas, etc. Each pertinent environmental variable is also ranked in relation to the other variables according to its importance in determining suitability for a particular land use. The weights given to the variables are based on the judgments

of individuals with experience in planning for a particular land use (Personal Communication, Grodzik:1974).

Through the use of computer technology, maps can be obtained which show the most suitable locations for certain land uses within a specified area. The "best" locations are based on the relative weights used in the program. An environmental impact model can be prepared in a similar fashion and a map drawn which shows areas most likely to be damaged by each land use. The suitability and impact maps can then be combined to arrive at the optimal location of the land use (Personal Communication, Grodzik:1974). (For additional information regarding this specific method, see Johns 1973 and Dakin, Jackson and Johns 1973. An early approach to a suitability model for recreational areas can be seen in National Advisory Council on Regional Recreation Planning 1959.)

As more refined techniques are developed for assessing environmental suitability for recreational use and for evaluating recreation's possible environmental impact, the recreational planner should be able to function more intelligently and efficiently. He will be able to handle a large number of variables within an organized framework.

Preserving certain areas of natural beauty for the recreational and, in many instances, educational enjoyment of future generations is only one concern in park development and open space reservation.

> Conservation, at its simplest, means the wise use of resources. The environment, and in particular the countryside, holds resources capable of many uses--for agriculture and forestry, for water catchment, mineral working, settlement, and . . . for outdoor recreation. At the same time the rural environment is valued in a less tangible way for the culture and history of its community, for its wildlife, for the beauty of fine landscapes and in some areas, for its remoteness. Environmental conservation is therefore concerned both with the quantity and quality of many different resources (Hookway and Davidson 1970:2).

Water and land spaces, such as regional parks, may be able to serve several functions if they are carefully planned.

The Role of Economics in Recreational Planning

It is essential that the parks planner grasp the realities of the economic potential of recreational areas. The tourism potential is the dominant economic concern although the recreational site's impact on surrounding land values may also be worthy of consideration in some instances.

Governments and private enterprises spend large amounts of money developing and advertising recreational facilities which they hope will attract large numbers of tourists. The tourism issue is an important factor in the decision of governments to fund recreational areas and especially *rural* recreational development. If the decision-makers believe a park can be a stimulus to the rural economy, they seem more likely to provide financial assistance. As a result, planners often use economic reasons as their basic rationale for establishing recreational facilities.

An interesting example of this reasoning is followed by the planners in Ventura County, California. In 1966 the average annual family income in the county was reasonably high at $9,000; yet, their regional park plan report repeatedly refers to the tourism benefits to accrue to county residents (Ventura County Planning Commission 1966).

An ORRRC report cites the beneficial economic impacts of the development of seven large reservoirs in the underdeveloped Arkansas White-Red River Basins in Arkansas, Oklahoma, Texas and Missouri (ORRRC 1962).

> All 17 counties in the four States with significant shorelines on these reservoirs were studied, and comparisons were then made with eight adjacent counties that did not have shoreline on these reservoirs. Population growth, per capita income, annual wages, retail sales, bank deposits, taxes, and investment were considered.
>
> In the 10-year period ending in 1960, all counties in the study lost population, but the 17 reservoir counties lost only 8.5 percent in contrast with the 25.1 percent loss in the non-reservoir counties. From 1949 to 1959, annual per capita income of the reservoir counties in Arkansas increased from $669 to $1,053, or 57 percent, in contrast to an increase of $349 to $431, or only 23 percent, in the non-reservoir counties (ORRRC 1962:76).

Capital investment, bank deposits and tax collections also showed favorable gains in the reservoir counties. Finally, the report says:

> These cases are special in that large-scale recreation expenditures came to a comparatively depressed area in a rather short period, but they do illustrate the power of the recreation dollar (ORRRC 1962:78).

Tourism can be the mainstay of some local economies in beach towns, towns located in spectacular mountain scenery and in towns with other prime locations.

Some individuals view tourism as an answer to all economic problems of "depressed" areas. Others are completely opposed to tourism, maintaining that the economic benefits which accrue from tourism can never outweigh the irreparable damage large numbers of tourists bring to the natural environment.

In the book Vacationscape: Designing Tourist Regions, Clare Gunn (1972) examines the problems of tourism in the past and offers suggestions regarding better design toward the end of making the tourist more satisfied and also toward preserving and augmenting the natural amenities the tourist seeks to enjoy. Successful tourism involves a complex of factors and generally entails large expenditures.

First of all, the area must have some great attraction. This attraction must be easily comprehended, fit in with the surrounding environment, have great magnetism, have capacity to satisfy and have man-made access, etc. (Gunn 1972:36-39). In addition to the attraction itself there must be services and facilities for the users and transportation networks adequate for moving visitors into and out of the area. Information which directs users to the attraction and assists them in enjoying it is also essential. Finally, the tourism system is completed by the tourists--the individuals in a market area who desire to and have the ability to participate in the attraction activities (Gunn 1972:21).

Because this tourism system is incompletely understood in many instances, the tourist potential of recreational areas is frequently lost.

> . . . at the present time most state tourism agencies relate only to the component of information. The advertising role is theirs traditionally, but the remaining components are the concerns of the multitude of private and governmental owners and managers, and hence they are seldom integrated (Gunn 1972:21).

In examining the potential for tourism-recreation development for a region, Gunn suggests the consideration of external and internal factors. External factors to be examined include proximity to large population centers, transportation systems, alternative destinations which may draw people away from the region, and the image of the area held by potential tourists (Gunn 1972:165-167).

Internal factors of a region which must be understood are the climate, land relief, wildlife, water and waterlife, vegetative cover, extractive land industries, marine industries, existing tourism-recreation development, existing communities, transportation networks within the

region, historic aspects, archaeologic and ethnic factors, aesthetic conditions and size and shape of the region (Gunn 1972:168-175).

A thorough understanding of all these factors will allow a realistic determination of the limitations and potentials of an area for recreation and tourist development. If the region does become a successful tourist attraction, the residents "must be willing to pay the price of disruption and change in order to cater to enough tourists to make an economic impact" (Gunn 1972:151).

W. G. Beardsley (1971) analyses the actual economic impact of the development of recreational facilities in rural areas. After examining a number of cases, he concludes that because rural communities have to import the major portion of the goods they sell to tourists, generally the actual tourism benefit to rural residents is minor. Unless the area possesses some outstanding features which attract large numbers of tourists for long stays, the monetary benefit from tourism is small.

Burton has studied the possible use of recreational enterprises to halt economic decline and to encourage economic growth in problem rural areas in England. The six criteria Burton uses to identify a problem rural area are:

(1) the existence of low *per capita* incomes relative to the remainder of the economy;

(2) relatively low population densities which are usually falling lower and which, moreover, often have unbalanced age and sex ratios, since they tend to have disproportionate numbers of older males;

(3) the predominance of primary industries, especially agriculture, which is reflected in the distribution of production and the working population;

(4) the underemployment of labour and, to a lesser extent, land resources;

(5) a shortage of capital within the area;

(6) a lack of receptivity to technical, economic and social change--although, it can be argued that, in agriculture at least, the scope for innovation is very low in relation to the scale of risks involved (Burton 1967:9).

Burton (1967) is concerned with market enterprises, those operated by farmers to supplement their income or by entrepreneurs in the problem rural areas. Specifically, he examines (1) holiday accommodation enterprises (camping sites and sites for touring caravans), and (2) specialized recreational enterprises (for purposes of the 1967 study, only horse riding establishments represented this category).

Emphasizing that he examined only a limited set of data in his study, Burton concludes:

> Increasing recreation demands and current political concern over depopulation and economic recession in rural areas have already created a favourable climate for the development of recreation enterprises in problem rural areas. But the relatively short holiday season and the high peak in patterns of holiday-making all tend to act as disincentives to any enterprises of a capital-intensive, high risk-bearing nature--at least for the local inhabitants. This means that the range of possible enterprises is restricted mainly to those holiday accommodation enterprises which involve the operator in little or no capital expenditure, such as camping sites, caravan sites and farm-house holiday accommodation. This case studies . . . have suggested however, that even these kinds of enterprises have very limited

> income and employment potential--at least as full-time enterprises; but, when operated as supplementary enterprises to farming activities in these areas, they can provide a very useful addition to farm incomes in return for a minimal outlay (Burton 1967:51).

The main point is that planners must be extremely careful in justifying parks or other proposed recreational developments on the basis of their tourism potential. Each area under consideration must be examined in detail, perhaps using the factors mentioned by Gunn as guides for realistic assessment.

Another economic component of recreational development is the potential impact of the development on the values of surrounding land. Clawson and Knetsch suggest that the increments in value of land may be large

> . . . for lakes with few or no points for public access and for some urban parks, but small for more remote areas with few access restrictions. In the case of large public areas where no private lands are near the primary recreation attraction, the increase in land values would probably be negligible or absent (1966:223-224).

Again, each area must be evaluated individually.

The Nature of Recreational Demand: A Planning Problem

In 1960 Clawson wrote:

> . . . people *demand* outdoor recreation. Out of their incomes, and of their own choice, they choose to spend large amounts of money, mental and physical energy, and time from their limited leisure in actually partaking of recreation. They are also willing to pay taxes for public activities in the recreation field, and demand from government at all levels that recreation opportunities be provided (1960:7).

As population increases, incomes rise, leisure time increases, new transportation modes increase mobility and new and better equipment for enjoying recreational activities are being developed, the demand

for recreational space and facilities is swelling. Brooks states that the use of recreational areas within a 75-mile radius of urban population centres in Canada will be 17 or 18 times the 1955 usage level by 1985 (1961:209).

A prerequisite to planning regional recreational services is an appreciation of the nature and scope of the various kinds of recreational demand. Recreational demand must be examined in terms of existing conditions and in light of possible future changes. Knowing that recreational demands in general will increase does not reveal what types of facilities and the magnitude of recreational space which will be needed. If future recreational demand patterns can be predicted with some degree of certainty, then governmental agencies can more rationally choose from alternatives for providing adequate recreational opportunities.

There are several other important reasons for forecasting the quantitative and qualitative values of non-urban recreational demand which will exist given a certain range of recreational opportunity or supply. First, such forecasts can help decision-makers recognize possible long-term implications of commitments made in the recreational field at present. Secondly, forecasts can aid in the preparation for recreational decisions which will have to be made quickly, economically and smoothly in the future (Shafer and Moeller 1971:6).

> If future recreation consumption can be predicted, the problem of rapid decision-making can be reduced, and the problems of implementing these decisions can be anticipated (Shafer and Moeller 1971:6).

Clawson and Knetsch and also Burton have provided the most well-known research into the aspects of demand for recreation. Burton ex-

plains demand in this way:

> Demand is . . . the technical term used to describe the relationship between the quantities of a product that people will purchase and prices. It refers to a desire which is backed up by ability and willingness to pay for the product which is desired. At any given price people will purchase a certain quantity of a product; and, as this price changes, so the quantity purchased is likely to change. Thus, demand refers to *a relationship between quantities and prices* (Burton 1971:23).

In terms of the meaning of non-urban recreational demand, Clawson and Knetsch mention two aspects,

> . . . in the popular sense, as applied to a specific area or facility, it means the total number of visitors; to the economist, it means a schedule of volume (visits, user-days, etc.) in relation to a price (cost of the recreation experience) (1966:41).

One clarification which needs to be made is the distinction between demand and consumption, two often confused concepts. Whereas demand is the "relationship between quantities and prices", consumption is the quantity actually used or consumed at some price. Consumption depends upon supply or the recreational opportunities which are available (Burton 1971:23-25; Clawson and Knetsch 1966:115).

> Without an explicit account taken of the dependence of use on facilities, 'demand' studies can direct planning efforts to wrong conclusions or to irrelevancies and blunt plans and investment policy in outdoor recreation (Knetsch 1970:133).

For example, if a playground provides only slides for children, the facilities may be used constantly with children queuing for their turn. However, to assume that this extreme use of slides is a true indication of the need or *demand* for more and more slides might be incorrect. The addition of swings, see-saws and sandboxes would bring a decrease in use of the slides and perhaps heavy use of the new facilities. Thus,

the demand had been for all these facilities, but use could only be made of the existing slides.

From Knetsch's viewpoint, emphasis should be placed on analysing recreational use patterns in relation to characteristics of the participants and to the specific leisure time opportunities available. Predictions should be made on the basis of how participation patterns will be expected to change given certain changes in recreational supply, i.e., opportunities (1970:135).

Recreational demand has been categorized in several levels:

(1) Effective or existing demand - the demand which currently exists (Burton 1971:26).

(2) Latent demand--a demand "which, for some reason, is not effective, but which would be so in other circumstances. It is a demand which is frustrated by such factors as the non-existence of facilities" (Burton and Noad 1968:3).

(3) Induced demand--demand which is created due to the provision of a supply of facilities. An entirely new demand (above and beyond any previously existing latent demand) may be generated for a new recreational facility (Burton 1971:26).

(4) Diverted demand--"a demand for a certain kind of facility which is diverted from one source of supply to another as a result of the provision of a new supply" (Burton 1971:26).

(5) Substitute demand--which is similar to diverted demand, but "refers to completely different recreation facilities"

(Burton 1971:27). An example of substitute demand would involve the construction of a swimming pool which attracts tennis players away from the courts.

The various levels of recreational demand are difficult to isolate and understand in any particular situation. For this reason the absolute demand for a facility to be provided in the future is extremely complicated to predict. This is especially true for new or experimental facilities with which the population surrounding the facility has never had contact (ORRRC 1962:32).

A multitude of variables seem to influence recreational consumption. Clawson and Knetsch list the factors as (1) those relating to the potential users, (2) those relating to the recreational area and (3) those relating to the link between potential users and the recreational area. Under the three major categories their list includes (1) the number of potential users in the tributary area, their residential distribution within the area, their socioeconomic characteristics, their amount of leisure time, their past experiences, their recreational preferences; (2) the innate attractiveness of the recreational area (as viewed by the average user), the intensity and character of its management, the area's capacity to accommodate visitors, climate and weather of the area, alternative recreational sites in the area; and (3) time required to reach the recreational area from residences, the comfort of travel, the monetary costs involved in a visit to the recreational area, and the degree to which advertising has stimulated demand (Clawson and Knetsch 1966:60).

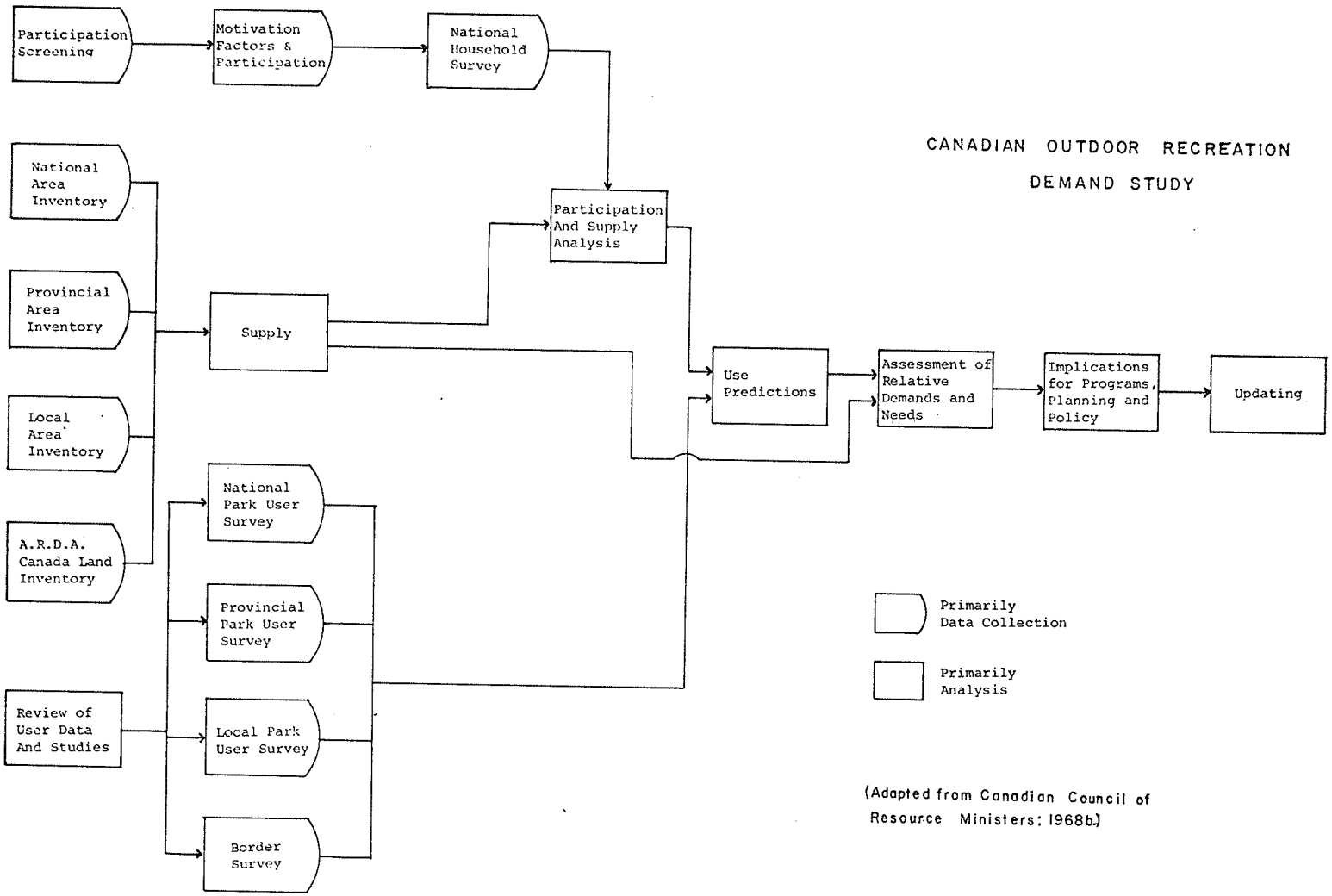
From the above list it can be seen that supply and consumption variables are very much interconnected. It must be noted that design and management can modify use to a great extent. Proper design and management can increase user satisfaction in parks and can also increase the recreational capacity of a park while still maintaining the quality of the recreational experience (Clawson and Knetsch 1966:55, 175).

Because such a wide range of variables affect the demand for non-urban recreation, prediction of recreational patterns in terms of numbers of participants, the amount of participation per visit, and the types of activities preferred at a proposed recreational site may be a formidable task. Although much research is necessary before resources can be allocated "to recreation in accordance with consumer preferences in the way other goods and services are allocated" (Knetsch 1963:387), a great deal of research is in progress. (Some researchers and planners would question whether such an economic allocation system should ever apply to recreation at all; see Driver and Tocher 1970).

A nationwide recreational demand study is underway in Canada. The factors to be considered by the Canadian Outdoor Recreation Demand Study (CORDS) are delineated in the flow chart in Figure I.

Several predictive models including gravity models, economic demand models, equations employing measurements of the physical characteristics of recreational sites and equations based on recreation-user characteristics have been developed and used. (For discussion of all these models and a brief review of their use, see Shafer and Moeller 1971. Other information regarding demand/supply recreational research is available in Burton and Noad 1968; Burton 1971; Gray and Blair 1970 and many others.)

FIGURE I



(Adapted from Canadian Council of Resource Ministers: 1968b.)

One important area which is often overlooked in recreational demand studies is the nature of factors which hinder participation in non-urban recreation. Research in this regard is essential in that a change of these restricting factors may change non-participants into recreational participants. (For additional information regarding restricting factors, see Gossen 1972.)

Factors restricting participation may relate to the qualitative values of recreation. Shafer and Moeller review past research into such qualitative aspects. They view user-satisfaction data as important pieces of information a manager needs in explaining current consumption rates and in deciding the level of use to be allowed in a recreational area (1971:18).

To the above considerations (and somewhat related to user-satisfaction research) Driver and Tocher add the necessity of research into the motivation behind an individual's recreational participation. Information from such inquiry would enable planners to provide distinct environmental arrangements geared to satisfaction of needs such as escape, exploration, creativity and status attainment (Driver and Tocher 1970:15-16).

Driver and Tocher maintain that, as they view recreation:

> . . .the demand for or supply of recreation . . . can never be predicted or projected. Can we project the demand for love, the supply of hostility, the future magnitude of society's greed or happiness? It is realized that we need measures of the extent to which recreational goals are being satisfied, but are we using the most appropriate measures? Certainly surrogates, such as rates of use (including numbers of visitors and visitor days), willingness to pay, resource supply and capacity, and other conventional measures must be used. But those measures tell us little about the output of recreation systems (1970:26).

Regardless of the most suitable measures, the demand for more and better recreational areas is evident. Because of the great recrea-

tional demand, planners and governmental decision-makers are involved in a system of trade-offs.

> Against these demands must be matched the needs for more rural land for urban development and for industry. The remaining land must cater for agriculture, timber production, water supply, minerals and many other needs of modern living. . . . The consequences of increased leisure activity, therefore, go further than the more immediate and observable impacts of crowded beaches or road congestion to affect, and often conflict with, nearly all interests in many different ways--ecological and scenic, economic and sociological, even political (Hookway and Davidson 1970:14).

The Recreational Planner's Use of Classification Systems and Standards

Most public recreational agencies are responsible for a number of parks, often varying widely in size, specific facilities provided, setting and function. To reduce this array to manageable terms, recreational planners use a variety of classification systems.

A frequently used system classifies areas by orientation. Clawson identifies the three major orientations of non-urban recreational areas as user-oriented, resource-based and intermediate (1961:97). The continuum ranges from active recreational spaces geared to user preferences all the way to wilderness type areas in which the primary intention is preservation of natural features.

