THE EVOLUTION OF URBAN CANADA:
AN ANALYSIS OF APPROACHES
AND INTERPRETATIONS
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The Evolution of Urban Canada: An Analysis of Approaches and Interpretations

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by

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Abbreviations .................................................................................................................. v

INTRODUCTION ................................................................................................................. 1

PART ONE: GENERAL PATTERNS OF DEVELOPMENT IN URBAN HISTORY AND URBAN STUDIES ............................................................................................................ 3

A. Pre-requisites to Understanding Canadian Urban History .............................................. 3

B. The Emergence of a New Field of Scholarship ............................................................... 3
   1. The Pre-1970s .............................................................................................................. 4
   2. The Development of Urban History and Urban Studies in the 1970s ....................... 6
      a) In the Social Sciences ......................................................................................... 6
      b) In History .......................................................................................................... 7
      c) Institutionalization of the Field ......................................................................... 8
      d) The Urban Studies Environment ..................................................................... 9

PART TWO: MAJOR HISTORIOGRAPHIC TRENDS ............................................................ 11

A. The Use of Theory ....................................................................................................... 11

B. General Approaches and Interpretations .................................................................... 11
   1. Chronological Frameworks and Typologies ......................................................... 12
   2. Metropolis — Hierarchy and Relationships ......................................................... 12
   3. The Urbanization Process .................................................................................... 14
   4. Power Relationships ............................................................................................ 15

C. The Impact of Social History and its Methods ............................................................. 16

PART THREE: MAJOR THEMES IN URBAN STUDIES ...................................................... 17

A. The Urban System ...................................................................................................... 17
   1. The Colonial and Pre-Industrial Period ................................................................. 17
   2. The Post-1850 System .......................................................................................... 18
   3. Interpretive Perspectives ....................................................................................... 19

B. Organizing Urban Space ............................................................................................ 20
   1. Promotion and Economic Control ....................................................................... 20
   2. The Social Division of Space .............................................................................. 23
   3. The Built Environment: Planning, Housing and Architecture .......................... 24

C. Controlling the City .................................................................................................. 26
   1. Federal-Provincial-Municipal Relationships ....................................................... 26
   2. Urban Politics and Governance ......................................................................... 28
   3. Urban Reform Movements ............................................................................... 28
   4. Administration and Services ............................................................................. 29

D. Population and Society .............................................................................................. 30
   1. Demography ........................................................................................................ 31
   2. Social Class ......................................................................................................... 31
   3. Ethnic Groups .................................................................................................... 32
   4. Family ................................................................................................................ 32
   5. Leisure, Sports and Cultural Life ....................................................................... 33
   6. Public Health and Welfare ............................................................................... 34
CONCLUSION
A. The Major Characteristics of Urban History
B. An Assessment
C. Future Concerns and Directions

APPENDIX A: URBAN STUDIES FORMATS
A. General Studies
B. Thematic Studies
C. Collections and Guides
D. Bibliographies and Guides
E. Methodological and Historiographical Studies
F. Journals
G. Comparative Studies
H. Audio-Visual and Teaching Resources

APPENDIX B: STUDIES AVAILABLE IN BOTH OFFICIAL LANGUAGES

ABBREVIATIONS

In an effort to save space we have occasionally used abbreviations for those journals, books, and publishers that are cited many times. In general, however, we have attempted to keep this usage to a minimum to allow readers to locate references quickly.

Journals
CHR
CJEPS/RCESP
HSSH
RHAF
UHR/RHU

Canadian Historical Review
Canadian Journal of Economics and Political Science/Revue canadienne d'économique et de science politique
Histoire sociale/Social History
Revue d'histoire de l'Amérique française
Urban History Review/Revue d'histoire urbaine

Books:
Canada's Urban Past
The Canadian City (1977)
The Canadian City (1984)
The Usable Urban Past
Shaping the Urban Landscape
Power and Place
Town and City


Alan E.J. Artibise and Gilbert A. Stelter, eds., The Usable Urban Past: Planning and Politics in the Modern Canadian City (Toronto: McClelland, 1979), Carleton Library Series #119.


Town and City


Publishers:
UTP

University of Toronto Press
INTRODUCTION

The study of the historical evolution of urban Canada is still a relatively new field of research. In the past decade, however, there has been a remarkable growth of interest not only by urban historians but also by scholars in many other disciplines. At a result, there has been a sharp increase in the publication of articles, theses and books, and seminars and conferences dealing with urban issues have become common. All this activity raises several questions. What direction is this research taking? How can it be evaluated? What are its weaknesses? These and other questions will be discussed in this report.

The idea for this study came to us when we were asked by an Italian urban history journal — *Storia Urbana* — to prepare an article on Canadian urban historiography. It quickly became apparent that a more elaborate and detailed study of the evolution of urban studies would be useful to researchers, professors and students. In addition, we felt that the increasing number of urban scholars who are not historians would find this study useful in terms of locating their work in an historical perspective.