Some parks may be set aside primarily for environmental preservation; others may provide for a wide range of user activities; still others may be a mixture of resource-based and user-oriented situations. Clawson thinks most recreationists want all three types for different times and purposes (1961:97).

The designation a site receives may depend on a number of elements including the ecological and psychological carrying capacity of the area,

the natural amenities of the site, its size, the funds available for development and importantly, the expressed needs or wishes of potential users.

The Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission proposed a more detailed system of site classification which contains six major categories or zones (see Appendix A). The ORRRC reasoned that adoption of the system would enhance the coordination of recreation efforts across the United States. The Commission also felt such a system would enable more consistent and effective planning of recreational areas by guiding more adequate matching of recreational use with the proper environment (1962:7). In other words,

> Under this approach of recreation zoning, the qualities of the respective classes of recreation environments are identified and therefore more readily enhanced and protected (ORRRC 1962:7).

For similar reasons, zoning has also been recommended for Canada's National Parks (Pearson 1971:65-67) as shown in Appendix B.

An important reservation, however, must be noted. Strict zoning systems

> . . . can lead to an over-separation of activities which could in fact be complementary. City planners are now seeing some detrimental effects of strict partition of the city into heavy industry, light industry, commercial, and residential. Each zone suffers from an internal sameness and a loss of the interest, contrast, diversity, and richness which can add to city life (Twiss 1970:139).

Alberta's Department of Municipal Affairs is examining the possible elements of an open space system for their province. Their preliminary analysis includes the development of a classification system based on a number of factors in addition to the orientation and physical features of open spaces. Size, location and accessibility, purpose and function

(including a spatial dimension of intensive/extensive use and a time dimension of day/overnight use), facilities and activities, management (ranging from high input to no management), level of use and responsible agency (including governmental and possible private responsibility) are the additional categories in the five level system (Personal Communication, Dant:1973).

The development of classification systems can prove to be a valuable tool in isolating variables to be considered in park planning. Another tool traditionally employed by planners is the adoption of standards. Planners have used recreational standards, often expressed in terms of the number of acres of recreational space needed per 1,000 people, to pinpoint areas of greatest need within a larger planning area and to serve as goals of achievement. (For a discussion of the early work by the National Recreation Association and George D. Butler regarding recreational standards, see Clawson and Knetsch 1966:147-148).

A 1969 study recommended "that 8 acres per thousand (1,000) population be considered an adequate and reasonable standard for public open-space within the entire Metropolitan Winnipeg area" (Problems Research Limited 1969:24). The study making the recommendation also stated that "Standards serve both as means of appraising present conditions and as goals for parks and recreation planning boards" (Problems Research Limited 1969:21).

Although standards are widely employed in recreational planning, they have been criticized for a number of reasons. In his 1957 doctoral dissertation, Hebert Gans presents a strong critique of standards-planning. He thinks that planners looking for an easy way of simplifying the planning

process, have adopted standards (which were meant as general guides) as absolute rules. Standards are ideals established from the recreational supplier's viewpoint. While recreational facilities should be the means of satisfying people's needs, the meeting of standards has become a goal instead. Thus, supplying the facility or a certain acreage of recreational space becomes the objective. Blanket standards applied to a large area allow for no distinctiveness between communities. (This is only a partial list of Gans' criticisms 1957:510-514).

Sessoms, a few years later, also writes in opposition to the traditional dependence upon standards. He argues that increasing leisure time, rising family incomes and accelerating mobility are causing rapid changes in recreational patterns. For this reason, standards are relevant only to the time in which they are prepared. Instead of relying on set standards of the number of open space acres required per one thousand population, planning should consider social variables and the function of recreation and people's need for it (Sessoms 1964:26-31).

Clawson and Knetsch agree that the use of standards of areal adequacy have disadvantages and that their use comprises a very limited approach to recreational planning.

> The location of an area, its physical characteristics, its design, its administration, and other factors are often as important as the actual areal extent. Moreover, 'standards' can never be rigid; each community must determine what its citizens want, and what role they assign to recreation. What can the community afford, and what is it willing to pay for? How does the demand for outdoor recreation compare with the demand or need for other public services which may compete for the same (usually limited) public investment funds? Parks and recreation are considered necessities by some but luxuries by others; willingness and ability to pay may be more critical than 'need,' and hence standards can be only general guides (Clawson and Knetsch 1966:147).

CHAPTER IV

RECREATIONAL SUB-SYSTEMS

In recreational planning it is essential to think

> . . . in terms of a balanced recreation system which extends from the small neighborhood park all the way out to the remote wilderness area. Where there are gaps in this system, there will be dislocations, overuse, and unmet demands (Styles 1970:57).

To ensure the provision of comprehensive recreational services to the citizenry, governments need to consider all suppliers of recreational areas and facilities within the total recreational system. From an awareness of the potential recreational role of private and quasi-public organizations, governmental entities can more adequately evaluate the leisure-time demands which must be met by the public sector.

Provision of Recreational Facilities

Within the North American context a wide spectrum of outdoor recreational facilities is provided in three major ways: by private entrepreneurs, by quasi-public agencies and by public bodies. Although in some situations these three sectors may be considered competitive, in most cases they seem to supply complementary facilities.

Private

Private enterprises experience many economic failures as well as successes in the provision of services related to recreational pursuits and in the provision of recreational facilities themselves. Several factors may reduce the attractiveness of recreational development as a

private investment. These aspects include the seasonal nature of many recreational enterprises, the high capital investment generally required, the possibility of recreational expenditure being the first item trimmed from the family budget in difficult times, the high labour input often required and the unpredictability of public tastes which affect recreational participation (Diamond 1970:171; for additional information, note Bevins 1971).

Perhaps governments, in deciding to provide recreational facilities as public services, have substantially reduced the opportunity for profitable private input. Yet, there seem to be four primary areas where private investment in leisure-time activities and facilities can be successful: (1) special high quality facilities catering to upper income groups; (2) non-urban recreation provided to increase associated land values, e.g., a residential cluster development around a golf course; (3) provision of supplemental services, e.g., food and accommodation near public recreational areas; and (4) concessions on publicly-owned land (Diamond 1970:173-174).

Ski resorts and amusement centres such as Disneyland or the immensely popular smaller-scale versions which dot the Southern United States are examples of facilities requiring large capital investments. The operation of some of these enterprises may depend upon high fees from participants while the success of others requires a large number of participants paying smaller fees.

The tourism industry is an important provider of basic services which in many instances are made more attractive by recreational adjuncts.

For example, a family may choose as their primary vacation destination a public campground inside a national park. While traveling to their destination, overnight stops may be made at private campgrounds which provide laundry and food services and extra amenities such as miniature golf courses and swimming pools or lakes. The basic tourist services--overnight accommodation, food and laundry facilities--are enhanced by and usually become more profitable because of the recreational opportunities provided.

When evaluating the total recreational system of an area, two primary factors must be considered in regard to the private sector:

> First, it cannot be expected to perform any welfare functions that outdoor recreation may be asked to provide for society. Second, private areas or facilities have no permanent dedication. If it is important that a particular private facility be perpetuated, public action of some kind may be necessary (Underhill 1970:36).

The role of private enterprise in the provision of certain types of recreational facilities is important, albeit tenuous in some instances.

Quasi-Public

A small portion of non-urban recreational facilities are provided by quasi-public institutions, e.g., religious organizations, universities and service clubs. While these facilities are occasionally available for the exclusive use by certain groups such as members of a service club or a specific religious sect, Boy Scouts, etc., in many cases quasi-public organizations attempt to help groups such as senior citizens, low-income families and handicapped individuals whose needs are not being met by governmental agencies.

In some cases a quasi-public agency may also raise funds to purchase recreational equipment and/or space where, for financial or other

reasons, a governmental body has not responded to an expressed need. This procedure seems to be fairly common in small rural communities and in some urban neighborhoods.

The importance of quasi-public entities in the total recreational network, then, is their ability to relieve some pressure from public recreation agencies and their efforts to provide special facilities for various groups.

Public

Governmental concern with non-urban recreation stems from two major areas of responsibility: (1) land use control, and (2) the provision of social services.

While land seemed plentiful and unlimited in North America, public lands were given away or sold cheaply. However, as population increased and the automobile allowed greater mobility, governments began to realize

> . . . that not all the answers to land development and management problems should lie in the hands of private owners.
> The idea grew that the public could and should take a hand in preserving beauty, providing recreation, and molding the character of its living environment (Weissburg 1961:27).

Land has become increasingly scarce and expensive due to competing land use demands. Various levels of government have felt increasing pressure to set aside additional areas for recreational use. (For further discussion regarding the rationale for public responsibility for outdoor recreation, refer to Clawson and Knetsch 1966:265-271).

Private and quasi-public agencies cannot meet all the demands for recreation.

> Private enterprise can seldom obtain areas of land, or create areas of water, large enough for the more space-demanding sports like rowing, . . ., gliding, water-ski-ing. It has no incentive,

> and often no powers, to make the essential network of footpaths, bridle paths, cycle tracks; or to create the vital substructure of roads, car parks and water systems (Dower 1965:157).

North American societies have made the judgment that recreational facilities should be available to all citizens although many individuals cannot afford to bear directly the cost of the service.

> In other words, government intervenes to redistribute income (free recreation opportunities are a form of income) by making recreation services available to people at no cost or less than the actual cost. In a sense we recognize an external economy. Not only does the individual benefit from his participation in outdoor recreation; other members of society presumably benefit from the improved health and well being of the individual (Fox 1970:216-217).

Governments, using funds derived from taxes, can provide a wide range of recreational opportunities for the enjoyment of all citizens. This social service is demanded by the public.

Cooperation and Coordination

For each to function effectively, coordination among suppliers of recreational facilities is necessary. The ORRRC recognized the need for cooperation and assistance in this regard (Underhill 1970:35). Coordination can mean the provision of a wider range of facilities and thus a broader choice for the consumer.

Various forms of public aid may be available to private landowners who wish to develop recreational areas open to the public. Planning and research assistance along with loans and subsidies are means frequently used (Clawson and Knetsch 1966:312-313).

While private and quasi-public agencies do provide recreational opportunities, the dominant role in North America belongs to the various levels of government. It is the public responsibility with which this thesis is primarily concerned.

Levels of Public Recreational Facilities to Serve Levels of Need

Recreational facilities are supplied by various levels of government and supplemented by private and quasi-public agencies. These facilities offer each person a hierarchy of recreational opportunities based on the geographical location of facilities, personal mobility, amount of leisure time and money to pay for direct and indirect services to satisfy wants (Pleva 1969:213).

> A zonal pattern seems to surround each individual to include a nearby area of daily involvement, an intermediate zone of day-trip and weekend recreational needs, and a more amorphous outer belt of camping and vacation needs. The sorting out of these millions of individual zonal patterns . . . is the primary obligation of recreation, land-use, and resources planners (Pleva 1969:213-214).

Planners working at most governmental levels consider the sphere of influence or the zone of need to be satisfied by parks they provide. Recreational areas supplied at all levels should be complementary and form a total parks system of interworking entities.

National

National parks are generally very large areas with unique natural features significant to the nation as a whole. The parks are established to preserve the environment and its wildlife and to provide recreational opportunities for vacationers and occasionally for weekend visitors.

Canada's National Parks are administered for the federal government by the National and Historical Parks Branch of the Department of Indian and Northern Affairs. The establishment of Banff in 1885 marked the beginning of Canada's National Parks System which in 1973 contained 28 parks. Some of these parks receive extremely heavy usage. Within the next 30 years Parks Canada anticipates the creation of 40 to 60 additional

parks to lighten the stress on existing parks and to provide greater diversification of landscape features. Parks Canada has to move quickly "to acquire new park lands before they are lost to industrialization and urbanization, or priced beyond the public pocketbook" (Parks Canada 1973).

Although for each existing national park there exists a provisional master plan which is used as a long term guide to preservation and development of the area (Brooks 1969:314), the administration of Canada's National Parks has long been plagued by the lack of clear policies and purposes. In most instances policies have been developed piecemeal to correct various situations rather than to avoid them. Some of the national parks serve as family recreational areas while others serve primarily as preservation of unique physical or historical qualities (Pearson 1971:6). The five major types of Canadian national parks are described in Appendix B.

A number of federal agencies in addition to Parks Canada have input into recreational resource preservation, development and related efforts.

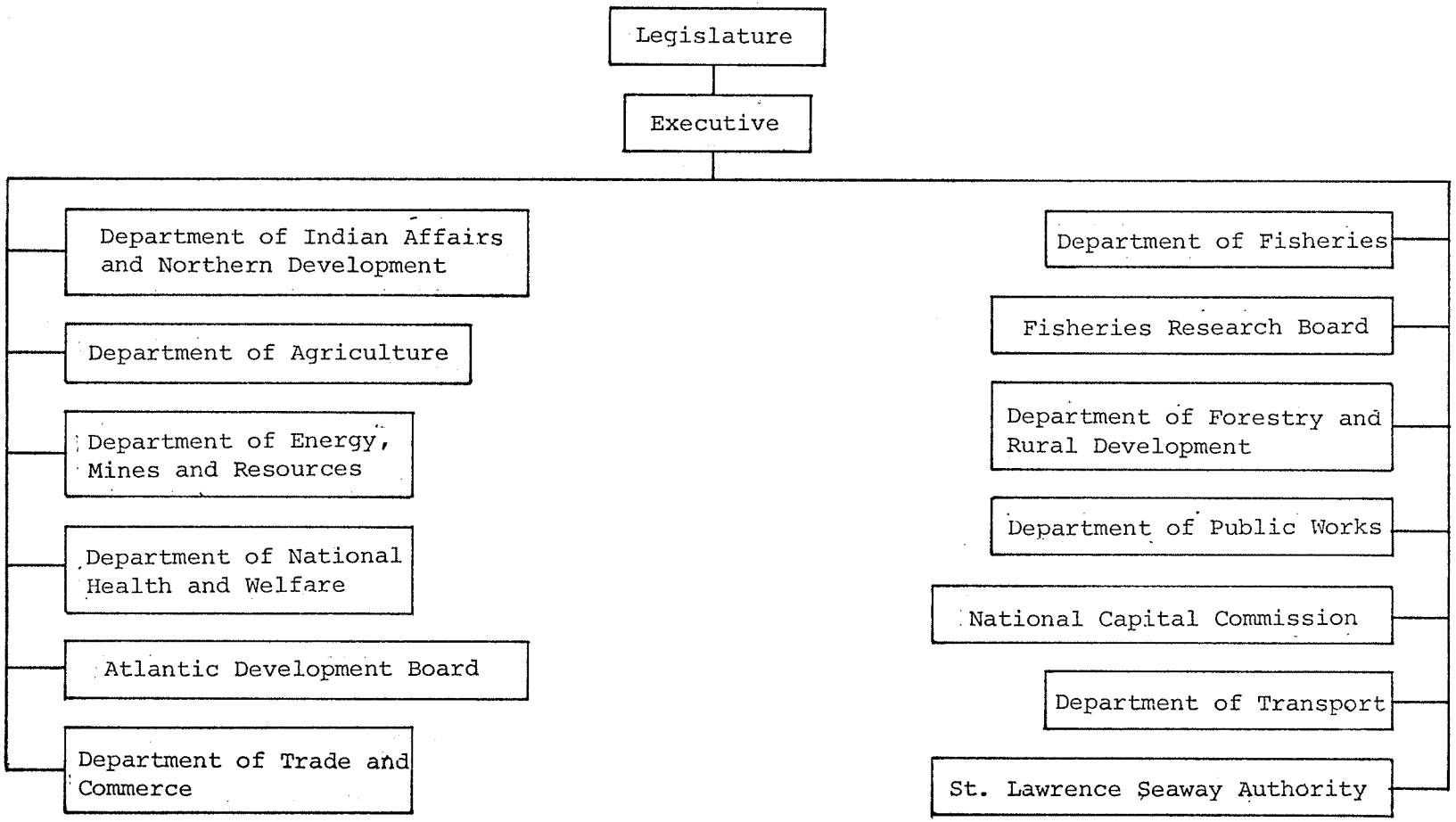
> The Department of Transport manages waterways for boating; the Department of Public Works builds marinas and public wharves; the Department of Fisheries develops and manages fishery resources; the Canadian Wildlife Service is responsible for migratory waterfowl; the Indian Affairs Branch assists Indians in developing recreation resources, . . . the federal Tourist Branch promotes tourism and undertakes travel research (Brown 1969:233-234).

This is only a partial list (see Figure 2).

Federal-provincial cost-sharing agreements such as provided by the Agricultural Rehabilitation and Development Act (ARDA) and the Fund for Rural Economic Development (FRED) assist projects to develop

FIGURE 2

ADMINISTRATION OF OUTDOOR RECREATION IN THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT OF CANADA



(Adapted from Canadian Council of Resource Ministers: 1968a.)

non-urban recreation in rural areas. Also, the Canada Land Inventory, begun under ARDA, will provide data essential for planning for recreation and environmental preservation.

A number of agencies are also involved in national recreation in the United States. The National Parks there have a purpose similar to their Canadian counterparts--preservation of natural areas of beauty with unique flora and fauna, i.e., preservation of wilderness. The first United States National Park was Yellowstone, established in 1872, and the National Park Service was formed by Congress forty-five years later to administer the Parks System (Tilden 1968:20).

The Park Service administers a large number of sites across the United States and provides a wide range of facilities to accommodate many recreational interests. This action agency is the most important one of many concerned with non-urban recreation. The United States government has recognized the need for coordination of these agencies and for a more comprehensive approach to national recreation.

In 1959 the government, by special legislation, established the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission for research and planning purposes. On the recommendation of the Commission, the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation in the United States Department of the Interior was established (Clawson and Knetsch 1966:290).

The primary federal responsibilities in the United States for non-urban recreation are threefold:

> First, there is the nationwide outdoor recreation plan. It is being prepared by the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation; it will be broad in scope--a coordinating vehicle for action programs by all levels of government and by private agencies and entrepreneurs. Second, there is the planning function of each action

> agency such as the National Park Service, the Forest Service, the Army Corps of Engineers, the Bureau of Sport Fisheries and Wildlife, the Tennessee Valley Authority, and so forth, all of which must develop long-range plans for performing their particular responsibility in the outdoor-recreation field . . . The third federal responsibility is to assist other levels of government in their recreation planning. This is being accomplished to a considerable degree with the grants-in-aid, technical assistance, basic research, and other assistance to state and local planning agencies (Underhill 1970:38).

The federal governments of Canada and the United States assume the responsibility for outdoor recreation through a number of agencies. Their efforts are evident to the public from the national parks which primarily serve the needs of large numbers of people for some level of wilderness experience. While attempting to preserve the parks in their natural states for the enjoyment of future generations, the recreational agencies have, in the past, also tried to provide active recreational areas of a more developed nature.

Provincial or State

Naturally, some overlap of function and types of recreational opportunities provided, exists across the various governmental levels. In some cases, national and provincial (or state) parks may be very similar. However, provinces and states differ among themselves regarding the facilities they choose to provide in parks under their administration.

A basic purpose of Canadian provincial parks is to offer the public new experiences in environments different from those of their everyday lives. Appreciation of nature and man's cultural heritage are often basic experiences in provincial park settings (Turner 1963:131).

The concept of multiple use of provincial parks in terms of recreation, mining, timber harvesting, etc. is a controversial issue. However,

the prevailing feeling of parks officials seems to be that stated by Turner:

> At the core of the philosophy and the principles that have evolved over North America as a whole, on both the federal and state or provincial levels, in respect of use of parks, there stands out the concept that multiple use of natural resources has neither place nor application in national or state or provincial parks . . .
>
> . . . When an area is dedicated to public recreation and the intended recreational benefits depend on natural resources being in place and intact as is the case with resource-oriented provincial parks, the utilization of certain of the components of the natural scene for purposes not directly related to public recreation is a violation of park use (Turner 1963:135-136).

Thus, in a sense provincial parks are similar in purpose to national parks. They are concerned with scenic and historical areas significant to the province.

Across Canada provincial parks vary widely in size, physical amenities and facilities provided. The criteria which an area must meet to be designated a provincial park vary due to the wide range of natural conditions and political arrangements in the provinces. However, the areas selected as provincial parks most frequently are spacious, have pleasant and interesting natural environments and are practical to maintain (Turner 1963:139).

Provincial parks typically provide opportunities for:

> . . . sightseeing . . .; strolling, hiking and mountaineering; swimming and water sports; picnicking; camping, boating and canoeing; fishing; hunting (in some parks); nature study; study of cultural history; collecting (non-destructive), photography, other art hobbies; outdoor sports and games in certain types of parks (Turner 1963:139-140).

In Canada provincial parks seem to serve mainly weekend and holiday visits. Visitors to provincial parks are most frequently in-province residents who on the average only visit the park two or three times per year (Turner 1963:140).

In the United States, state parks also differ greatly from state to state. State parks may be both user-oriented and resource-oriented at the same time. They may provide areas only for all-day outings or they may cater to overnight visitors as well as to day users.

Generally the basic criteria for state parks are similar to those for provincial parks. A state park is:

> . . . a relatively spacious area of outstanding scenic or wilderness character, oftentimes containing also significant historical, archaeological, ecological, geological, and other scientific values, preserved as nearly as possible in their original or natural condition and providing opportunity for appropriate types of recreation where such will not destroy or impair the features and values to be preserved. Commercial exploitation of resources is prohibited (Tilden 1962: 11-12).

In 1962 there were approximately 2,800 state parks and related recreation areas in the United States. The 5.8 million acres of state parkland were visited by over 273 million persons each year and were administered by more than a hundred state park agencies (Tilden 1962:41).

Regional

Some governments feel a responsibility to provide, between the provincial or state level and the local level, regional open space and recreational facilities. Parks functioning at this intermediate position are described by various terms, such as county parks, inter-county parks or regional parks, which may indicate the governmental entity administering the facility.

Regional parks may be acquired, developed and maintained by a county government, a regional governmental body (such as a Council of Governments in the United States), a parks authority composed of representatives from a number of counties or, in some instances, by the state

or provincial government. A mixture of these agencies may be responsible for any one regional park, too.

It seems unfair for one district to bear the financial burden and the ecological impact of heavy use of its facilities by users from other districts. The establishment of regional parks is frequently an attempt to overcome such problems.

> One municipality alone cannot afford to acquire and develop parks for use by all comers. Frequently too, the best remaining park opportunities are in those district municipalities least able to afford acquisition. In these areas of uncertain responsibility the provincial government can reasonably be expected to show leadership in guiding the formation of a regional park authority, representative of a group of cities and municipalities and empowered and financed to acquire, develop, operate, and administer parks of significance to the entire region. Such an agency may require financing not only by the member local governments but by the provincial government as well (Turner 1963:134-135).

High quality recreational sites may be located at the juncture of several political boundaries and hence, their acquisition and development will require cooperation among governmental agencies from different jurisdictions.

Acquiring regional open spaces and parks at the fringe of large urban areas is the concern of many cities. They seek such spaces primarily for the purposes of meeting (1) the recreational needs of urban dwellers and (2) the greenbelt "needs" of metropolitan areas. In other situations, regional parks may be located in rural areas to provide facilities for farm populations.

Although regional parks can be both user- and resource-oriented at the same time, they tend to be much more user-oriented than are national or provincial parks (Hookway and Davidson 1970:25). Most

regional parks provide facilities for day-outings and some may serve overnight users, too (National Association of Counties 1964:17).

Local

Local parks are more numerous than are national, provincial or regional parks. Local parks may be in the form of ornamental vest-pocket parks in downtown areas with only a few benches, mini-parks with play equipment for small children, school playgrounds and other play-fields, small neighborhood parks or larger recreation areas with play spaces and equipment, trees, flowers and water nearby and relaxation areas. Local recreational areas are oriented to the users and thus, are in highly accessible locations, frequently within walking distance of the home.

In rural areas local parks are generally baseball diamonds, football fields or hockey rinks where children and adults can gather for Saturday competitions. Because farms are spread relatively far apart, such parks are not within walking distance of many farm homes.

Local recreational areas are generally administered by city or town agencies.

Cooperation Across Levels

National, provincial, regional and local parks in a well-planned and coordinated recreational system each have their special role to perform. While national and provincial parks serve similar purposes, a well-planned provincial parks network can alleviate the pressures of over-use in national parks. Likewise, regional and local parks, by providing equipment for intensive use forms of recreation, can ease the demand on provincial parks to provide such facilities and thus allow provincial areas to preserve unique environments.

Planning and financial assistance from a higher level of government to a lower one is common. The federal government may provide aid to enable provinces to develop adequate parks networks. Provincial assistance to regional park authorities has been mentioned above. Provinces may also supply planning aid and financial assistance to local agencies for the establishment of local parks.

With the various levels of government involved in the provision of recreational facilities, many problems arise. Not only are there specific agencies charged with recreational responsibilities, but other entities whose primary interests may be water resources, timber lands, etc. also have some authority in recreational development.

Some federal programs may interfere with provincial recreational planning. For example, federal assistance programs such as ARDA may influence a province to develop recreational facilities in "those parts of the province eligible for grants, rather than those parts best serving provincial recreation needs" (Brown 1969:234).

Likewise, problems may occur when a provincial park is designed to use foreshores which are regulated by the Navigable Waters Protection Act. Although the province seems the most logical body to govern the foreshores within the park, the federal government has control (Turner 1963:137).

The need for greater coordination between various levels of government and among neighboring units of government seems to be an important aspect in recreational planning.

> There must be complementarity between systems through a clear understanding of the different roles played by different types of parks. This has not always been the case in Canada, consequently we have some provincial parks which would qualify

as national parks and might more logically be administered as such. Alternatively, we have national parks which function more as provincial, or even regional parks, that should be released in whole, or in part, as such (Brooks 1970:315).

CHAPTER V

REGIONAL PARKS

Concept and Function

The term "regional park" may suggest several niches in the total public recreational framework. In national economic planning Canada is divided into several regions. If regional parks were determined by these large economic and geographic regions, there might be prairie parks, maritime parks, etc. to serve large sectors of the country's population. Currently, federal parks seem to be established along these lines of preserving samples of geographically-determined regions. In fact, Parks Canada (1973) lists their parks by "region": Atlantic, Quebec, Ontario, Prairie and Western.

In his study of national park policies in Canada, Pearson suggests that the provision of one National Park in each province would be a means of satisfying "regional" needs for wilderness recreation experiences. The "regions to be served by each National Park would be quite large, covering the population within a radius of 300 miles (or a day's drive) from such a park" (Pearson 1971:19).

Another concept of regional parks is used in England, the United States and parts of Canada. The regions under primary consideration are urban regions. One study defined a "regional recreation park" in this way:

> This is a large reservation, preferably with unique scenic character. It serves one or more cities, or an entire metro-

> politan region, and is often outside the corporate boundaries of cities. Its purpose can be threefold: to preserve a portion of the natural landscape, to supplement the recreation facilities available in urban areas and to act as a greenbelt separating cities in a large, highly developed metropolitan region (California Committee on Planning for Recreation, Park Areas and Facilities 1958: 239).

In Manitoba the provision of facilities for residents of the region immediately surrounding the city is an important concern of the Winnipeg Region Study Committee. Planning for the wise use of land in the urban region has great merit. After all, it is the urban centre which has the greatest population concentrations and the attendant social and land-use problems. It is also the urban region which experiences the greatest population increases (mainly in the suburban and urban fringe areas) and the consequences of a sharp rise in demand for recreational spaces.

Regional parks serving several urban areas can provide special facilities which the people of one town may not be able to support. A gliding club, for example, might require regional participation. Perhaps not enough people live in one town to maintain gliding facilities, but through joining with gliding enthusiasts from all parts of the region, they may increase substantially the support for such facilities (Dower 1965:130).

Depending upon the intensity of development and use, regional open spaces and parks can be ecologically beneficial in rapidly urbanizing districts. Regional open-space areas can (1) preserve land areas necessary for water absorption to replenish groundwater supplies; (2) shelter unique flora and fauna which cannot withstand the influx of urban development; and (3) reduce natural hazards by preventing the

urbanization of floodplains and areas of unstable soil conditions (Rockwell 1971:36).

Although the emphasis in many places has been on regional parks and open spaces which serve urban areas, an examination of regional parks in another context would be beneficial. Recreational areas, probably smaller in size than urban-based regional parks, to serve *rural regions*, composed of several rural municipalities or counties might also be necessary in certain situations.

Many rural areas have acute problems which make regional planning for all aspects of the social-economic-physical environment a necessity. Factors such as insufficient funds due to a small tax base, great distances between facilities and inadequate existing facilities necessitate regional coordination and cooperation in recreational planning.

Regional planning would allow pooling of resources (natural, financial, administrative and social) to provide park areas which an individual town or rural municipality could not afford. These facilities would provide for one day outings and perhaps serve as destination points for weekend trips. Parks in *rural*, rather than national or urban, regions are the primary concern of this study.

Regional Parks in Other Provinces and Countries

Other provinces and countries have established a variety of recreational areas which they term "regional parks". As mentioned previously, many of these parks are oriented to urban users.

Hookway and Davidson report that many European countries have recreation and conservation areas classified in a hierarchy of importance: national through regional to local (1970:24).

> Unlike national parks and nature reserves, regional and local parks have been primarily designed to serve a recreational function, and in particular to cater for the needs of urban populations. The Lee Valley and Cohn regional parks in east and west London, the French parcs regioneaux and the freizeit parks of the Ruhr Valley, are all designed to offer a wide variety of opportunities for gregarious and solitary leisure activity for town-dwellers (Hookway and Davidson 1970:25).

In addition to providing regional parks near London, Britain is making efforts toward establishing other regional or "country" parks. The Countryside Acts for Scotland (1967) and England and Wales (1968) provide government grants for such sites to be established by local authorities and private enterprises. These areas will be primarily oriented toward intensive use by local residents (Hookway and Davidson 1970:25).

Grants are available from the Countryside Commission to encourage the improvement of inadequate facilities and the provision of new country parks, preferably on derelict or under-used land (Patmore 1970:243).

Twenty-five percent of the cost of such parks must come from the local authority or private agency receiving a grant from the Countryside Commission. A variety of country parks, including a linear one, have been established under this assistance scheme. It is hoped that such parks will become parts of a well-planned and recognized system (Patmore 1970: 243-245).

In the United States several areas have created regional parks, again mainly to serve urban needs. At least as early as 1928 regional parks, under state administration, were proposed for New York (Hammer 1928:193).

Chicago planners are considering a multi-functional regional open-space network which they hope will provide recreational areas, protect

the environment and direct and shape the pattern of metropolitan growth (Rockwell 1971:36).

Planners in the San Francisco Bay Area have also wisely taken a comprehensive look at regionally significant open spaces. Such regional spaces include watersheds, agricultural lands, marshlands and shorelines as well as large natural reserves and parks. The Bay Area planners see the open space network functioning in several ways including:

(1) conservation of natural resources;

(2) reserves for often unpredictable future needs;

(3) maintenance of agriculture near city markets;

(4) prevention of the sprawl of new developments into the countryside;

(5) providing a sense of rural life within view of urban dwellers;

(6) protection of city dwellers from noise and other nuisances; and

(7) above all, recreation (Herring 1961:11).

The Bay Area has experienced a great deficiency in governmental provision of regional parks which serve as weekend destination points. In the early 60's an enabling act was prepared to remedy the situation by permitting the formation of inter-county park and recreation districts (Robinson 1961:25-26). The proposed act has been summarized as follows:

(a) A minimum of five counties is required to form such a district. This insures that it will be truly regional in character and thus able to cover weekend recreation use.

(b) It contemplates combination in a single district of the metropolitan areas of residence and the outlying counties in which weekend recreation takes place.

(c) It permits the counties to agree upon the powers and restrictions on district activity . . .

(d) The proposed district is permitted to engage only in park and recreation activities which primarily serve other than purely local needs, thus avoiding the pressure to take over local parks and playgrounds (Robinson 1961:25-26).

Bay Area planners realize that people use parks without regard to political boundaries and that parks should be planned, developed and administered in the same fashion.

Ventura County, California in 1968 had 21 regional parks and had drawn up a general plan for regional park development. Riding and hiking trails linking the regional parks were recommended wherever possible (Ventura County Planning Commission 1968:6).

Oregon is also interested in developing regional recreational areas. In the early 60's five Oregon counties and three California counties created the California-Oregon Recreational Development Association. This agency

> . . . has as its goal, coordinated regional planning . . . , spurring the federal government to develop the recreational resources within their jurisdictions, and assistance to counties and industries with their park and recreation programs (Jackson 1964:22).

Many of Oregon's rural counties have small populations and very limited budgets, and they have seen the need for regional recreation.

Their actions in this regard have primarily involved (1) preserving public lands (although funds for development are currently limited), and (2) appointing park commissions to inventory potential recreational sites and to recommend which should be acquired for future public usage (Jackson 1964:262).

In the Eastern United States counties in Virginia are involved in regional park planning. The Virginia Park Authorities Act permits political entities to form a park authority. In 1959 the Northern Virginia Park Authority was created. It depends on its member jurisdictions for funds (DeBell 1964:211).

Land acquisition, rather than development, was being stressed in the Northern Virginia Park Authority's program in its beginning phase. The Authority felt that regional parks should preserve the natural beauty of the Virginia countryside and should provide opportunities for picnicking, camping, hiking, fishing, boating, nature study and passive enjoyment (DeBell 1964:212).

Further south in the United States, the Atlanta Regional Planning Commission has included regional recreational areas in its long-range planning for the region (National Association of Counties 1964:3).

The National Association of Counties in the United States, concerned about the recreational responsibilities of counties, recognizes the need for county response at the regional level to fill needs not met by local and state facilities (National Association of Counties 1964:1). However, their main interest seems to lie with the function of rural counties as they serve the recreational needs of nearby urban populations, rather than the needs of rural residents themselves.

Within Canada several provinces have made efforts in the direction of regional parks. In the late 50's and early 60's W. M. Baker, a park planning consultant, researched the provincial programs of assistance to municipalities for regional and local park development across Canada. In January 1964 he summarized his findings and reported the following to the Manitoba Parks Branch:

> Many provincial governments have provided technical and financial aid to municipalities and quasi-public organizations of various types for the development and improvement of local and regional outdoor recreation areas and facilities. However, in many cases assistance has been on an ad hoc basis with no firm provincial policies, regulations and long range objectives governing decisions. Only the Provinces of Saskatchewan, Ontario and Alberta* have what might be termed formalized programs of assistance and in the latter no legislation and associated regulations have been prepared (Baker 1964b:1).

Although the ad hoc basis for assistance continues in many instances, more firm policies and regulations exist today regarding regional parks.

Ontario's Parks Assistance Act allows grants from the provincial government to a municipality for acquisition of land and its development as an approved park and for the conversion of existing provincial or public parks into approved parks.

The Council of a municipality may enter into agreement with other councils of municipalities for the purposes of establishing an approved park, acquiring land, developing and operating the park (Province of Ontario 1968:s.3).

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*Although the Alberta Provincial Parks Division has considered the adoption of a regional parks system, no such policy has been undertaken and no regional parks have been created in the province (Personal Communication, Galliver:1973).

Before the Minister approves a park for assistance, the applicants must file plans and specifications of the proposed park setting out the necessity for acquiring, developing or converting the proposed park. This includes statements regarding existing parks in the area which provide picnicking, camping and bathing facilities. Also, the applicants must state their plans for maintenance, operation and policing of the park and the costs expected and the method of financing. For land acquisition and development grants, applicants must estimate the costs involved and specify financial arrangements (Province of Ontario 1968: Reg. 475, s.1).

Assistance granted for the acquisition of land for an approved park has a maximum of $25,000 or 50 percent of the total acquisition costs, whichever is the lesser. The total assistance granted "shall not exceed $100,000 or 50 percent of the total cost of acquiring the land and developing the park or the cost of converting a provincial park into an approved park, whichever is the lesser" (Province of Ontario 1968:s.3).

If a grant is made, the applicants must: (1) assume responsibility for maintenance, operation and policing of the park; (2) establish and maintain overnight camping facilities, trailer camping facilities, picnic areas with tables and shelters, sanitation facilities, drinking water and entrance roads; (3) collect fees which are not less than fees charged in provincial parks and which as much as practicable pay for operation and maintenance of the special facilities; and (4) limit the number of days an individual may trailer camp in the park (Province of Ontario 1968:Reg. 475, s.2).

Ontario, by 1973, had 134 parks approved under this Act (Personal Communication, Christian:1973).

In his 1964 report, Baker said that Ontario's Parks Assistance Act at that time offered a maximum grant of $50,000 for land acquisition and development. Many municipalities felt that ceiling was too low, especially in urban areas (Baker 1964:7). In 1968 that maximum was raised to $100,000 and in 1973 the removal of the $100,000 ceiling was recommended to the Ontario Legislature (Personal Communication, Christian:1973).

Baker found two other criticisms of the Ontario Parks Assistance Act from the viewpoints of municipalities.

> To be eligible for assistance a park must provide overnight camping facilities. This restricts the value of the program in terms of general or total park development. Secondly, the local authorities must levy parking and camping charges that are at least equal to those at Provincial Parks. Many municipalities find this regulation impractical (Baker 1964b:7-8).

These two regulations remain unchanged today in the Ontario legislation.

Since Baker's report, British Columbia has passed a Regional Parks Act. The legislation was enacted in 1965 to provide a mechanism for acquisition of rural parks and to preserve from rapid subdivision vital features such as hillsides and waterfronts (Personal Communication, Roberts:1973).

Under British Columbia's Regional Parks Act two or more municipalities may apply to the provincial government and then be incorporated as a regional park district. The Minister may make grants for acquiring and/or developing regional parks and/or regional trails. The maximum grant will be "one-third of the total expenditures of the regional park district in that year for such purposes"(Province of British Columbia 1965: s.13).

Within five years of its formation, a Regional Parks Board must prepare a regional park plan, get the Minister's approval of the plan,

and by bylaw designate it as an official regional park plan. Such a plan can be in terms of a general scheme, without specific detail, which indicates present and projected regional parks. If at the end of five years, the Board has not designated an official regional park plan, the Minister may withhold any further grants until the plan is designated and approved (Province of British Columbia 1971:s.18).

The Capital Region was the first in British Columbia to take advantage of the Regional Parks Act. Each of the seven municipalities and five of the electoral areas in the region spend one-half mill annually on regional parks, and the provincial government provides a one-third grant. The Capital Regional District has twelve parks, a total of 11,000 acres, in its program (Personal Communication, Roberts:1973).

The Greater Vancouver Regional District (GVRD) had by 1972 acquired 2,561 acres. The first priority of the GVRD Parks Committee is the *acquisition* of land with development of sites given a lower priority. Fifteen of the seventeen communities comprising the GVRD participate in the parks program along with four municipalities located outside the GVRD boundaries (Bird 1972:2).

Smaller regional districts have also begun regional parks programs with emphasis on acquisition rather than development for the time being (Personal Communication, South:1973).

Regional parks in British Columbia provide for simple recreation such as walking, swimming and fishing. Many of the parks are linked by trails (Personal Communication, Roberts:1973).

Saskatchewan has probably done more in terms of regional parks than any other province. In 1973 there were 85 of them scattered around the

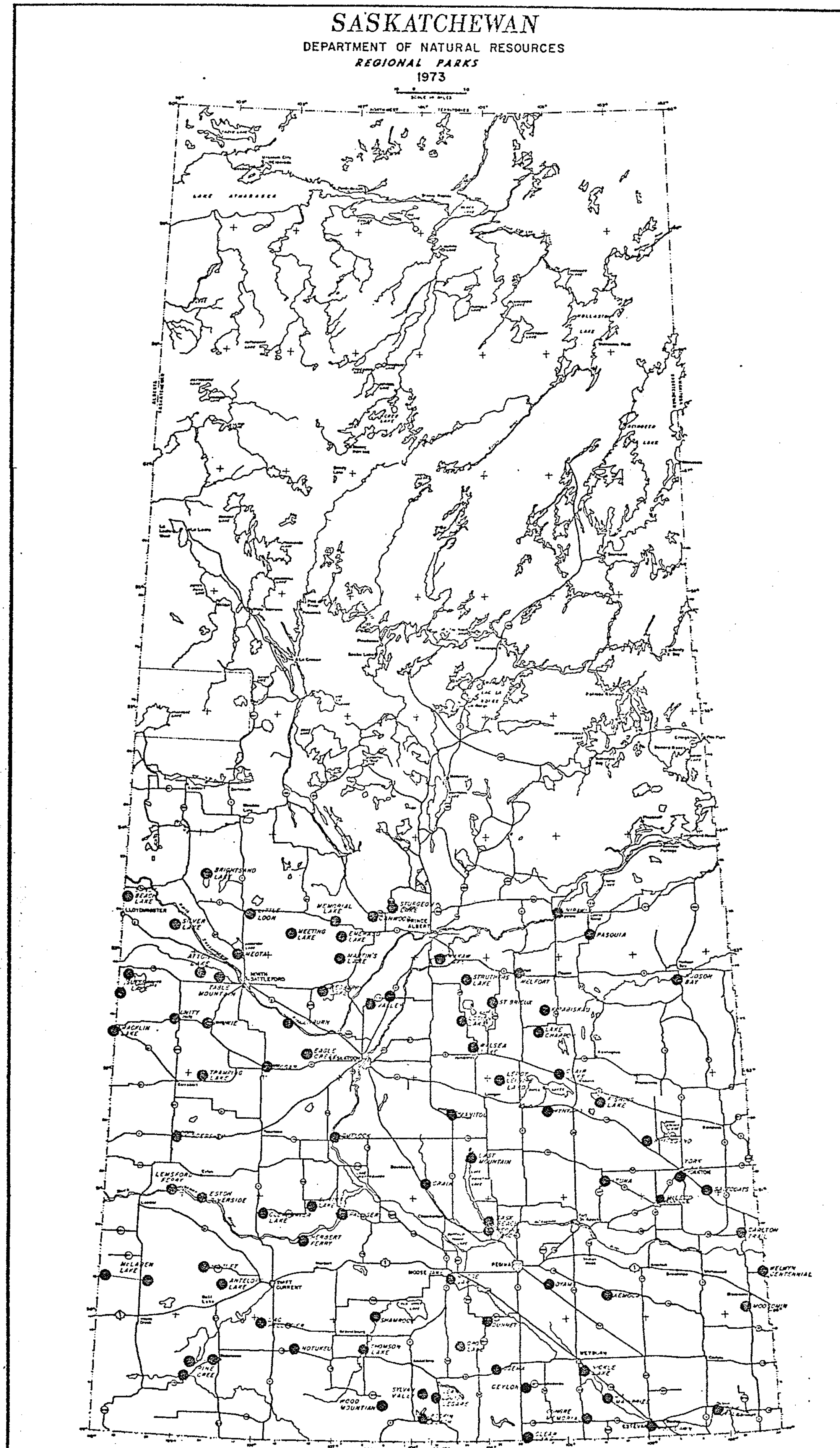
province (see Figure 3). Almost all of Saskatchewan's regional parks have swimming facilities, either a pool or a lake. Most also provide children's playgrounds and fishing, boating and waterskiing areas. Over half of the parks have golf courses. Some of the parks provide electrical and water hook-ups, showers, laundry and other services while others are oriented more toward the camper who likes to "rough it".