Several useful articles on urban historiography already exist, particularly those written by Gilbert Steiner and John Weaver, but they are now several years old. We attempt to view the field from a more recent perspective. It was also felt that a more detailed analysis, complete with bibliographical references, would be useful. At the same time, we have not attempted to replicate in any way the exhaustive bibliography prepared by Arthabek and Stelzer.

This report attempts to analyze the main trends and the most significant work in the field, and it is organized around four key themes. The report is, in part, an historiographical essay. But it is, as well, an introduction to the study of Canadian urban history since it identifies the main works in the field.

Part One of the report discusses the origins of urban history as a field of study, noting the contributions not only of historians but of scholars in other disciplines. Part Two identifies, analyzes and discusses specific research topics that we feel represent major historiographical trends. Part Three, the longest section of the report, presents the major themes in urban studies and discusses the work that exists. Finally, in the appendix, we provide a concise guide to urban studies materials. It should be noted that when titles are available in translation, this fact will be noted, but full citations will be in English only. As well, an appendix will list important titles available in both official languages.

This report is the result of close collaboration between the two authors; we had numerous working sessions before we completed this final draft. We have also had generous assistance from numerous colleagues and friends who have read and commented on various versions of this report. We must also acknowledge the work of many scholars who, in one way or another, have commented on the books, articles and theses that have been prepared on the evolution of urban Canada. It is not possible to mention all these people here, but we do wish to acknowledge the assistance of Jean-Claude Robert, Gilbert A. Steiner, John C. Weaver, and John H. Taylor. We must also thank our respective secretaries who have typed innumerable versions of this manuscript.


PART ONE: GENERAL PATTERNS OF DEVELOPMENT IN URBAN HISTORY AND URBAN STUDIES

A. Pre-requisites to Understanding Canadian Urban History

The early 1970s marks the beginnings of rapid development in the field of Canadian urban history. How is this explained? In order to understand the birth and development of Canadian urban history, it is necessary that it be placed in a larger intellectual context. Thus, this section will examine certain aspects of the evolution of the discipline of history itself since certain major tendencies of general Canadian historiography are also present in urban history. It is also important to take into account the development of an urban sub-field in several other disciplines. And, finally, to place these developments in the social context of the 1960s and 1970s.

Canadian historical writing has a long history dating back to New France, but it is in the course of the twentieth century that it experienced its most significant developments with the rise of professional historians and the emergence of history as a recognized university discipline.

One of the fundamental characteristics of Canada that has affected historical writing is that the population of the country is dispersed into distinct regions and this, in turn, has led to local "schools" of writing and to regional approaches. Also important is the fact that for several decades Canadian historiography was affected by the generally conservative nature of society, and the recent influence of more radical approaches has not completely eliminated this conservative element. Nationalism is another extremely important factor in explaining the themes and orientations of Canadian historiography. Nationalism has not been a unifying theme; rather, there exists two "national" histories — French and English.

English-Canadian historiography has been characterized by a strong British intellectual influence that, for more than a century, was manifest in the university milieu. This tradition of political, constitutional and institutional history emphasized the biographical approach and was dominated by University of Toronto historians who were often of British origin, or were Canadians trained in British universities. Until the end of the 1960s, this British tradition was dominant. Since the late 1960s and early 1970s, however, the influence of American historiography has become very evident. New approaches and methodologies have been developed and this trend, together with the rapid growth in the number of historians, has resulted in a great deal of diversity in the 1970s and early 1980s.

French-Canadian historiography also has a tradition of conservatism. Dominated for many decades by priest-historians, French-Canadian historiography also focused on institutions and the study of constitutional issues, as well as on religion and nationalism. But these traditions were abandoned earlier in Quebec than in the rest of the country. Since 1945, French-Canadian historiography has been profoundly influenced by French historiography, in particular by the French "school" of economic and social history. More recently, French-Canadian historiography has been affected by other foreign influences such as American social history, a phenomenon that is especially important in the case of urban history. As in English Canada, French-Canadian historiography — or more correctly Quebec historiography — has become since 1970 more diverse in themes and approaches. In the course of the past two decades, Quebec nationalism has represented a dynamic force which has left its imprint on historiography trends.

In both English Canada and in Quebec, it was not until the 1960s and 1970s that new themes and approaches appeared; themes and approaches influenced by social history. In this sense, Canadian historiography is a dependent historiography. It is strongly influenced by foreign methods and ideals. It is imposed, to varying degrees, by British, American and French approaches. Canadian historians in the past two decades have, nevertheless, been capable of producing some original and stimulating work.