Saskatchewan's regional parks program was started in 1960 with the enactment of the Regional Parks Act and Regulations. The recommendation for such a program arose from a report by Baker regarding recreation needs in Saskatchewan. Baker's study clearly demonstrated the need for recreational facilities in the settled areas of the Province to augment outdoor recreational opportunities provided by the Provincial Parks (Rathwell n.d.:1). At its beginning, the program's prime objective was to serve the needs of rural residents, but now "there is a definite trend in the program to provide recreational facilities that are oriented toward the needs of the larger urban centre" (Personal Communication, Rathwell:1974).

Under the Regional Parks Act, a municipality or two or more municipal (rural, town, village, city and Local Improvement District) bodies in mutual agreement can apply to the minister for establishment of a Regional Parks Authority. The participating municipalities are responsible for appointments to an approved Regional Park Authority. The Authority acquires, administers, operates and maintains its regional park(s).

Generally, a regional park will not be approved unless it contains more than fifteen acres, is more than fifty miles from a provincial park or provincial recreational area and is not within twenty-five miles of

FIGURE 3


SASKATCHEWAN
DEPARTMENT OF NATURAL RESOURCES
REGIONAL PARKS
1973

an existing regional park. The park must also be clearly shown to serve a distinct regional function (Province of Saskatchewan 1968:s.9).

Financing of regional parks involves a cost-sharing arrangement whereby sixty percent of the capital improvement costs are paid by the Province and the remaining forty percent by the sponsoring municipalities. A Regional Park Authority also receives a capital maintenance grant equivalent to fifty percent of actual maintenance expenditures for capital improvements and equipment up to five percent of the value of the inventory (Rathwell n.d.:1).

The types of facilities for which a Regional Park Authority can receive capital grants include picnic areas (tables, shelters, etc.), sportsgrounds and playgrounds, playground equipment, beach improvements, golf courses, campgrounds (and all improvements, tables, burners, clearing roads, water installation, etc.), buildings (maintenance buildings, sanitation, change houses) and services such as roads, fences, signs, electricity, sewage and landscaping (Rathwell n.d.:2).

The Province will not provide assistance for the development within regional parks of cottage subdivisions, museums, art exhibits, zoos, skating or curling rinks, community centres, gymnasiums or for commercial facilities excluding camping facilities, trailer sites and concession booths (Province of Saskatchewan 1968:s.10).

Approximately $400,000 is budgeted annually for Saskatchewan's provincial contribution to Regional Parks with $100,000 budgeted for the maintenance grant (Rathwell n.d.:2).

Concerning the success of the program, the Administrator of Regional Parks in Saskatchewan has said:

> The Regional Parks Program has been well accepted in Saskatchewan. It is an opportunity for local people to undertake the establishing of facilities to meet their own needs. While there may be, in certain instances, weaknesses in the program, I think it must be said that the local autonomy feature is a great help to meet the recreation needs of local people (Rathwell n.d.:3).

As an indication of one weakness of the program, Rathwell has stated that,

> . . . funding for maintenance is not adequate and ways are being sought to support the Regional Park Authority to adequately finance their maintenance costs (Personal Communication, Rathwell:1974).

This section has shown a variety of means to approach the complexities of a regional parks network. Regional parks perform a wide range of functions depending upon the specific needs of the political jurisdictions.

The following chapter assesses the Manitoba situation and the type of regional parks which seem to be needed.

CHAPTER VI

MANITOBA'S PARKS SYSTEM

Manitoba's existing parks system and the potential for a regional parks network reflect the physical, social, economic and political characteristics of the province. In this context "political" refers to governmental planning policies or the lack of clear policies.

Manitoba's Environment

Physical Environment

The physical environment of Manitoba forms the basis for the "supply" which can be used to meet recreational demand. As stated previously, it is essential that the recreational planner understands natural and physical processes--the carrying capacity--of an area.

This section provides only a very general look at Manitoba's physical and natural environment. To determine the exact location and optimal design of regional parks, the planner can obtain an overview of the physical environment's potential through the Canada Land Inventory (CLI). The CLI rates land units by their capability for certain categories of use, one of which is recreation. The activity or activities (e.g., angling, skiing, etc.) for which a unit holds potential is stated and the degree of capability is rated on a scale of one to seven (with one being highest capability). The CLI is only a regional planning tool, and its function is to give the planner a general impression of the current state of the physical environment.

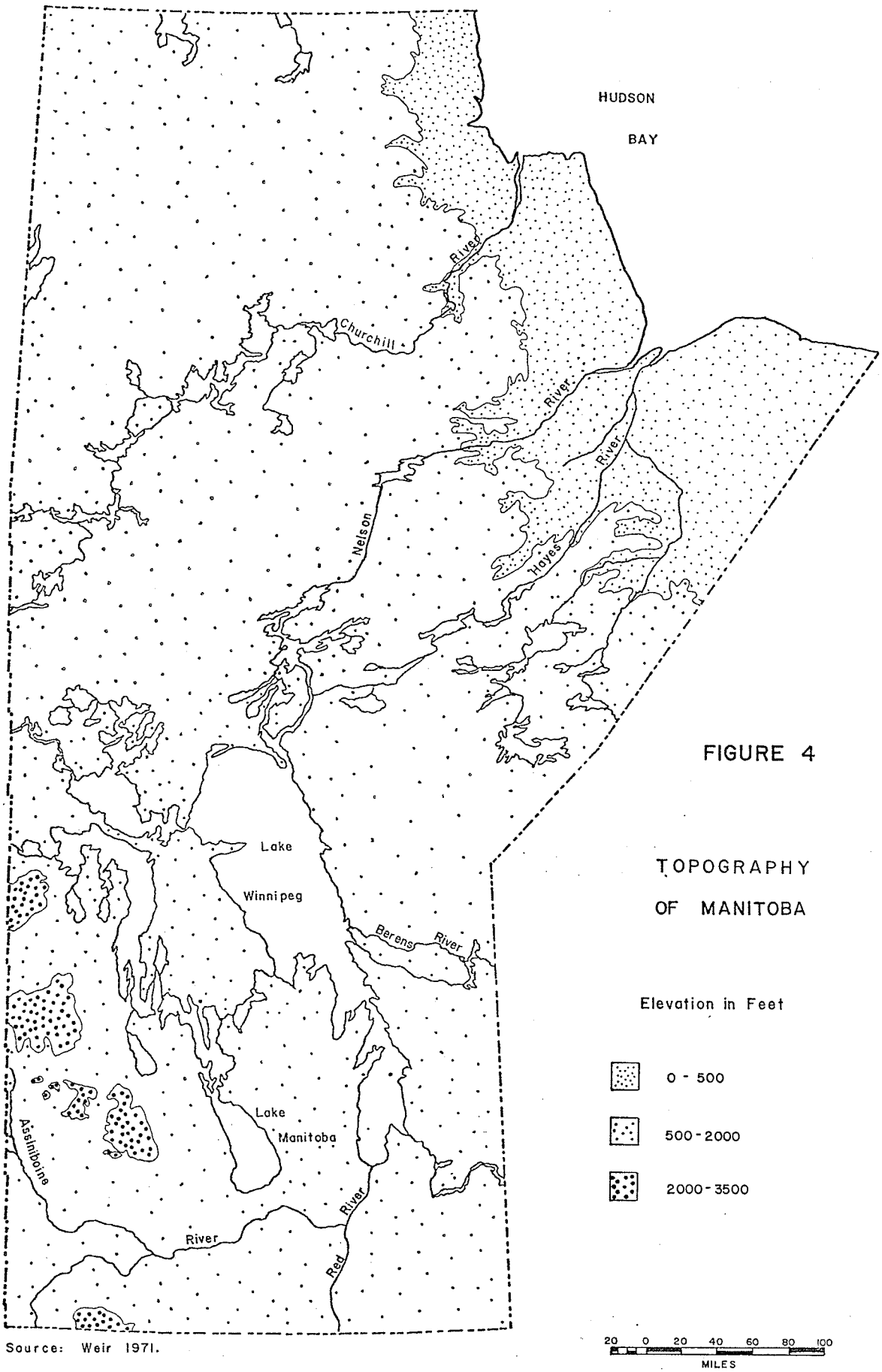
From the knowledge gained from the CLI the planner must then focus on more specific areas. At this point a much more detailed baseline inventory of physical, as well as natural (including wildlife), features is imperative.

Manitoba's surface features are basically a series of plains of varying relief and origin (see Figures 4 and 5). The central portion of the province is a large flat plain with an elevation between five hundred and one thousand feet above sea level. To the east and north are the rock outcrops of the Precambrian Shield. To the west, significant topographical variations occur along the Manitoba escarpment with areas over two thousand feet in elevation.

The most significant relief features from a recreation standpoint are the escarpment and its surrounding rolling to hilly terrain in Western Manitoba and the hills, rock outcrops, eskers and drift ridges along the Precambrian Shield in Eastern Manitoba.

Manitoba's more than 100,000 lakes of all sizes and its principal rivers, the Churchill, Hayes, Nelson, Red, Saskatchewan, Assiniboine and Winnipeg, provide recreational opportunities currently and have the potential for further recreational use. Marshes and bogs and their variety of wildlife offer potential for carefully-regulated recreational use and study.

A wide range of vegetation (refer to Figure 6) also offers interesting park possibilities. The vegetation of Southern Manitoba is a mixture of the needleleaf and broadleaf trees of the Boreal Forest, the broadleaf trees and patches of grassland of the Parkland, and the grasses of the Grassland. The central portion of the province is more heavily



Source: Weir 1971.

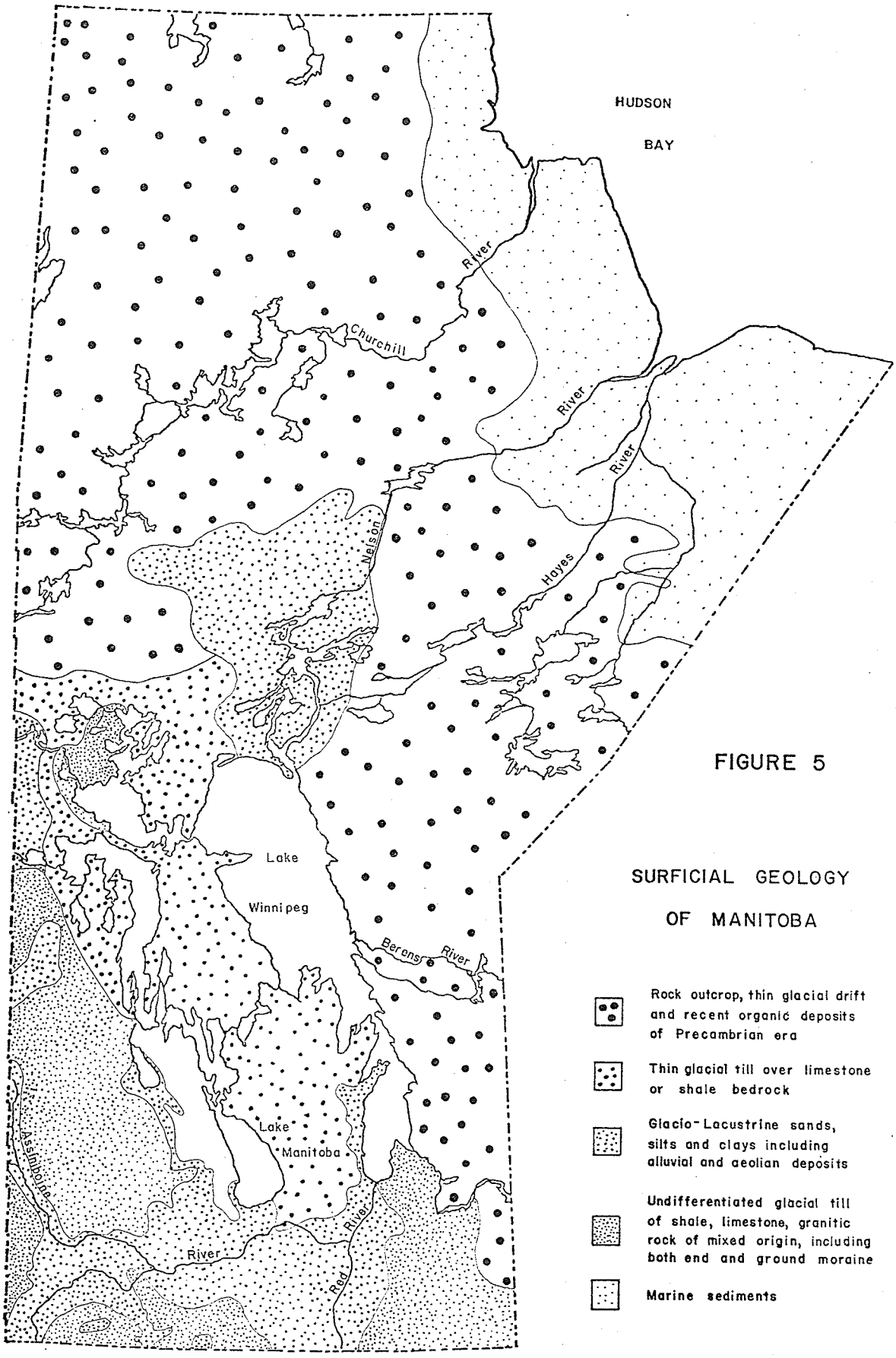


FIGURE 5

SURFICIAL GEOLOGY OF MANITOBA

Source: Weir 1971.

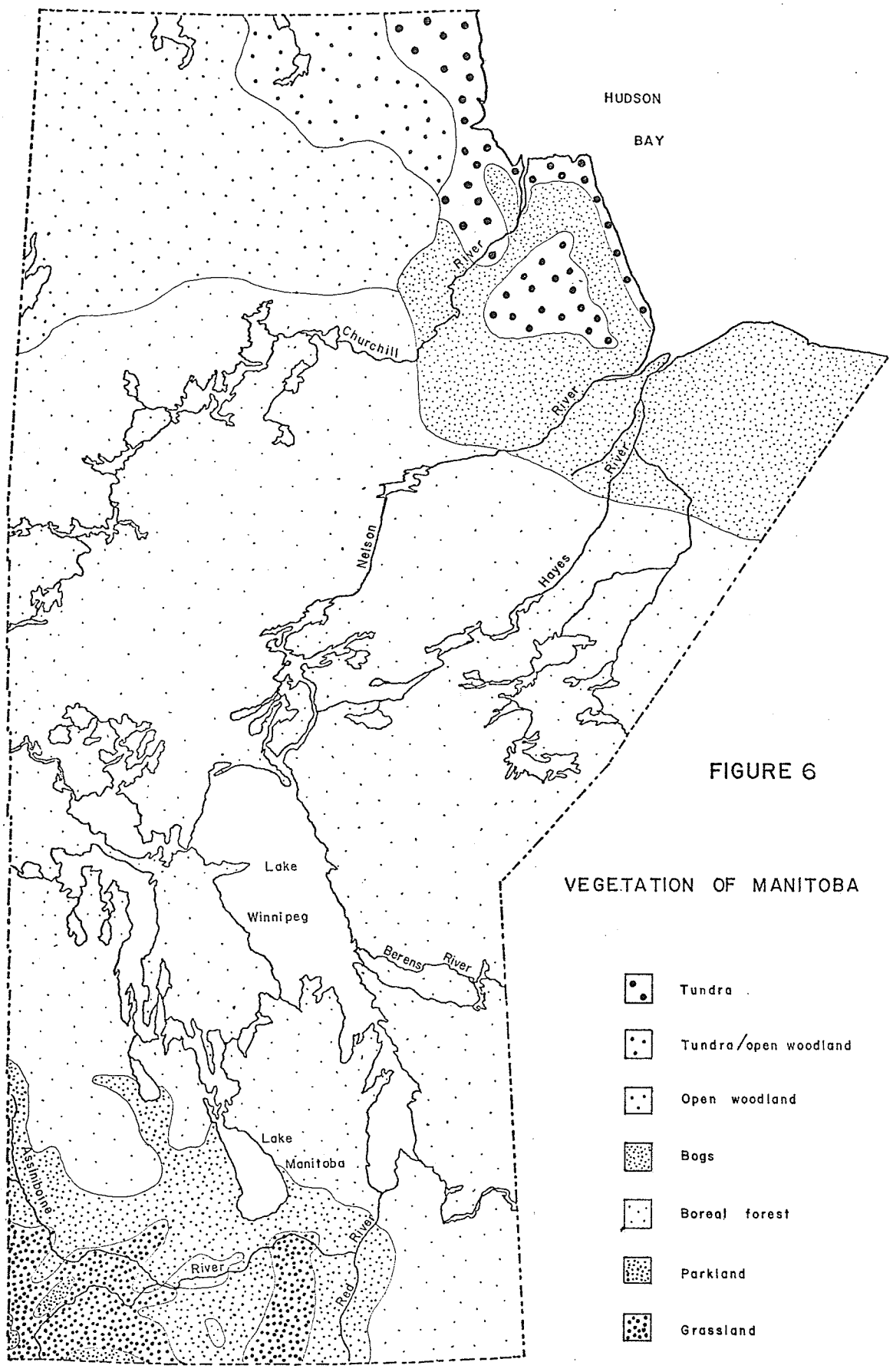


FIGURE 6

VEGETATION OF MANITOBA

Source: Weir 1971.

forested with the aspen, willow, black and white spruce and Balsam fir of the Boreal Forest. The tundra, tundra-open woodland, woodland and bogs cover Northern Manitoba.

Manitoba's climate has in the past been a significant restricting factor in the use of non-urban recreational facilities. Manitoba's long, cold winter generally extending from October through March has hampered recreational activities, but this is changing to some degree with increasing interests in snow-mobiling, tobagganing, skating and especially cross-country skiing.

Overcoming to some extent the cold winter temperatures, Manitoba's great number of hours of sunshine throughout the year tends to encourage recreation in the outdoors. In Manitoba

> July temperatures average from 64 to 68 degrees in the southern areas--relatively warm for the latitude. There is an average of 20 tropical days during which the mean temperature exceeds 86 degrees. January temperatures range from -5 to 2 degrees in southern areas which is abnormally cold for the latitude (Good 1970:30).

Although Manitoba's prairie features cannot be considered dramatic or spectacular when compared for example, to the Rocky Mountains, the province does possess a wide range of recreational potentials.

Demographic Characteristics

As well as understanding the recreational potential of the physical and natural environment, the planner must deal with the demographic environment--the people whose characteristics provide important clues concerning future recreational demand.

Settlement patterns and the "way of life" of populations influence their motivations to recreate and their recreational preferences. Most Manitobans inhabit the southern regions of the province where the winters

are milder and the physical environment is more suitable for agricultural activities. Winnipeg contains over half of the total population in the province, and a few smaller urban centres contain another sixteen percent of the provincial population. The remaining Manitobans are fairly evenly distributed in rural areas primarily in the southern part of the province. Table I shows the distribution.

TABLE I

MANITOBA POPULATION BY URBAN SIZE GROUPS, RURAL NON-FARM AND RURAL FARM, 1971.

		Population
Provincial Total		988,245
Urban[1]	Total	686,445
	500,000 and over	528,250
	100,000 - 499,999	-
	30,000 - 99,999	31,150
	10,000 - 29,999	40,820
	5,000 - 9,999	29,480
	1,000 - 4,999	56,740
Rural	Total	301,800
	Non-Farm	171,390
	Farm[1]	130,410

[1]For the Statistics Canada definition of "urban" and "farm", see Appendix C.

Source: Statistics Canada 1972:3

In comparison with the Canadian population as a whole, Manitoba, as might be expected, has a slightly higher percentage of rural residents as presented in Table 2.

TABLE 2

COMPARISON OF PERCENTAGE OF POPULATIONS IN URBAN, RURAL NON-FARM AND RURAL FARM CATEGORIES: CANADA AND MANITOBA, 1971

	Percent of Canadian Population	Percent of Manitoban Population
Urban	73.6	69.5
Rural	26.4	30.5
Non-Farm	16.8	17.3
Farm	9.6	13.2

Source: Statistics Canada 1972:2,3.

Over the past twenty years the population in Southern Manitoba has been shifting away from the rural areas as can be seen in the following table:

TABLE 3

POPULATION TRENDS IN MANITOBA, 1951-1971

	1951[2]	1961[2]	1966[2]	1971
Manitoba	776,541	921,686	963,066	988,245[3]
Metropolitan Winnipeg	356,813	475,989	508,759	540,265[4]
Southern Manitoba	380,026[1]	402,693	404,111	382,448±100[5]

[1] This figure does not include Indian Reserves

Sources:
[2] Carvalho-Page Group 1971:525
[3] Statistics Canada 1972:3
[4] Statistics Canada 1973
[5] Personal Communication, Allan (Regional Analysis Program):1974

The Regional Analysis Program Data Book, which focuses on the population in Southern Manitoba, has this to say regarding population trends in the province:

> . . . short term trends of five to ten years are not reliable indicators of growth or non-growth. There can be a levelling off of population, a seeming stabilization of the population which in the longer term picture is only a temporary holding while technological change is inducing change which works through the whole Southern Manitoba system indirectly and gradually. In the long term the trend shows that there seems to be a shift from the very small centres to the next larger size, a reflection of the desire of the people to have a wider range of services which require a larger centre in which to survive . . .. (Carvalho-Page Group 1971:23).

Although detailed demographic data will have to be assessed before regional parks are developed in an area, it may be that the middle-sized population centres are most capable of supporting such facilities.

Economic and Political Aspects

The demographic configuration of Manitoba, essentially one large urban centre surrounded by a very large rural hinterland, causes much concern to the province's residents and government. The changes in population patterns, the movement from farms to urban areas is a result of technological, economic and social factors. All regional policies of the provincial government are inextricably tied to economic issues. For this reason, the economic and political environments are treated together in this section.

Currently, the New Democratic Party heads the provincial government. In their major policy statement, Guidelines for the Seventies, the government analyses rural problems in this way:

> The move towards farm consolidation brought about by mechanization and cost-price relationships has forced many farm families out of agriculture to seek employment elsewhere.
>
> Approximately 1,000 families leave farming each year in search of better opportunities. In addition, non-farm residents have also left the rural areas as farm-dependent service sector employment has declined. The age structure in rural areas is changing as more and more young people move to urban centres to obtain employment or further their education. Since such a large proportion of the remaining population is retired or of school age, local governments find it difficult to raise adequate revenues to support the public services essential to the quality of life of their residents. These services, of course, are also important in terms of location of industry (Province of Manitoba 1973:45).

To overcome rural problems with respect to inadequate recreational opportunities, the government supports the continuance of provincial grants to rural municipalities for special facilities (Province of Manitoba 1973: 46). The other policies in this regard are rather vague and of a very general nature.

Summary

The above brief outline of Manitoba's physical, demographic, economic and political environments reveals:

(1) a physical resource base with no dramatic variation, but with more than adequate potential for future recreational developments;

(2) a population concentration primarily within one large urban centre with more sparsely settled areas in the vast hinterland;

(3) a province with economic problems in its rural areas as the population migrates to larger centres;

(4) a provincial government which has expressed concern about the rural problems and seeks to "eliminate urban/rural disparities".

The following section examines the levels and types of recreational opportunities available within this environmental context, the legislative framework and funding of existing parks, their planning and administration, and the response of Manitobans to the existing system.

Levels of Parks

Currently, in Manitoba three levels of public recreational facilities exist: national, provincial, and local.

Riding Mountain National Park, established in 1929, is the only federal non-urban recreational park in Manitoba. Covering 1,148 square miles, this park provides for a variety of recreational experiences from primitive camping and canoeing to golfing and tennis. The park was created to preserve the ecosystems along the Manitoba Escarpment.

A regional office for Parks Canada in Winnipeg oversees the activities of Riding Mountain and the development of several other parks in western and northern Canada.

The federal government is heavily involved in funding recreation in Manitoba. Several provincial parks (Birds Hill, Asessippi and Spruce Woods) were acquired under an ARDA program with federal-provincial cost-sharing on a 50/50 basis. A total of $824,000 was involved in the 1967-68 program (Canadian Council of Resource Ministers 1968b:11).

Under the FRED program,

> . . . there is provision for acquisition and development of three recreational areas on Lake Winnipeg. The recreational project cost is three million dollars on a 60/40 cost-sharing basis. (Provincial cost will be 1.2 million dollars; the Federal Government will contribute 1.8 million dollars.) (Canadian Council of Resource Ministers 1968b:11).

Federal funds also provide assistance to the province in physical education and recreational leadership training clinics and for the hiring of full-time or summer recreational directors (Canadian Council of Resource Ministers 1968b:11).

In 1930 the Federal Government turned over its western forest reserves to the provinces. Logging potential, rather than recreational development, was the reasoning behind this shift. However, some of these areas have been developed into provincial parks. Manitoba's system of provincial parks was officially begun relatively recently, in 1961, with the creation of Whiteshell Provincial Park (Witty 1973).

The basic objective of Manitoba's Provincial Parks is first, preservation of worthy areas and second, the provision of good quality recreation within a reasonable travel distance of every citizen in the province.

To meet these two objectives, Manitoba's ten to fifteen provincial parks support a wide range of activities. Whiteshell Provincial Park, located in the eastern Precambrian Shield of the province, is well-developed in some areas for motor-home camping, water skiing, golfing and other activities and yet caters to more primitive recreational use in other areas. In contrast, Duck Mountain Provincial Park, located in the hilly western portion, primarily serves the needs of wilderness-oriented campers and canoeists.

The Provincial Parks Branch classifies each recreational area within its jurisdiction as natural park, recreation park, travelway, heritage park, special use park or recreational reserve (see the detailed classification system outlined in Appendix D and Figure 7 showing the distribution of these recreational spaces). Of most importance to this study are the

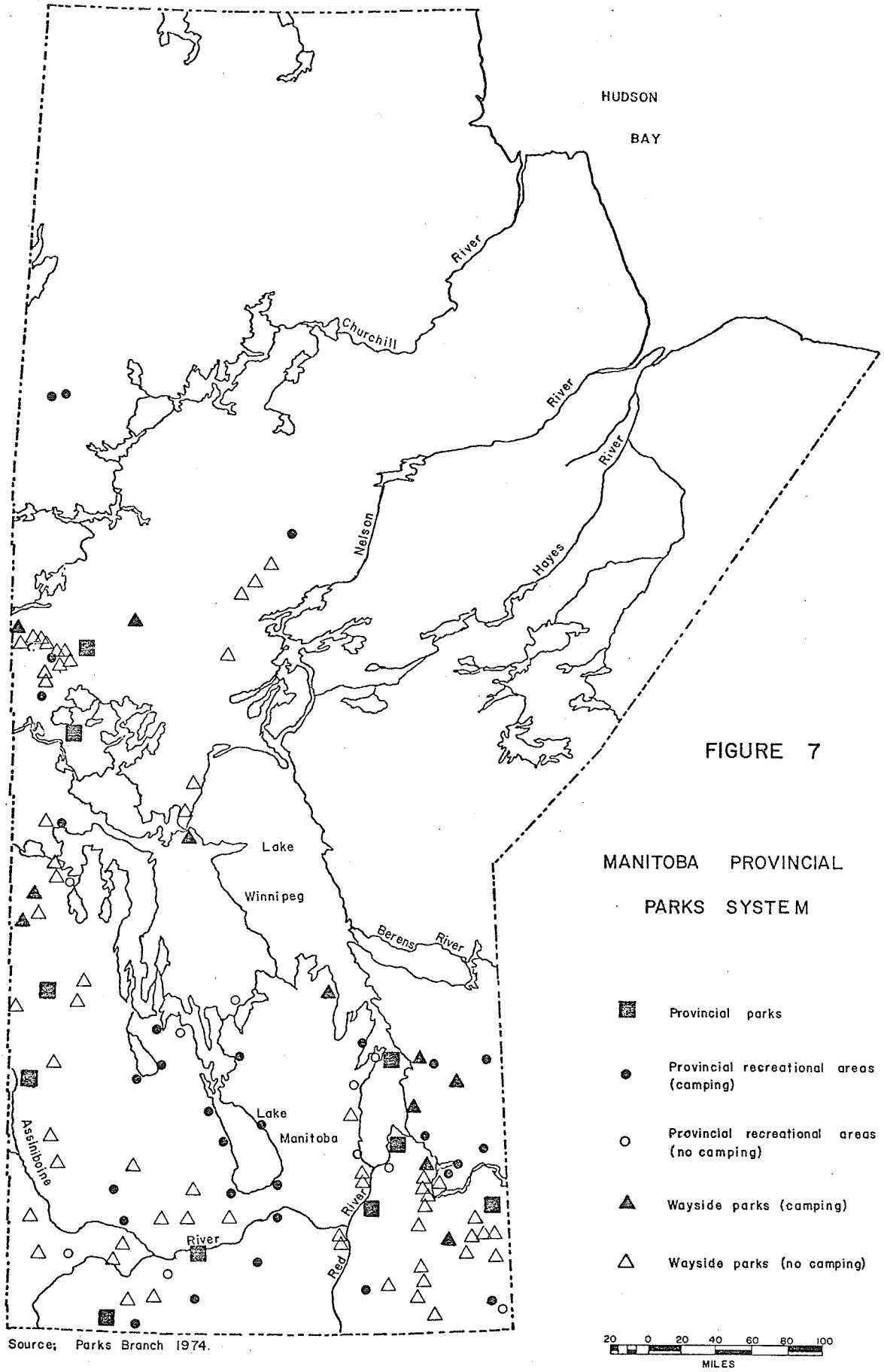


FIGURE 7

MANITOBA PROVINCIAL PARKS SYSTEM

- Provincial parks
- Provincial recreational areas (camping)
- Provincial recreational areas (no camping)
- Wayside parks (camping)
- Wayside parks (no camping)

Source; Parks Branch 1974.

recreation parks since they are the ones which may have something of a regional function.

Whereas provincial natural parks generally have a minimum size not less than five thousand acres, recreation parks can be smaller although the Parks Branch prefers that such parks have

> . . . an aggregate gross area of not less than 100 acres of land and water surface, except riverways, narrow shoreline strips, or areas where the population within a 25-mile radius is in excess of 100,000 people (Parks Branch n.d.(a):3).

Recreation parks are designed for more intensive use than natural parks and the Parks Branch thinks they should be located within fifty miles of urban centres. It might be assumed that "urban centres" in this case means incorporated towns or villages.

Other criteria for recreational areas include the following:

> Provincial recreation areas should provide recreation opportunities significant enough to assure inter-municipal patronage within the region of service and to a limited extent, should attract patronage from outside of the normal service region.
>
> The scale of investment, development and operational responsibility should be sufficiently high to require total provincial involvement to assure optimum public benefit. . . .
>
> Provincial recreation parks should be established in only those areas where other programs (provincial or local government) will not fulfill high priority recreation needs in the foreseeable future (Parks Branch n.d.(a):3-4).

Evidently, the Parks Branch feels that in some instances, provincial recreation areas can improve the local economy. As a secondary criteria, it is suggested that preference might be given to economically undeveloped areas in the development of such parks (Parks Branch n.d.(a):4).

Another secondary criteria states that the location of a provincial recreation area should be in conformity with the provincial recreational plan (Parks Branch n.d.(a):4), but no such plan exists.

The provincial administration of non-urban recreation in Manitoba involves numerous agencies as shown by Figure 8. However, the main entity responsible for recreation in Manitoba is the Department of Tourism, Recreation and Cultural Affairs. The four branches of this department most of interest here are: (1) Community Recreation Branch; (2) Research and Statistics Branch (formerly Economics and Planning or Research and Planning); (3) Parks Branch; and (4) Tourist Branch.

A major function of the Community Recreation Branch is the provision of consulting services to local agencies. This branch's activities include:

(a) Encouraging and assisting communities in establishing Recreation Commissions;

(b) Assisting communities in taking inventory and evaluating their Recreation Leaders, programs and facilities, and assessing future needs;

(c) Assisting communities in developing new programs;

(d) Encouraging and assisting communities to hire full-time recreation personnel where possible;

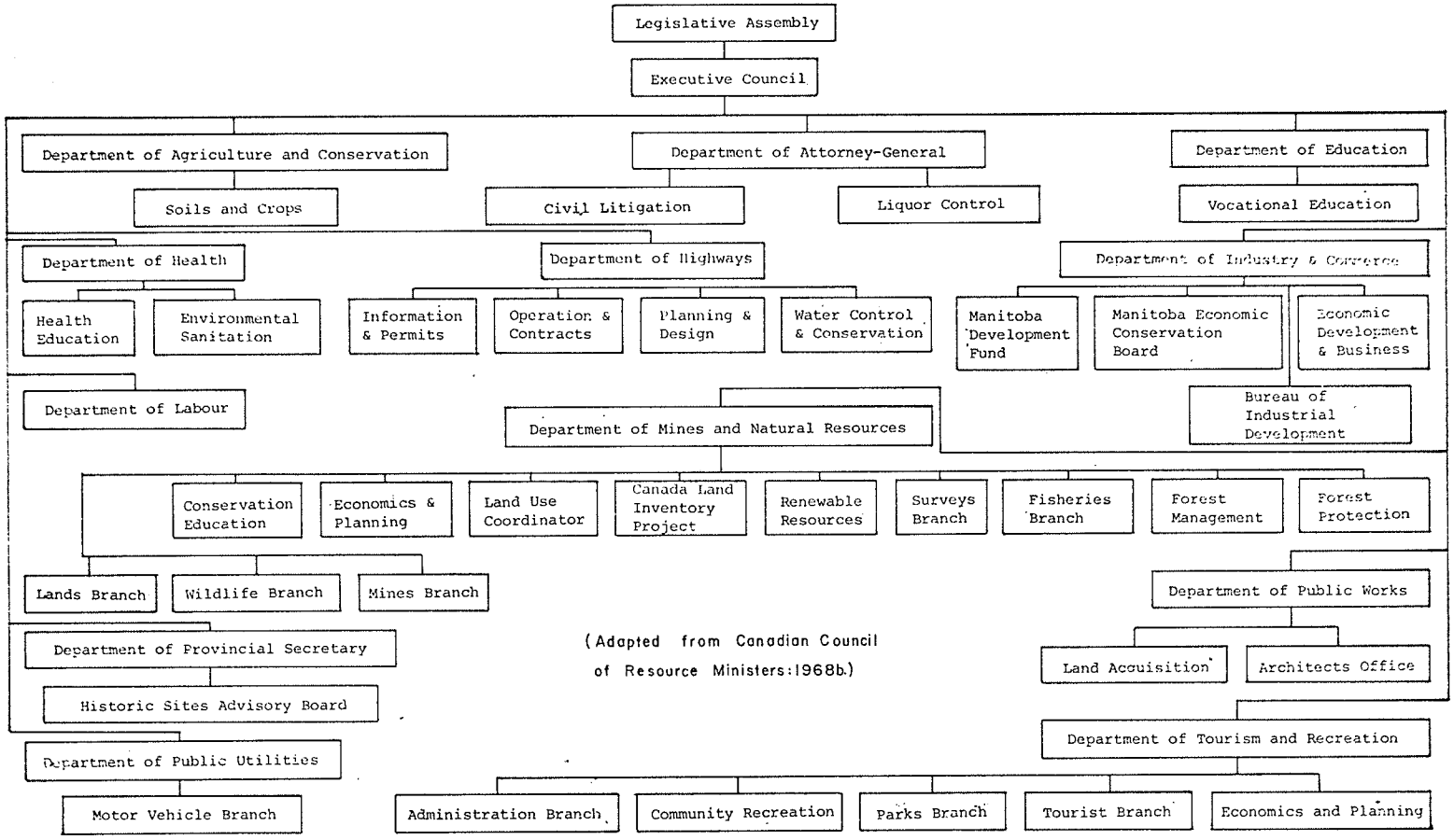
(e) Encouraging and assisting in the development of Recreation Districts in sparsely populated areas;

(f) Assisting communities in developing a training program for their full-time, part-time, and volunteer leaders, and offering training opportunities for those leaders;

(g) Consulting with communities regarding the construction, operation and maintenance of recreation facilities;

FIGURE 8

ADMINISTRATION OF OUTDOOR RECREATION IN THE PROVINCE OF MANITOBA



(Adapted from Canadian Council of Resource Ministers:1968b.)

(h) Assisting communities in taking full advantage of the resources available from, and offered by cultural and recreational organizations, universities, private and voluntary agencies, and other departments of government;

(i) Creating an awareness of the importance of recreation to Manitobans by conducting local, regional and provincial recreation conferences and workshops (Department of Tourism, Recreation and Cultural Affairs 1972:8).

From funds raised through the Manitoba Sweepstakes, the Community Recreation Branch administers grants for athletic facilities such as swimming pools and arenas. These grants have a maximum of $20,000 or one-fourth of the project's cost, whichever is the lesser. The monetary value of volunteer labour and work under the Local Initiatives Program can be calculated as part of the local contribution to such projects. For 1974 $900,000 is available for such projects (Winnipeg Free Press 1974a:77).

Grants to assist in the training of local leaders for recreational programs are available along with a $2,000 grant to help pay the salary of a full-time recreational director. The Community Recreation Branch is considering the possibility of regional director grants up to $6,000. Such grants would permit several towns and/or rural municipalities to hire one director to serve the entire region.

The local agency with which the Community Recreation Branch generally maintains contact is a recreational commission, a combined parks, recreational facilities and program agency. The branch encourages the formation of such commissions and in the past has provided incentive grants for program development at the local level.

> Communities applying for program grants had to show evidence of self-help and after having received a grant for three years had to form a recreation commission. In 1963, eight recreation commissions or parks and recreation boards were in existence. By 1971, one hundred and forty-seven recreation commissions had been established in the province (Department of Tourism, Recreation and Cultural Affairs 1972:9).

The Research and Statistics Branch provides background studies for the other branches. The research staff members inventory existing recreational facilities and the level of usage provincial recreational spaces receive. Also, they perform related studies which can help the Parks Branch, especially in assessing current problems and needs.

This branch also studies the tourism potential of Manitoba by compiling data regarding tourist expenditures in the province and information about the activities of the tourists.

For the Tourist Branch,

> The main task . . . is to develop marketing strategies that will encourage the maximum volume of traffic flow to the Province and add export dollars to the overall provincial economy.
>
> This task is much more than advertising and publicity programs. It also includes visitor reception services, travel counselling and consultation, distribution of literature, operation of tourist information and reception offices, and an intensified program of detailed personal letters to prospective visitors professionally prepared by staff members.
>
> Equally important in the Branch's operations is the provision of guidance to local tourist organizations and consultative and advisory services to owners and operators of accommodation facilities. The branch is also charged with the responsibility for the orderly development of tourist facilities and that they are maintained at a high standard (Department of Tourism, Recreation and Cultural Affairs 1972:13).

The Parks Branch is responsible for operating provincial parks and for planning, designing and developing any new ones. The Branch is also responsible for historical research and managing historical and archaeological programs for the entire department (Department of Tourism, Recreation and Cultural Affairs 1972:14). Very little long-range planning

is done in this branch due to the demands of keeping abreast of current problems of provincial park usage.

In addition to a national park and numerous provincial parks, which serve special needs for wilderness experiences, camping, hiking, swimming and similar opportunities, located throughout Manitoba are local facilities which include neighborhood parks and playgrounds and city or town parks. Such facilities generally provide active play spaces and are within walking distance or a short drive from most users.

The parks in Winnipeg are funded by the city government while those in small towns are financed by local governments and service organizations. Local parks in small towns are also eligible for assistance funds from the province for specific facilities and programs as noted above.

In 1965 Baker surveyed local park development by means of questionnaires sent to all local governments in Manitoba. The questionnaire provided information about public and quasi-public parklands. The total response rate was seventy-seven percent. Although the response rate from rural municipalities, local government districts, villages and towns was a bit lower than the response from suburban areas and urban areas (see Appendix E), the survey does provide helpful indications about the state of local recreational development in rural areas. This, in turn, provides insights into the possible role regional parks might play.

Of those responding, forty-three rural municipalities, six local government districts, eight villages and three towns reported having no parks. Those with parks included forty rural municipalities, four local government districts, twelve villages, and twenty-four towns. Table 4 adapted from Baker's report, summarizes the population residing in juris-

Table 4. General Summary of Park Acreages by Type of Park[1] as Recorded in Baker's Questionnaire, 1965:[2]

Municipal Category	With No Parks		With Parks[3]		Playgrounds			Tot Lot			Athletic Field & Swimming Pool			Rest and Ornamental			Multi Purpose			Fairground			Golf Course			Miscellaneous			Total		
	No.	Pop. (000)	No.	Pop. (000)	No.	Acres	Av. Ac.	No.	Acres	Av. Ac.	No.	Acres	Av. Ac.	No.	Acres	Av. Ac.	No.	Acres	Av. Ac	No.	Acres	Av. Ac.	No.	Acres	Av. Ac.	No.	Acres	Av. Ac.	No.	Acres	Av. Ac.
Rurals	43	92.6	40	98.9	3	1.4	0.5	3	3.4	1.1	12	114.8	9.6	12	3.5	3.5	23	1,120.1	48.1	10	208.7	20.8	-	-	-	6	70.5	11.7	58	1,522.4	26.2
L.G.D.	6	17.1	4	10.7	-	-	-	5	7.9	1.6	6	63.0	10.5	-	-	-	3	38.7	12.9	-	-	-	1	44.0	44.0	1	8.0	8.0	16	161.6	10.1
Villages	8	4.5	12	74.7	2	4.0	2.0	1	0.2	0.2	-	-	-	1	1.0	1.0	6	96.2	16.0	4	56.0	14.0	-	-	-	1	0.5	0.5	15	157.9	9.9
Towns	3	3.8	24	64.9	12	26.4	2.2	9	12.0	1.3	4	22.1	5.5	6	33.9	5.6	19	617.6	32.5	7	222.8	31.8	3	196.0	65.3	1	1.5	1.5	61	1,132.3	18.6
Suburbans	-	-	5	40.4	11	23.8	2.2	2	0.9	0.4	-	-	-	8	19.0	2.4	8	74.0	9.2	1	19.5	19.5	-	-	-	-	-	-	30	137.2	4.6
Cities	-	-	6	446.4[4]	75	209.0	2.7	48	31.4	0.6	10	45.7	4.6	41	217.0	5.3	34	982.2	28.8	1	37.0	37.0	6	680.2	113.4	44	53.0	12.0	-	2,255.5	8.7
Total	60	118.0	91	736.0	103	264.6	2.6	68	55.8	0.8	32	245.6	7.7	57	274.4	4.8	93	2,928.8	31.4	23	544.0	23.6	10	920.2	92.0	53	133.5	24.8	439	5,366.9	12.2

[1] Sometimes it was difficult to place parks in the appropriate category on the basis of the information recorded in the questionnaire.

[2] The table does not include all municipal parks in the province. No reports were received for some municipalities. Sometimes the acreage of parks was not recorded. However, the table probably included 90 percent or more of the municipal parks of Manitoba in 1965.

[3] Data of value to this study was provided on 151 or 93 percent of questionnaires returned and approximately 72 percent of the municipalities of the Province of Manitoba are represented in the compilation.

[4] Although no record was received of the parks of the Cities of Winnipeg and St. Vital the population of these cities has been included since parks operated by the Metropolitan Corporation of Greater Winnipeg were included in the table.

Source: Baker 1965:25.

dictions with and without parks and the types and sizes of facilities provided. Population in this instance does not indicate the actual number of users.

Knowledge of the size of a recreational area is only helpful in generating a very general idea of the area. In determining how well local needs are met, quality and degree of development and maintenance, usage rates and user satisfaction seem to be much more important than the types of information collected by Baker. This writer recognizes that such information is difficult to obtain and quantify in many cases.

Baker's survey does provide helpful data regarding public/quasi-public/private ownership, development and operation of parks as shown below.

TABLE 5

OWNERSHIP OF LOCAL PARKLANDS IN MANITOBA

Municipal Category	Municipal Government		Service Group		Private Person or Company[2]		Total Number
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	
Rurals	41	71	2	3	15	26	58
L.G.D.	11[1]	69	4	25	1	6	16
Villages	10	67	-	-	5	33	15
Towns	48	79	5	8	8	13	61

[1] Lands held by provincial government and leased to L.G.D. for park purposes are included.

[2] Agricultural societies are classified as private companies.

Source: Baker 1965:34.

TABLE 6

DEVELOPMENT AND OPERATION AGENCIES

Municipal Category	Total Parks No.	Public No.	Public %	Service[1] No.	Service[1] %
Rurals	58	21	36.3	37	63.7
L.G.D.	16	4	25.0	12	75.0
Villages	15	9	60.0	6	40.0
Towns	61	37	60.6	24	39.4

[1] In this instance 15 agricultural societies are considered as service organizations.

Source: Baker 1965:35.

Although a public body generally owns parklands in Southern Manitoba, the great importance of service organizations in developing and operating the parks is shown clearly by Baker's report.

> Park development in many of the smaller communities is dependent almost entirely upon the efforts of service groups such as the Chamber of Commerce, Canadian Legion, Board of Trade, Kiwanis, etc. (Baker 1965:42).

The local administration of parklands in rural areas is performed by various types of "parks boards" as classified by Baker. It is important to recognize that a municipality may have more than one type of parks board (refer to Table 7).

According to Baker's information, the Committee of Council seems to be the most popular administrative procedure for dealing with parklands in local rural areas. Once again service organizations also play an important role.

TABLE 7

TYPES OF PARK BOARDS IN MUNICIPALITIES

Type	Municipal Category								Total
	R.M.		L.G.D.		Village		Town		
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
Committee of Council	2	13	-	-	4	25	10	62	16
Council-appointed, advisory body only	-	-	-	-	-	-	1	100	1
Council-appointed, with executive powers	1	50	-	-	-	-	1	50	2
Self-contained park board as defined by Municipal Act.	2	20	-	-	-	-	8	80	10
Committee of local service organization	4	13	2	17	2	17	4	33	12
Local community clubs, miscellaneous committees or boards	8	73	1	9	-	-	2	18	11
Total	17		3		6		26		

Source: Adapted from Baker 1965:41.

Recreation Commissions, which have probably grown out of the various types of "parks boards" as mentioned by Baker, are the local agencies with which the Community Recreation Branch of the Department of Tourism, Recreation and Cultural Affairs generally maintains contact. Recreation Commissions are authorized through bylaws from town councils. The Commission is often composed of seven to nine volunteers appointed by council.

Tables 8 and 9 show the expenditures by local governments for recreational and cultural projects for the years 1966 through 1971. The important aspect of Table 9 is the extremely small percentage of local government funds spent by rural municipalities for recreational and cultural activities. Although local government districts in 1966, 67 and 68 spent nothing for recreation, in 1969, 70 and 71 they allocated over 6 percent of their annual budgets for such purposes. The percent of expenditures for recreation by villages has fluctuated from 1.7 percent in 1968 up to 4.7 percent in 1971. The percent expenditure by towns has been somewhat larger than that by rural municipalities and villages.

Although the percent of a community's budget which is allocated to recreation or the amount of public money spent per capita for recreation cannot reveal the actual state of recreational development or the degree of satisfaction of community residents with local recreational opportunities, such information can reveal some knowledge. It is hard to believe that communities which spend nothing or a couple of thousand dollars a year for recreation can have a wide range of facilities. The important issue here is this: Will communities which have in the past allocated no funds or perhaps only one percent of their budget for recreation feel the

TABLE 8

LOCAL GOVERNMENT EXPENDITURES ON RECREATIONAL AND CULTURAL PROJECTS, 1966 - 1971[2]

Year	Rural Municipalities	L.G.D.	Brandon Portage La Prairie	Villages	Towns	Metro Winnipeg	Total
1966	293,293	-	167,491	58,770	409,592	4,762,264	5,691,410
1967	331,120	-	240,307	63,520	532,740	5,568,514	6,736,201
1968	348,610	-	347,179	46,259	588,325	5,978,174	7,308,556
1969	294,937	291,389	322,423	61,057	607,955	7,427,942	9,005,473
1970	357,994	345,321	587,668[1]	74,578	610,418	8,674,513	10,650,492
1971	400,773	389,504	872,237[1]	168,858	913,106	9,330,067	12,074,545

[1] Includes Flin Flon and Thompson

[2] Obtained from Statistical Information, Department of Urban Development and Municipal Affairs, 1970.

Recreational and Cultural Expenditure includes spending on recreational facilities such as community centres, community halls, swimming pools, golf courses, skating rinks, parks, playgrounds. Cultural expenditures cover libraries, some centennial spending, historic sites, art galleries, zoos, museums. Generally most of the total amount especially in rural areas have gone to the recreational sector, with some to libraries.

Source: Administration, Research and Statistical Services Branch, Department of Tourism, Recreation and Cultural Affairs 1972.

TABLE 9

PERCENT OF LOCAL GOVERNMENT TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON RECREATIONAL AND CULTURAL PROJECTS, 1966 - 1971.

Year	Rural Municipalities	L.G.D.	Brandon Portage La Prairie	Villages	Towns	Metro Winnipeg	Total
1966	1.17	-	3.10	2.44	3.92	5.36	4.30
1967	1.21	-	4.19	2.54	4.60	6.14	4.89
1968	1.23	-	4.98	1.70	4.58	5.63	4.65
1969	0.94	6.39	4.44	1.98	4.02	6.08	4.91
1970	1.05	6.59	4.50[1]	2.20	4.84	6.46	5.20
1971	1.16	6.70	5.73[1]	4.70	6.60	6.59	5.60

[1] Includes Flin Flon and Thompson

Source: Administration, Research and Statistical Services Branch, Department of Tourism, Recreation and Cultural Affairs 1972.

need to participate in a regional parks assistance program? Will they be willing to raise the funds necessary for participation in such a program? Will the possibility of provincial cost-sharing be an adequate incentive to them?

Parks Users

An important aspect of Manitoba's parks system pertains to the users of the facilities. Only through some knowledge about user characteristics, their activity preferences, etc. can recreational demand be understood. This section provides very general information regarding park use by Manitobans because detailed information, particularly about rural recreational participants has not been collected. Likewise, the users of local parks in rural communities have not been surveyed.

From a national survey of Canadians, it appears that rural inhabitants are less interested in most currently provided recreational opportunities than are their urban counterparts (Good 1970:101). These findings shown in Table 10 are contrary to data obtained by the ORRRC Study in the United States (see page 16 of this thesis). The relatively low participation rates by rural residents may be due to the fact that many of the activities for which the survey was done are oriented to summer participation. Summer is the season during which rural people, particularly farmers and agriculturally-related workers, are most involved in their work and have least time for recreational activities.

Information regarding total numbers of visitors to provincial parks and the socio-economic characteristics of the visitors has been gathered for ten provincial parks and the one national park in Manitoba in conjunction

TABLE 10

AN OVERVIEW OF OUTDOOR ACTIVITIES OF CANADIANS, 1967.

	ACTIVITIES									
	Picnics %[1]	Camping (tent) %	Looking at Scenery %	Nature Study %	Power Boating %	Swimming %	Hiking %	Skiing %	Fishing %	None %
Total	42	14	37	6	15	39	14	6	27	10
Region										
Atlantic Provinces	42	15	38	7	12	36	6	4	33	10
Quebec	33	11	26	5	11	31	21	8	21	15
Ontario	44	13	42	7	19	47	11	6	29	8
Prairies	50	14	38	4	13	34	9	5	26	8
British Columbia	45	21	48	6	20	49	17	7	31	8
Urban	43	15	39	6	17	43	15	7	27	10
Rural	37	11	30	5	10	29	9	4	27	10

[1] Percentage of population participating in the activity.

Source: Good 1970:101.

with the CORD Study. However, such information will have limited usefulness in determining the need for regional parks because the majority of users of Manitoba's provincial parks come from Winnipeg rather than from rural areas.

What would be much more relevant is data regarding rural residents' recreational preferences and studies which relate the socio-economic characteristics of rural people to special preferences. This type of research is very sparse or non-existent within Canada, especially for an area comparable to Manitoba with one large urban concentration surrounded by a large rural hinterland.

Manitoba's rural residents, however, have not been silent regarding their desires for additional recreational facilities in their communities. The following section examines the needs as expressed by Manitobans.

Regional Scale Recreational Needs

It is the intermediate zone of recreational opportunity with which regional parks are concerned. The previous analysis of the hierarchy of facilities provided in Manitoba reveals a definite gap between local and provincial facilities. This is especially evident in instances where a town possesses only a small playground. For public non-urban recreational facilities such as picnic areas, swimming pools, boating areas and camping sites, the town resident may have to travel many miles.

The Manitoba Parks Branch recognizes this need for in-between or regional scale facilities. Frequently, this agency receives requests from local governments for financial and planning assistance for such regional recreational areas. Several communities in the province have acquired, frequently as gifts, properties of varying sizes to be used for recreational

purposes. Often the communities have been unable to finance the adequate development of these areas and have asked the province for assistance.

In other cases, the communities have raised funds to develop the sites and to operate them. However, as the rural population and therefore the tax base of small communities have been shrinking, the local governments find they can no longer maintain and operate the recreational facilities.

A similar circumstance occurs with some privately-owned recreational facilities in rural areas. As the surrounding population declines and other factors make the facilities unprofitable, the owner occasionally decides to sell the facility or simply to close it. Sometimes, a local government body, wishing to purchase the facility and to operate it for local residents or as a tourist attraction, approaches the province for financial aid.

Frequently, the Parks Branch regards the sites for which communities request assistance as too large to be used for local facilities and too small to qualify as provincial park sites. Yet, no funding or administrative system or general policy exists to provide adequately for these regional scale sites.

In summarizing the situation the Parks Branch has said:

> Over the past few years, Parks Branch has been the recipient of an increasing amount of inquiries for planning assistance, facility design and funding advice from organizations varying from service clubs and private individuals to R.M.'s, towns and villages. The majority of these requests originate from South-Western Manitoba and frequently involve the development of an aquatic recreational resource. While the lake, river or reservoir in question may be the only natural multi-purpose recreation resource within a 30- or 40-mile radius, the lake may not contain natural recreation resources of sufficient calibre to warrant development as a provincial park. This does not mean, however, that it is of no significance to the region, or the local municipalities.

To date, the responsibility of developing these recreation resources, has fallen mainly upon the fragile financial shoulders of local municipalities. The local municipalities should not be obligated to develop this type of outdoor recreation facility to meet the needs of the region. If these regional recreation demands are to be met, a scheme to assist local government agencies to establish a system of regional parks; funding and administration is a desired goal (Parks Branch n.d.(a):1).

In 1964, Baker examined the requests which had come into provincial agencies up to that time. He summarized the general nature of the requests in the following table.

TABLE 11

SUMMARY OF REQUESTS FOR TECHNICAL AND FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE AS RECORDED BY PARKS BRANCH TO JULY 1963[1]

	Disposition of Request		
	Accepted	Rejected	No Action
A. For development of roadside parks and recreation areas to be developed and administered by the province[2]	10	3	3
B. For picnic tables, signs, etc., for local parks or beaches	1	2	-
C. For financial aid for local or regional parks and beaches[3]	2	3	-
D. For special facilities[4]	2	2	-
E. For technical assistance	-	3	-
	15	13	3

[1] Based on files of the Parks Branch, Department of Mines and Natural Resources (now in the Department of Tourism, Recreation and Cultural Affairs).

[2] Prior to 1962 a very large proportion of the requests were met by the province. Since this time, decisions have been temporarily postponed pending the completion of regional and local park study (by Baker).

[3] Financial aid was granted as follows: International Peace Garden $1,000 annually; Killarney Park $4,000 for toilets; $1,000 for caretaker 1962; Winnipeg Beach $80,000 for sewage treatment.

[4] The following special items were rejected: a beach and seaplane base at Rivers, a golf course at Silver Beach Lake, Russel. Assistance was provided for underbrushing in the municipal park at Ninette. A Crown land reservation was made for park development at Langruth.

Source: Baker 1964c:6.

Baker also found many requests to the provincial government for road construction or improvement in the areas of existing parks. He suggests the accommodation of these requests through a funding system in conjunction with a regional parks program (Baker 1964c). While this author agrees with this comprehensive approach, the discussion of access roads in more than a general way is outside the scope of this thesis. This author feels road construction and improvement is basically a provincial responsibility. Roads inside a regional park of course would be funded in the same way as other facilities within the park.

The Community Committee Reports, compiled by the Regional Analysis Program in 1971, reaffirmed the need for regional scale facilities. Some of the specific facilities requested by the rural community committees are as shown in Table 12. Thirty-four communities recommended acquisition or improvement of *specific* sites.

In a situation where local communities have small tax bases and cannot afford to provide adequate local non-urban recreational opportunities and where no regional parks program exists, the provincial recreational facilities may be forced into a local or regional role. As stated previously in this thesis, provincial facilities are generally designed with the

TABLE 12

REQUESTS FOR RECREATIONAL FACILITIES,
COMMUNITY COMMITTEE REPORTS: 1971.

Need	Number of Communities Making Requests
Camping facilities	30
Park, playground	21
Indoor rink	20
Snowmobile trails	15
Boating facilities	13
Swimming pool	12
Beach	12
Skiing facilities	11
Community hall	10
Hiking trails	8
Riding trails, stables	6
Tennis courts	6
Fishing facilities	6
Baseball diamonds	5
Senior citizen facilities	5
Recreation complex	5
Picnic facilities	5
Arts and crafts facilities	4
Canoe routes	2
Agricultural fair	2
Outdoor rink	1

objective of environmental preservation of the resource base while regional and local parks function for more developed types of activities and are designed to withstand more intensive use than are provincial facilities. Forcing provincial areas into more intensive use can damage the environment and lead to overcrowding.

Various recommendations regarding a regional parks system for Manitoba have been made by consultants, the Parks Branch and other agencies. The next chapter will examine these previous recommendations and the governmental action to date regarding this matter. The chapter will also propose a regional parks program for the province and discuss the planning and implementation processes necessary for such a program to function effectively.

CHAPTER VII

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR A REGIONAL PARKS SYSTEM IN MANITOBA

Previous Studies

In 1962 the Committee on Manitoba's Economic Future (COMEF) evaluated the role of recreation in the province's development and made the following recommendations in their report.

> There is an immediate need in Manitoba for a positive Government policy towards regional park development quite separate from provincial parks. Regional parks can be provided by the Provincial Government which means it is assuming a responsibility for a service lying somewhere between its normal sphere of jurisdiction and that of municipalities. There are some service limitations to this approach. The cost of each per unit acre would be extremely high in comparison with existing provincial parks and much higher than where development is undertaken by quasi-public groups or municipal governments. Land acquisition costs are usually higher when the provincial purse is involved. The standard of development required when the provincial name is associated with a recreational facility must be high and sometimes above local needs. A substantial increase in administrative staff would be necessary. In order to maintain a corps of experienced personnel that can be quickly assembled for developments scattered across the Province, it is often necessary to hold a higher proportion of the personnel on a year-round basis than is necessary when each park is administered locally. Once the Provincial Government became committed to this field, there would be no end to the number of requests they would receive. A constant pressure from local groups to develop parks that are more municipal than regional in character could be expected. This is a rather paternalistic approach that is probably not in the best interests of the maintenance of virile local government.
>
> For the above reasons the Committee on Manitoba's Economic Future recommend that regional parks should become the responsibility of independent regional boards and an integral part of the regional development program of the Department of Industry and Commerce. Regional park development cannot succeed without

> leadership and support at the provincial level. Regional park legislation will be required to enable a group of municipalities to hold and purchase land, apportion levies against municipalities within specified limits, borrow, and generally execute the administration functions of park development. Such a plan envisages the dispersement of provincial funds for regional park development and not for the improvement of small public reserve in private cottage subdivisions. It envisages the Provincial Government participating in a dollar-for-dollar matching scheme with participating municipalities. Such grants would apply only to capital development. Charges would be levied for admission to parks and revenue would be derived for leases and permits to concessionaires. Consideration should be given to making loans available from the Manitoba Development Fund to regional parks for operating expenditures and possibly a proportion of capital expenditures. Such a plan would undoubtedly start off very slowly and would gather momentum as the benefits of the scheme became apparent. Eventually over a 10-15 year period the regional park program would involve $1 million of which one-half would be provided by the Province (Committee on Manitoba's Economic Future 1962:VIII-2-18-19).

At several points this writer disagrees strongly with the COMEF Report. First of all, very little discussion is necessary regarding the fact that provincial input should come from the Parks Branch and not from the Department of Industry and Commerce as suggested by the COMEF. If Manitoba is to have a parks *system,* one central guiding agency is more efficient.

It is absurd to say that a facility controlled by the province must have a high standard of development, sometimes above local needs. The whole point of providing social services, including recreational facilities, is to meet needs, not to maintain some abstract standard.

This writer feels that the provincial government must play a strong guiding role in developing a regional parks system while regional parks authorities should be allowed to perform significant tasks, too. With a strong regional parks policy and proper legislation, the Parks Branch could resist any pressure to develop municipal parks. Perhaps

the development of regional parks would lighten some of the demand for municipal park development.

The experience in Saskatchewan has shown that provincial assistance is needed for the operation and maintenance of regional parks as well as for capital development. A system of loans may not be adequate for operation and maintenance purposes.

Baker prepared a report for the COMEF and the above recommendations are probably based on his suggestions, at least in part. However, later he studied the possibility of regional parks further and made more detailed recommendations. He saw the need for two distinct programs of assistance for recreation development in Manitoba. These programs would provide assistance:

(a) to two or more local municipalities that associate for the purpose of developing and operating parks and beaches in the rural landscape to be used by the urban and rural residents of the region;

(b) to an individual urban or rural municipality for the development of parks, playgrounds and sports fields within its municipal boundaries and intended solely or primarily for the use of its own residents (Baker 1964a:3).

Although Baker suggested that a regional parks program be given higher priority than municipal recreation, it seems the opposite has occurred since his report. The Community Recreation Branch has for several years been providing assistance for local facilities while regional parks assistance is just beginning.

Baker outlined his recommendations for a Regional Park Act. He regarded the object of such an act as the encouragement and assistance to local municipalities to join together to:

(a) develop resources that are not of sufficiently high calibre to meet Provincial Park requirements but are satisfactory when evaluated in terms of the needs of the residents of the region for conveniently located outdoor recreation facilities;

(b) develop these resources as intensive use recreation areas in a manner that is different from that of Provincial Parks, but highly desirable when considered in terms of regional needs (Baker 1964a:5).

In his view Regional Park Authorities initially should be given powers to develop parks and beaches. At some later date, they might receive powers to develop or preserve historic sites, wild animal parks, etc. (Baker 1964a:5).

Baker recommended that the province's role in regional park development be minimal.

> It is true that the Provincial Government must introduce a degree of regulation and surveillance to ensure that assistance provided is directed towards the achievement of the intent and purpose of the Act. However, this facet must be reduced to an absolute minimum in the interest of the promotion of local initiative and administrative convenience at the provincial level of government.
>
> Providing an Authority adheres to the general intent and purpose of the Act, it must enjoy complete freedom of choice with regard to facility, design and selection, evaluation of requirements, etc. The province must not attempt to set itself up as the final arbitrator of local needs, tastes, etc. . . . (Baker 1964a:9-10).

The writer disagrees somewhat with Baker on this point. Although the Authority must have some autonomy, it seems the Province with more

trained parks planners and a wider perspective has the responsibility to guide the development of regional parks. This guidance is imperative to prevent overlapping of regional parks' service areas and to stretch the recreational dollar as far as possible.

Although no action was taken on Mr. Baker's recommendations for provincial assistance for the development of regional parks, the Parks Branch continually considered the issue. In 1973 the Rural Region Working Group (RRWG) was established by the Manitoba Government. The RRWG is composed of representatives from various provincial agencies who have rural concerns and incorporates the Regional Analysis Program staff. Several projects to improve the quality of rural life in Manitoba were proposed by the RRWG.

One project involved regional parks. The specific objectives formulated by the RRWG for the project were:

> To assist residents in establishing regional parks for the primary benefit of people in local rural areas (with emphasis given to the Pembina Valley Region as a pilot area). As a direct outcome of many Community Reports (Regional Analysis Program) suggesting improvement of tourism and recreation facilities, this project intends to work with suitable communities in establishing a regional park (Rural Region Working Group 1973:Appendix A4).

During the course of the RRWG project a draft of regional parks legislation was prepared by the writer (refer to Appendix F). Later, the draft was revised by the Extension Planner with the Parks Branch. Since the proposed legislation has not been presented to the legislature, it is not yet public information and for this reason cannot be included in this paper. However, the province has allocated $70,000 for a regional park pilot project for 1974. This project is intended to sort out any difficulties which may occur in the establishment and operation of regional parks.

Based on the experience of the pilot project, the proposed legislation will be up-dated and made more comprehensive and realistic (Personal Communication, Gossen:1974).

Recommendations

Purposes of Regional Parks

Before a regional parks system is established, a governmental policy statement regarding the purpose of regional parks is imperative. It seems to the writer that the most pressing needs which could be satisfied by a regional parks network are those of rural communities. Recognizing that the needs of rural Manitobans are both social and economic, the provincial government must decide whether the parks will cater to tourists or to local and regional residents.

The tourism issue seems to be a matter of inner conflict within most governmental agencies responsible for non-urban recreation. For example, as stated previously, the Parks Branch and the Tourism Branch are both entities of the Manitoba Department of Tourism, Recreation and Cultural Affairs; yet, many times they seem to be working at cross-purposes. The Parks Branch expends great amounts of time and energy trying to cope with the over-use of certain provincial parks. On the other hand, the Tourism Branch spends thousands of dollars each year advertising Manitoba's environment and inviting tourists to spend their leisure time here in our provincial parks and other recreation areas. The Parks Branch has great difficulties trying to keep ahead of the "game"; to allocate staff for long-range (or for that matter, even short-range) planning for the wise use of recreational resources is impossible since the day-to-day problems require such great efforts.

The tourism controversy is a pressing matter with respect to regional parks. Many rural Manitobans view recreation mainly in terms of possible benefits from tourism. For example, in September 1973 the Pembina Valley Development Corporation voted to submit a recommendation from the Pembina Branch Tourist Association to the Manitoba Government for a proposed area for a regional park. The Tourist Association pointed out the tourism potential as one main reason for selecting the area (Pembina Valley Development Corporation 1973:5).

Facilities can be developed to serve local residents and tourists. This would, however, involve large governmental expenditures and the use of more land areas and natural resources. This brings up two issues: (1) whether or not a valid tourism potential exists in rural Southern Manitoba; and (2) the degree to which rural areas can be more intensively and extensively used for recreation while still preserving environmental amenities.

For completely adequate decisions on the matters, economic impact studies and intensive ecological inventories would have to be carried out. To date the studies by governmental agencies on these subjects leave much to be desired. As an example, a study of the tourism potential in Dauphin which was implemented by the former Research and Planning Branch of the Manitoba Department of Tourism and Recreation (1970) was inadequate. The report, while maintaining that tourism is vitally important to the community of Dauphin, mentions that eighty-three percent of the visitors to the Dauphin area during the tourist season are from Manitoba. Although the tourist expenditure is a significant monetary injection into the local economy, a point which should have been made is that tourist dollars spent in Dauphin are dollars flowing out of other areas of Manitoba. If a pro-

vincial perspective is assumed then the tourism impact on Dauphin becomes much less significant.

If regional parks are to be established primarily as a means to augment per capita income by attracting expenditures by out-of-province visitors, then this policy must be stated and the planning and design for such parks approached in a manner different from the approach for parks primarily serving regional users. For example, if regional parks are to become tourist attractions, the planners must determine what the needs and preferences of the tourists coming into the province will be in future and then plan to meet these needs. Also, a realistic statement concerning a proposed park's attractive power must be made considering other attractions which will be competing for the tourist expenditure.

The view taken here is that regional parks are needed to serve local and regional residents within the province. As explained in previous chapters, a definite gap exists between local and provincial facilities available to rural Manitobans. Rural residents definitely do not have ready access to as many recreational areas as do Winnipegers. A user-orientation, rather than resource-orientation as in provincial and national parks, seems most necessary with regional parks.

Working with officials in the Parks Branch, the writer has arrived at the following definition of a regional park:

> A regional park is deemed to be a recreation area which is oriented primarily to the local population. Such a park may be developed adjacent to and/or in conjunction with a recreation complex.
>
> A regional park should be located within 25 to 30 miles of the population it is to serve. The size of regional parks and the facilities to be provided should be flexible, depending on local needs and natural amenities.

With a size of approximately twenty-five to thirty acres, a regional park might provide camping and picnic areas, open spaces for play, hiking and nature trails, bicycle paths and beach facilities.

Planning Regional Parks As A Sub-system Within A More Comprehensive Network

Before legislation for the regional parks assistance program was drafted, a planning process, though not formalized or clearly defined, was activated. This paper has, as a first step, examined the theory behind a regional parks system for Manitoba. Now more concrete proposals by planners for the development of specific regional parks is in order. Once the legislation is passed, a more coordinated planning process can begin.

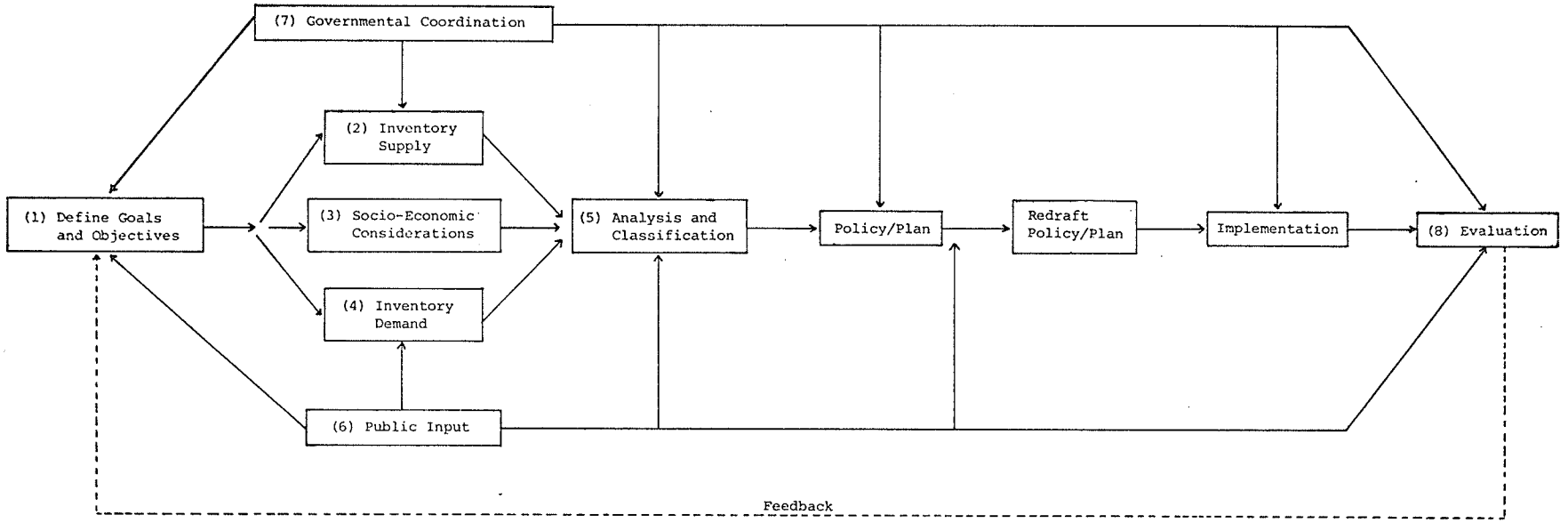
It is hoped that the process chosen will follow the systems guidelines mentioned in Chapter III. Initially, the process can guide the thinking of the Parks Branch planners as they examine the regional parks sub-system within the context of the comprehensive system containing national, provincial and local parks. Later this planning process can be used in the evaluation of individual proposals for specific regional parks.

The planning process may be defined as "an organized sequence of steps requiring conscious and continuous action" (Uleck 1971:201). The process proposed here is adapted from one developed by the Parks System Planning Committee of the Federal-Provincial Parks Conference (1973). The flow chart in Figure 9 outlines the sequence of planning activities.

Guideline one, the definition of goals and objectives, involves a statement regarding the purpose of regional parks. As stated in the previous section, this step is essential. Following the general statement of the purpose of regional recreational areas, an individual park proposal

FIGURE 9

ACTIVITIES IN THE PARK SYSTEMS PLANNING PROCESS



Note: Number corresponds to technical planning guideline mentioned in text.

(Modified from Park Systems Planning Committee:1973)

would involve a more specific declaration of objectives oriented to the particular region involved.

An inventory of supply is the second guideline. For the entire regional parks sub-system, a very general inventory of supply is necessary. The Canada Land Inventory for recreational capability might be useful as baseline information at this stage of the process. Some provincial recreational areas should be examined as potential regional parks just as should some large local parks which might be expanded for regional usage. All important potential recreational areas in Manitoba should be inventoried and classified according to level of significance--national, provincial, regional or local. This supply inventory phase and classification process, which is guideline five, does not involve the mapped delineation of specific sites to be set aside for all levels of parks. To this writer's mind, this stage entails only a conceptual mapping of general areas which might be used for the various levels of recreational opportunities. This general guide will be useful to the planner in making decisions regarding specific proposals for regional parks.

The supply inventory stage in the process of planning an individual regional recreational facility will require detailed information regarding the proposed site and perhaps several alternative sites in the area. The gathering of data for use in a suitability model such as the one outlined in Chapter III would be extremely valuable.

Guideline three, socio-economic considerations, entails the gathering of baseline data with respect to the existing situation. Again, this data would be very general at the entire regional sub-system level, but much more detailed at the level of a specific proposal.

Under guideline four, recreational demand should be inventoried and projected for the future. As mentioned before, this step is extremely difficult whether at the general or specific level. For the regional sub-system, some helpful information concerning possible demand in Manitoba might be obtained from Saskatchewan regional parks planners. Saskatchewan has population and economic problems similar to those in Manitoba. Although no user statistics or visitor activity preferences have been recorded, Saskatchewan planners must have received some feedback from the public with respect to regional parks.

Guideline five involves the analysis of data collected regarding supply, demand and socio-economic characteristics. At this stage of analysis with respect to a specific proposal, the use of suitability and impact models could aid the planner in making intelligent decisions.

It should be noted at this point that a site which is perhaps not extremely attractive from a physical standpoint may be designated as a regional park based on another criterion, e.g., central location within a region. Although development costs will inevitably be higher where natural amenities are lacking, proper design and landscaping may overcome many of the inherent inadequacies.

Public participation in the planning process is the sixth guideline. Dealing with the issue of direct citizen involvement is a difficult matter for most planners. Yet, more planners are beginning to recognize the validity of strong communication links with the community. Such links are essential if plans and programs are to meet actual needs in a successful way.

The low-income family camping program is an example of problems

which might have been avoided if governmental agencies had consulted the groups for whom they were providing recreational opportunities. In the summer of 1973 the Manitoba Department of Health and Social Development, with the cooperation of the Parks Branch, instituted a pilot study for a low-income family camping program. Low-income families from Winnipeg were provided tents and proper camping equipment and invited to spend two weeks in Birds Hill Park, which is located just outside the city. Most of the families only stayed a few days. In many cases they could not cope with the strange environment; they missed their telephones, televisions and taxi cabs. Camping was "boring" and the half mile walk to the lake was too far. They felt alien to their surroundings (Personal Communication, Bates:1973).

Ontario has been experimenting with public involvement in the planning and management of parks. In a background paper prepared for the Federal-Provincial Parks Conference in 1973, Tom Lee, the Director of Planning in the Parks Division of the Ontario Ministry of Natural Resources, cautions that no single public participation process will be successful for all parks. He does, however, mention several principles which have been valid in Ontario's experience. The points he outlines include:

(1) The stage of public involvement must be planned in detail before the program is initiated. The nature of the problem and the character of the participation program must define the point at which public participation begins.

(2) Governmental agencies should not make gross assumptions concerning the public's understanding of issues and problems.

(3) Once initiated, the participation program must be completely open.

(4) Governmental decision-makers should be part of the participation process during all phases. This will help insure speedy decisions and efficient implementation of recommendations.

(5) The efficiency of the process depends upon the establishment and use of a well-defined program, the assignment of sufficient human resources to the program and the completion of the process within a defined and publicly recognized time frame (Lee 1973:5-6).

Whether or not the suggestions offered by Mr. Lee will be helpful in Manitoba's situation is open to question, yet they are worth considering.

Public involvement will be essential at most stages of the regional parks planning process. In Manitoba the local recreational commissions and leaders of local service clubs which sponsor recreational facilities and programs are valuable resource people. Since the Community Recreation Branch has already developed liason with the commissions, perhaps the Parks Branch can work with their sister agency to strengthen these links.

The communication network should be such that local residents are aware that they may initiate dialogue about the development of a regional park in their area by having their recreational commission or service club relay their concerns to the Parks Branch.

Guideline seven concerns coordinated planning and management. Close coordination among governmental agencies concerned with recreation is most important. This includes cooperation "horizontally" among the

branches at the provincial level and "vertically" among federal, provincial and local agencies.

The Parks Branch seems to rely only to a very small extent on the research performed by the Research and Statistics staff. There should be extremely close cooperation between these agencies with the Research and Statistics Branch providing the background information necessary for park planning. Such information includes user studies and demand projections based on changing socio-economic characteristics and preferences of Manitobans.

In regard to regional parks, it seems certain facilities (such as arenas) funded by the Community Recreation Branch might be able to serve a regional rather than a strictly local function. Integration of the facility into a regional park might be worthwhile in some instances. Thus increased coordination between Community Recreation and the Parks Branch will be necessary in this case as well as in the instance of communicating with local recreational commissions, as mentioned above.

Vertically, closer coordination is needed among recreational planners at all levels (local, regional, provincial, national) to insure a wide range of recreational opportunities for Canadians.

Guideline eight from the Parks Systems Planning Committee involves evaluation procedures development or a stage of feedback and assessment of parks policies and recreational area development. From this evaluation, parks policies and planning are revised and updated.

Traditionally, four major indicators of success have been used by parks planners:

(1) volume indicators (number of visitor days, camper nights, etc.);

(2) performance indicators (measure volume of use and compare it with use in previous years, planned results, or results in similar situations);

(3) measures of effectiveness (achievement in terms of programme objective, e.g., changes in accidents within public parks, changes in volume of litter and garbage, acres of parkland donated to a public agency); and

(4) measures of benefit (usually in monetary terms, can quantify "spillover" effects of programme objective fulfillment, e.g., recreational opportunities created by a flood control programme) (Parks System Planning Committee 1973:11-12).

The Committee focuses on the important point that the various evaluation methods used to assess success of a parks system may not reveal the total picture, and they suggest additional studies of the evaluation criteria.

The parks planning process suggested in this section could be used to plan regional parks under a variety of legislative and administrative arrangements. Based on the experience of other Canadian provinces and previous studies in Manitoba, certain specific administrative and legislative procedures seem to emerge as the most promising for shaping a workable regional parks program in Manitoba.

This thesis now turns attention to the important issue of defining recreational regions and to the administrative measures and legislation necessary for the regional parks programme.

Recreational Regions

In addition to closer governmental coordination, planning a regional

parks system will require an examination of the necessary characteristics of recreational regions. In other words, the basis for delineation of regions to be served by regional parks must be understood.

Regions, which can be dynamic with boundaries which can change, are usually areas more comprehensive than a municipality or county (Nicholson and Sametz 1963:6). The term "region":

> . . . is an intellectual construct designed to simplify analysis and provide a basis for action. A region is a somewhat homogeneous area or community of interest according to one or more criteria (Nicholson and Sametz 1963:6).

In determining the region which a regional park would primarily serve, many factors warrant consideration.

> The relation of personal background factors to participation depends very much upon the type of recreational activity and the region of the country. To an environmentalist the regional factor may reflect the availability of the resource, and this is partly true. Regions however are more than natural environments. They also are sociocultural systems, even now with distinctive conditioning features, despite the trend toward homogeneity and uniformity (Ferriss 1970:51).

Gertler discusses regions defined by behavioral processes, such as contacts between an urban area and its hinterland. In his opinion, the behavioral region is "based on socio-economic ties which, if they do not create a 'community of interest,' at least establish a common destiny" (1969:2).

The social context of recreational activities is prominent in defining regions. In Manitoba there are plans to establish a system of regional games for developing sports. Teams from various recreational regions in the province will compete. This idea implicitly assumes regions exist which find some cohesion in the social aspects of sports participation.

Figure 10 shows regions currently used by the Parks Branch. These regions were established for administrative purposes and do not seem to follow any social or economic groupings of municipalities. These regions are too large for regional parks if such parks are to provide opportunities for residents within a thirty-mile radius.

Baker (1964a) has suggested that the delineation of regions be left to the municipalities who choose to join together and thus form such regions. This is the approach taken in Saskatchewan.

In other quarters the opinion has been expressed that regional parks should fit into a total package of regional government.

> We have suggested that regional parks pose the most difficult administrative problem in the recreation field. But once again, the parks function is far from the only regional requirement that has proven to be an administrative stumbling-block. The basic fact is that concentration of population, facility of movement, and increase in leisure time, among other irreversible modern phenomena, have given a new economic and social reality to regions embracing areas far larger than our cities and towns, generating special problems that cry out for solution on a regional basis. The only answer is the establishment of regional institutions--not regional single-purpose bodies (e.g., for water supply or sewage disposal) but regional institutions with comprehensive responsibility for dealing with regional problems. What is needed, in short, is a second-tier municipality that places policy responsibility for regional functions in the hands of elected persons. The metropolitan areas of Toronto and Winnipeg have responded to the challenge in their own ways. No doubt other regions will seek different answers. Our basic point is that the most fruitful long-term approach to regional parks administration is the development of new regional government institutions (Hardy and McGilly 1961:1045).

Although Hardy and McGilly were thinking of urban regions when they wrote the above, it may be that regional government can answer some of the problems of rural Manitoba, particularly the shrinking tax base and decreasing populations which plague rural municipalities and local government districts.

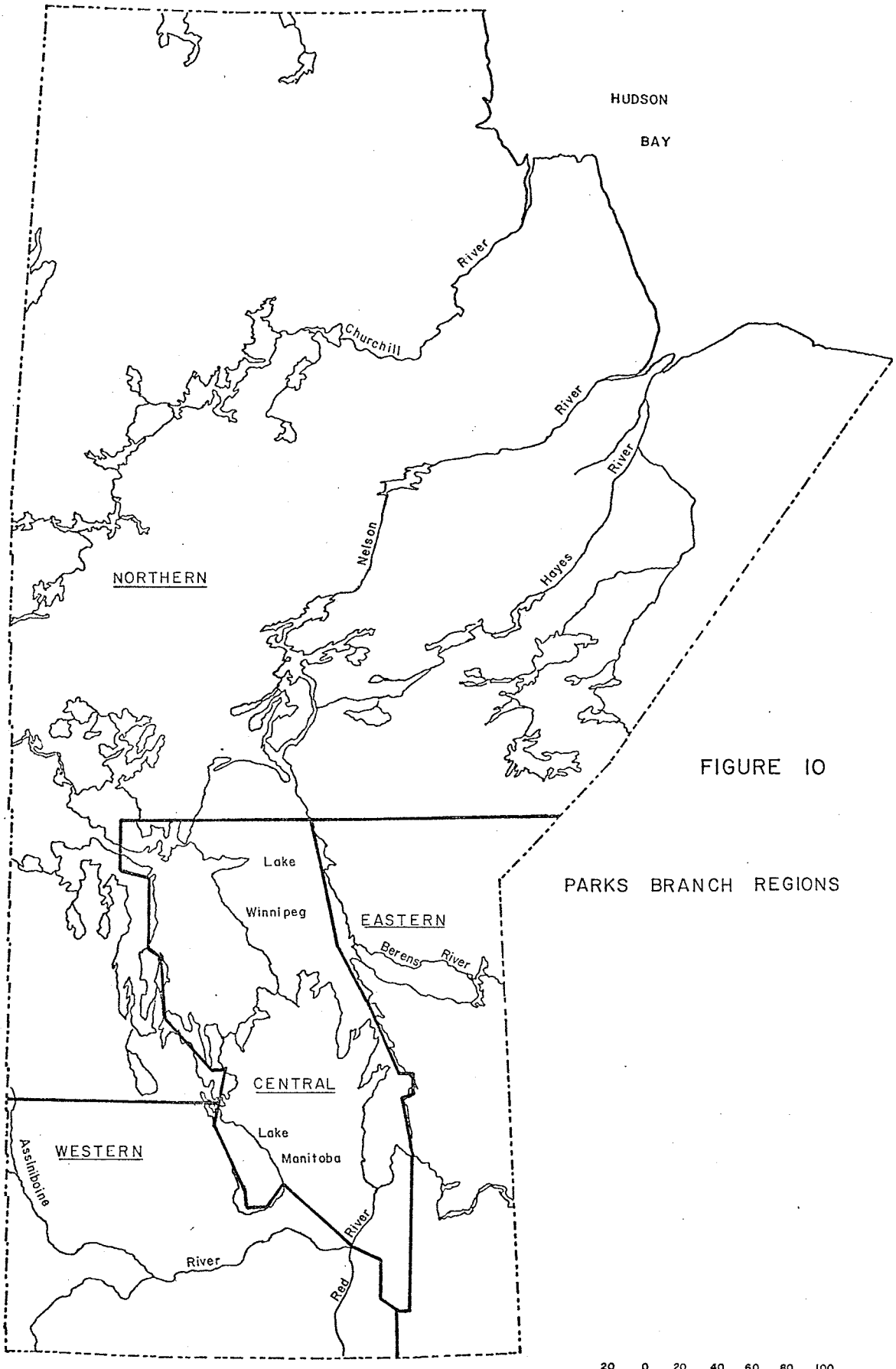


FIGURE 10

PARKS BRANCH REGIONS

Source: Nixon et. al. 1972.

According to a newspaper article, the Manitoba government will be undertaking a pilot project in regional municipal government during 1974 (Winnipeg Free Press 1974b:1).

In the past, the Parks Branch has favoured the idea of allowing municipalities, with provincial guidance, to define the regions to support regional parks. A Regional Parks Authority would develop from local initiative, and decisions regarding the composition of the authority would be made at the municipal level.

It is outside the scope of this thesis to discuss in further detail the pros and cons of regional government as opposed to the use of special recreational authorities to administer the regional parks program. However, this is an issue which the Parks Branch should consider as fully as possible when revising the proposed regional parks legislation.

Proposed Legislation

A basic requirement of a regional parks system for Manitoba is the passing of legislation to provide funding and guidelines for such a system. As previously explained, a draft of proposed legislation was prepared in the summer of 1973 by the writer. That preliminary draft is included in Appendix F. A revision of that proposal is now awaiting the results of the regional park pilot project before being further improved and presented to the legislature.

The improved draft states that the purpose of the Parks Assistance Act are:

a) To encourage the appreciation and use of the natural environment for recreational purposes by all Manitobans;

b) To assist local government agencies in the establishment of regional parks for the primary benefit of the people served by those agencies (Parks Branch 1973b).

Basically, the proposed legislation provides for funding similar to that of the Saskatchewan program. Financing for the planning, acquisition of land and equipment, development, maintenance, operation and staffing would be by a 60/40 or 50/50 sharing agreement between the province and rural municipalities and/or towns. An upper limit to the grants will be stated.

Several towns and rural municipalities joining together to pool their financial resources would define the recreational regions to be served by the park. Administration would be through a recreational authority composed of representatives from the participating local government bodies.

Although each park will be designed to fit specific demands as expressed by regional residents, it will also be planned within a framework of consideration of other parks in other regions. The legislation will specify the minimum distance a regional park may be from a provincial park, a provincial recreation area or another regional park. This will avoid parks too close together and will encourage a more even distribution across the province.

Comprehensive planning at the provincial level is necessary to obtain the full social utility of each regional park.

CHAPTER VIII

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Summary

This study, based on the general physical, social, economic and political situation in Manitoba, has sought to answer some of the questions posed by Hardy and McGilly by examining regional parks and open spaces in other countries and provinces. Hardy and McGilly ask (1) what types of parks can fill the intermediate needs between the local and provincial scales, and (2) what sharing arrangements between provincial and municipal governments are appropriate for the establishment, control and maintenance of regional parks (1961:1041).

To form a broad foundation for this study, the relationship between leisure and recreation and the dimensions of recreation were examined. Leisure is a segment of a person's total time budget, while recreation is activity, inactivity or experience which takes place during leisure time. Recreation can be considered in relation to the setting within which it takes place: indoor/outdoor or, more appropriately, urban/non-urban.

Recreation functions in a number of ways such as relieving tension and problem-solving. The recreational experience can provide relaxation, entertainment and the opportunity for personal and social development. Also, it can be a time-filler between more goal-directed pursuits.

This study then explored the basic planning approaches to providing recreation opportunities which can function positively to answer

a wide range of individual needs. Most planning approaches, whether specialized (e.g., economic, environmental or political) or systemic, deal in some measure with the same issues: (1) the socioeconomic characteristics of recreationists, (2) the consumption and demand aspects of recreation, (3) the physical environment where parks will be developed, and (4) the economic aspects of park development. These four elements were examined within a theoretical framework first and then, in later chapters applied within the Manitoba context.

Knowledge of the first and second elements, the socioeconomic characteristics of the potential recreationists and their recreational needs or demands and their current recreational participation patterns, enables the planner to formulate specific objectives for the regional parks system.

Manitoba's population contains approximately 301,800 rural residents. The rural areas, according to the provincial government's view, are in a state of economic decline. Each year many families leave the problem rural areas and move into the larger communities of the province.

A national study has revealed that rural inhabitants participate less frequently in outdoor recreation activities than do their urban counterparts. If this holds true in Manitoba (there are no recent statistics to either deny or substantiate this for the province), several factors may be influencing the lack of participation. Lack of facilities, lack of interest in the types of recreational facilities which are provided and the cold climate of Manitoba may provide some of the reasons.

Planning regional parks requires some appreciation of the various

types of recreational demands. Because studies of demand in all its aspects and research concerning the forces which motivate people to recreate are so rudimentary, an in-depth understanding of current recreation needs is very difficult to achieve. Prediction of future recreation demands is, therefore, extremely hazardous.

Data are absent regarding the present use of facilities which do exist in rural Manitoba and which might serve a regional function. Are such facilities used to capacity or are they under-used? If they are under-used, why is this the case? Could the improvement of existing facilities meet the regional scale needs which are evident? These are questions with which regional parks planners must grapple, but the scarcity of information in this regard prevented an in-depth examination of such matters in the current study.

Although the various levels of demand and the various components of user-satisfaction are poorly understood, the current need for additional parks in Manitoba is readily apparent. In the mid-sixties a large number of rural communities reported having no parks (Baker 1965). In some of the communities with parks, service organizations had developed and operated local parks since local governments had been unable to fill needs. From the rural communities, the Parks Branch still receives many requests for assistance in park development. These facts prove beyond a doubt that recreational needs exist in rural Manitoba. Regional parks might be able to meet some of the needs, whether they are very localized or regional in nature.

In addition to acquiring a grasp of the demand or need side of recreation, a planner must understand a third factor, the physical envir-

ment or potential supply of recreation space. Recreational planning is not simply a matter of allocating resources (environmental and financial) to needs. The environmental resources and the impacts recreation will have upon them are ill-defined. Heightened understanding of ecological relationships is necessary, and the recreation planner's skill in interpreting recreational carrying capacity of the land is increasing with the development of simulation models and other techniques.

The physical environment of Manitoba, although not spectacular in a scenic sense when compared to other parts of Canada, does hold great potential for further development of year-round non-urban recreational facilities. The rock outcrops, eskers and escarpments and large number of lakes and rivers in the province form the environmental base for recreation development. The wide range of vegetation from tundra to grasslands along with the large amount of sunshine also encourage recreational activities.

The fourth major consideration of recreational planning, the economics of park development, has a role in the formulation of the objectives of a regional parks system. This study, through an exploration of the work by Burton (1967), Beardsley (1971) and others, has attempted to point out the dangers of overestimating the economic advantages to be gained from the development of regional parks in problem rural areas.

Conclusions

The legislation proposed for a regional parks system in Manitoba (Appendix F) answers the questions formulated by Hardy and McGilly. To meet the specific problems in our province, a regional park should be

oriented toward the needs of the region's residents with tourist needs filled by provincial or national parks. Based on the experiences of other provinces (especially on that of Ontario, British Columbia and Saskatchewan), and the special needs in Manitoba, it seems that a size of twenty-five to thirty acres might be adequate for the provision of simple recreational pursuits such as picnicking, camping, hiking, bicycling, swimming and informal play. However, no strict regulations should specify that a regional park has to meet these space and activity criteria. The province should establish no abstract standard to which regional parks must conform.

In some instances, provincial recreational areas might best fit into the regional parks network as may some large local parks. One important aspect of Manitoba's proposed regional parks system is its flexibility. It is flexible enough to place a large degree of responsibility for decision-making onto the Regional Parks Authorities which would be formed from residents of the municipalities establishing a park.

The Regional Parks Authorities will probably be better able to understand the functional relationships and social context of rural recreational regions than would Parks Branch planners. A great degree of input from the public, whether as individuals or as service agencies, will also be possible in the creation or modification of the regional system.

Financial assistance from the Provincial Government would be fifty or sixty percent of the cost of acquisition, development, maintenance and staffing of a regional park. Whether or not this will be adequate incentive to the rural communities is debatable. The percent of the total

budget rural governments are willing to spend on recreation is rising very slowly, if at all. The results of the 1974 regional park pilot project may give some indications of the potential response to the programme.

While regional parks must be geared to serve the needs of its particular regional users, they must also be integrated into a total regional parks *system*. Comprehensive planning is essential to eliminate overlapping service areas and to assure that most recreational needs are met. This responsibility will rest with planners of the Parks Branch.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A. RECREATION SITE CLASSIFICATION SYSTEM PROPOSED BY THE OUTDOOR RECREATION RESOURCES REVIEW COMMISSION

Class I - High-Density Recreation Areas

Areas intensively developed and managed for mass use.

Class II - General Outdoor Recreation Areas

Areas subject to substantial development for a wide variety of specific recreation uses.

Class III - Natural Environment Areas

Various types of areas that are suitable for recreation in a natural environment and usually in combination with other uses.

Class IV - Unique Natural Areas

Areas of outstanding scenic splendor, natural wonder, or scientific importance.

Class V - Primitive Areas

Undisturbed roadless areas characterized by natural, wild conditions, including 'wilderness areas'.

Class VI - Historic and Cultural Sites

Sites of major historic or cultural significance, either local, regional, or national.

Source: ORRRC 1962:7.

APPENDIX B. CANADIAN NATIONAL PARKS ZONING PLAN

The zoning plan defines five zones: Unique areas, Wilderness Recreation areas, Natural Environment areas, General Outdoor Recreation areas and Intensive Use areas.

Class I - Unique areas. The distinguishing feature of these areas is that management objectives are aimed at the protection or preservation of the landscape rather than toward the onsite use of the area by man.

Class II - Wilderness Recreation areas. The distinguishing feature of this class is the controlled utilization of the landscape by man. The primary concern of management is the enjoyment of the landscape through a close, personal contact with nature. Class II lands are roadless areas.

Class III - Natural Environment areas. The concept of the wilderness threshold best describes this land-use category. The area serves as a buffer between Class I or II land and the more intensively backdrop which is so essential to many park features such as highways, parkways and lodges. The natural environment areas are critical in protecting the wilderness character of the park. Permissible development would be scenic park roads.

Class IV - General Outdoor Recreation areas. These areas are those in which intensively developed recreational facilities are located or proposed. Included are major highways, campgrounds, and trailer parks, large day-use areas and similar facilities.

Class V - Intensive Use areas. The management and operation of the park requires land areas for administrative, operational or residential facilities. Lands in this category must be designated in non-critical areas. These areas should not be competing for space with land-use requirements in a higher category. They are to be designated in areas where they do not interfere with other park purposes.

Source: Brooks 1969:320.

APPENDIX C. STATISTICS CANADA DEFINITIONS

Urban/Rural:

The urban population includes all persons living in: (1) incorporated cities, towns and villages with a population of 1,000 or over; (2) unincorporated places of 1,000 or over, having a population density of at least 1,000 per square mile; (3) the built-up fringes of (1) and (2) having a minimum population of 1,000 and a density of at least 1,000 per square mile. All the remaining population is rural.

Farm:

The farm population includes all persons living in dwellings situated on a farm. A farm, for census purposes, is an agricultural holding of one or more acres with sales of agricultural products of $50 or more in the previous year. All persons living on such holdings in rural areas are classed as 'rural farm'. It therefore includes some persons who are not connected with farming operations and, conversely, excludes the farm operator who lives in the neighboring city, town or village.

Source: Statistics Canada 1972:1.

APPENDIX D. CRITERIA FOR PROVINCIAL PARK LANDS

(Park System Classification Outline)

NATURAL PARKS

- Provincial Natural Parks)
- Provincial Wilderness Parks) one category

RECREATION PARKS

- Provincial Recreation Parks
- Municipal Park and Recreation Areas (Assistance Program)

TRAVELWAYS

- Provincial Recreational Trailways
- Provincial Parkways
- Provincial Recreational Waterways

HERITAGE PARKS

- Special Areas (normally less than 100 acres) containing human, geological, floral, faunal, or hydrological features of historical importance in preserving representative segments of our provincial heritage.

SPECIAL USE PARKS

- Wayside Parks -- three classes
- Campgrounds -- three classes
- Marine Parks -- three classes
- Access Sites
- Information Centers
- Seasonal Dwelling Areas -- Group Dwelling Areas (Group Camp Sites)
  -- Single Unit Dwelling Areas (Cottage Subdivisions) (Trailer Villages)

RECREATIONAL RESERVES

- Reserve placed on Crown land which contains or meets the criteria for any of the above types of park land; however, due to present demand, does not warrant legal designation or development, or areas in which the recreation potential is unknown but is reported to meet the criteria for inclusion within the provincial park land system.

Source: Parks Branch, Department of Tourism, Recreation and Cultural Affairs. Province of Manitoba. n.d.(a).

APPENDIX E. RETURN OF QUESTIONNAIRES BY MUNICIPAL CLASSES.

Municipal Class	Questionnaires Sent Total No.	Questionnaires Returned Total No.	Questionnaires Returned %
Rural Municipality	106	85	88[1]
Local Government District	17	10	59[2]
Villages	38	24	63[3]
Towns	35	30	86[4]
Suburbans	6	5	83[5]
Cities	8	8	100[6]
TOTAL	210	162	77

[1] No questionnaires were received from the Rural Municipalities of Ethelbert, Glenella, Lakeview, Langford, Laurence, Lorne, Minitonas, Morton, Mossey River, Ochre River, Rosedale, Ste. Anne, Ste. Rose, Shellmouth, Tache, Thompson, Victoria, Victoria Beach, Wallace, Westbourne, Woodworth.

[2] No questionnaires were received from the Local Government Districts of Alonsa, Churchill, Consol, Mountain, Pinawa, Piney, Stuartburn.

[3] No questionnaires were received from the Villages of Benito, Bowsman, Ethelbert, Foxwarren, Gilbert Plains, Glenboro, Minitonas, Napinka, Pilot Mound, Rossburn, St. Claude, Ste. Rose du Lac, Somerset, Wawanesa.

[4] No questionnaires were received from the Towns of Roblin, Souris, Swan River, Virden, Winnipeg Beach.

[5] No questionnaire was received from the Suburban Municipality of St. Vital.

[6] Includes the Metropolitan Corporation of Greater Winnipeg.

Source: Baker 1965:23.

APPENDIX F.

PARKS ASSISTANCE ACT

Preliminary Draft for Discussion

August, 1973

Winnipeg, Manitoba

Prepared by B. Sims
for the Rural Region Working Group
Province of Manitoba

Preliminary Draft

PARKS ASSISTANCE ACT

1. In this Act,

   a) "Minister" means the member of the Executive Council charged by the Local Governor in Council with the administration of this Act;

   b) "municipality" means either any area incorporated as a city excluding Winnipeg, district, township, town or village under any Act or a local government district or an Indian reserve or the corporation into which the residents of an area have been incorporated as a municipality;

   c) "Parks Authority" or "Authority" means the authority constituted under the Act for the purpose of administering an approved park or trail;

   d) "approved park" means a park approved for assistance under this Act;

   e) "approved trail" means a trail approved for assistance under this Act;

   f) "conceptual plan" means a general scheme depicting areas to be set aside for various uses;

   g) "detailed plan" means a scheme showing all design and engineering details.

2. 1) A municipality may apply to the minister for the establishment of a Parks Authority.

   2) Any two or more municipalities may enter into an agreement for the purpose of making an application to the Minister for the establishment of a Parks Authority, and may thereupon make such application.

   3) No agreement shall be entered into by a municipality unless a by-law has been passed at the local level authorizing the agreement.

4) The application of a municipality under section 1) or 2) shall be accompanied by a copy of the resolution authorizing the application.

3. Where an application has been made under Section 2 the Lieutenant Governor in Council may, on the recommendation of the Minister, by order constitute a Parks Authority consisting of the representatives appointed from time to time by the municipality or municipalities applying for the establishment of a Parks Authority.

4. A Parks Authority shall be a body corporate.

5. 1) The Minister, with the approval of the Lieutenant Governor of Council, may make grants out of money appropriated therefor by the Legislature to a Parks Authority to assist in,
   a) the acquisition of land for an approved park or trail;
   b) the detailed planning of an approved park or trail;
   c) the development of an approved park or trail;
   d) the conversion of a provincial or public park or trail into an approved park or trail;
   e) the operation and maintenance of an approved park or trail.

   2) The assistance granted under subsection 1) excluding clause e) in respect of any one park or trail shall not exceed $50,000 or 50 percent of the total cost of acquiring the land, planning and developing the park or trail or the cost of converting a provincial or public park into an approved park or trail, whichever is lesser;

   3) The assistance granted under clause a) of subsection 1) for the acquisition of land shall not exceed $25,000 or 50 percent of the total cost of acquiring the land, whichever is the lesser;

   4) The Maintenance and Operation Schedule set forth as Schedule "A" to these regulations shall apply to approved parks and trails as set forth therein;

5) Where a Parks Authority has expended a sum for park or trail maintenance and operation for a year in respect of which the amount of operation and maintenance allowance has been determined under subsection 4), the Minister may out of money appropriated by the Legislature for the purpose pay as a contribution toward maintenance and operation for such year to that Parks Authority the lesser of:

a) a sum equal to one-half of the total of the sums expended in such year by the Parks Authority for maintenance and operation purposes; or

b) a sum equal to one-half of the amount of the maintenance and operation allowance for such year as determined under subsection 4).

6) Maintenance and operation grants for an approved park or trail shall be renewed annually subject to review and approval by the Minister every five years beginning from the date on which the original grant under this Act becomes effective for that approved park or trail.

6. 1) A Parks Authority applying for a grant under section 5 of this Act shall file with the Minister an application signed by representatives from all municipalities in the applicant Parks Authority setting out:

a) the necessity for the acquisition, development or conversion, as the case may be, of the park or trail having regard to existing parks or trails in the vicinity that provide camping, picnicking and bathing facilities;

b) an outline of plans for the maintenance, operation and policing of the park or trail and the estimated cost and method of financing thereof;

c) where the application is for a grant to assist in developing a park or trail, the estimated cost of developing the park or trail and the method of financing the development of the park or trail;

d) where the application is for a grant to assist in acquiring a park or trail,

i) a list of the lands to be included in the park or trail containing the legal description of each parcel of land and the names and addresses of the owners thereof, and

ii) the estimated cost of acquiring the lands to be included in the park or trail and the method of financing the acquisition of the land.

2) An application under subsection 1) shall be accompanied by,

a) a certified copy of the by-law providing for the establishment or development of the park or trail;

b) a conceptual plan showing the location of the park or trail, its boundaries and the areas to be set aside for particular uses; and

c) such other information as the Minister may require.

7. 1) The Minister in dealing with an application for assistance under this Act shall determine the need for the proposed park, having regard to its location in relation to other parks in Manitoba and the camping, picnicking and other facilities to be provided therein for the accommodation and enjoyment of the public.

2) Where an application for assistance is granted under this Act, the Minister shall approve the plans and specifications for the proposed approved park or trail as submitted by the applicant or with such alterations as he deems desirable.

8. 1) After a grant is approved, a Parks Authority shall have prepared a detailed plan for the approved park or trail for the Minister's approval.

2) The approved park or trail shall not be developed, maintained or operated otherwise than in accordance with the approval of the Minister.

3) Where aid has been granted under this Act to assist in the establishment and development of a park or trail, the park or trail or any part thereof shall not be sold or disposed of without the approval of the Lieutenant Governor in Council.

9. Without the express consent of the Minister, no approved park will be established where the proposed park,

a) contains less than 15 acres of land for public use;

b) cannot be clearly shown to serve a distinct regional function;

c) lies within fifty miles of a provincial park or provincial recreation area;

d) lies within twenty-five miles of an existing approved park.

10. Subject to this Act and the regulations, a Parks Authority may establish and operate an approved park or a trail and for that purpose may:

a) acquire by purchase, lease, gift or otherwise such land as it considers suitable for the purposes of the park or trail;

b) accept grants from any persons, municipalities or organizations by way of money, land or any other thing that may be useful in the establishment, development or operation of the approved park or trail;

c) enter into agreements for the construction, procurement and operation of suitable recreational facilities;

d) raise money by the levy of lease fees, concession fees, gate tolls or other charges against any portion or in respect of any property in the park;

e) employ such persons as are required for the establishment and operation of the park.

11. The Parks Authority may, subject to the approval of the Minister, operate more than one approved park and/or trail.

12. Where a Parks Authority has established an approved park or trail, any municipality that is not participating in the development and operation of the park or trail may enter into an agreement with the Parks Authority providing for such participation.

13. Subject to the approval of the Lieutenant Governor in Council, the Minister may by order dissolve a Parks Authority:
    a) where he is satisfied that it has failed to carry out its responsibilities; or
    b) where it requests that it be dissolved.

14. 1) For the purpose of carrying out the provisions of this Act according to their intent and of supplying any deficiency therein the Lieutenant Governor in Council may make regulations not inconsistent with the spirit of this Act which shall have the same force and effect as if enacted herein.