B. The Emergence of a New Field of Scholarship

In this general context, it is not surprising to note that the field of urban history only developed as a significant area of study in the 1970s, both in English Canada and in Quebec.


There were, of course, several earlier developments and it is necessary to briefly outline these before analyzing the recent expansion of urban studies.

1. The Pre-1970s

Before 1970, historians who were interested in some aspect of the urban phenomenon generally wrote local or municipal history. Their work was generally structured as a political chronicle of the community. They mentioned certain economic characteristics but in a narrative fashion, without an economic perspective. The best known of these historians were John Irwin Cooper, Stephen Lauzon, and Kailbourn Jenkins, who wrote on Montreal; and Edwin Guillette, who studied Toronto. Before the emergence of urban (as opposed to local) history, the most important work that treated the evolution of urban phenomena was not that compiled by historians, but rather, the work of geographers, sociologists and economists.

In Quebec, geographers have made a particularly important contribution to urban studies. This is explained by the influence of French geography and especially by the human and urban geography imported to Quebec by the well-known French geographer, Raoul Blachard. Blanchard, who taught for many years in Quebec, has written several important studies of the communities and regions of Quebec. His studies of the history of evolution of Montreal and Quebec City are still classics. As well, Blanchard had a profound influence on a generation of French-Canadian geographers. His students completed many theses and published numerous articles on urban topics, particularly in the 1950s and 1960s. Most importantly, Blanchard's students learned to place geography in an historical context. Since 1970, Quebec geography has departed from the model of French human geography. Historical geography is still, however, an important field of study, but the work in this area has declined from the previous decades.

The other important group of scholars who contributed to the study of urban Quebec prior to 1970 is the sociologists. Quebec sociology did not emerge as a strong, organized discipline until after World War Two. It was then strongly influenced by the American sociology, following in the tradition of work completed by Everett Hughes and Horace Miner in the 1930s. These scholars and their Quebec students were interested in the transformation from a "traditional" society to a "modern" society. By the 1950s and 1960s, young Quebec sociologists undertook numerous descriptive studies of the urban milieu. They were more interested in small towns, villages, and neighbourhoods than in cities, and their work almost ignored entirely the Quebec metropolis, Montreal, which contained more than forty per cent of the Quebec population. A turning point in this respect was the inquiry undertaken by the priest and sociologist, Norbert Lacoste, on Montreal's population. The collabo-

La revue d'urbanisme (Montreal: Presses De l'Universite De Montreal, 1971). This journal contains important contributions to urban studies.


7. Of particular interest are the following studies: L'Est du Canada Francais, 1629 (Montreal: Beauchemin, 1938); Le Centre de Canada Francais (Montreal: Beauchemin, 1949); L'arche de Canada Fran-


8. The two principal Quebec geographic journals are the Cahiers de geographic de l'Université de Quebec (formerly de Geographic de Quebec), published by the University of Quebec, and the Revue de Geographic de Montreal (formerly Revue canadienne de Geographic published by the University of Toronto). Both journals have published articles dealing with the evolution of urban centers.

9. Everett C. Benson, French Canada in Transition (Chicago University of Chicago Press, 1943). This is one of the most important studies on the urbanization of French Canada.

10. Albert Faucher, Histoire économique et social canadienne (Montreal: Fides, 1970). This is one of the most important studies on the urbanization of French Canada.

11. G. Taylor, Urban Geography (Londres: Methuen, 1951); B.P. Kerr and Jacob Spil, The Changing Faces of Society: A Study in Urban Geography (Ottawa: Queen's Printer, 1961); J. Spil, Urban Develop-
ment in South-Central Ontario (Anson: Van Gorcum, 1955); J.W. Waterton, Urban Developments in the Niagara Peninsula (Ottawa: Car-

dleton University Press, 1983). This contains an excellent introductory essay that surveys much of the work published since 1955 on Southern Ontario, including urban studies literature.
within frameworks already established by geography; they did not. In particular, historians tended to give far more emphasis to the role of individuals and institutions in shaping the urban environment.18 Urban history was also influenced by the work of economists and economic historians, especially those involved with the school of political economy at the University of Toronto. Before urban historians established a conscious concern with urban studies, interest in the urban past stemmed from the fact that towns and cities were nodal points of leadership and change in the larger society. Traditional interpretations of Canadian history emphasized by such scholars as Harold Innis, Arthur Lower and Donald Creighton stressed metropolitan relationships in their studies of the staples trade.19 Creighton, for example, emphasized the predominant role commercial economic and centralized business played in developing that Canadian urban network. For Creighton, an understanding of the growth of urban centres and the links between them could come only through an examination of "businessmen, merchants and railroad promoters." It was this central elite who built Canada's urban network and subordinated it to Montreal, the first domestic Canadian metropolis.20 While Creighton focused on central cities and especially on the "heuristic entrepreneurs" of Montreal, another historian took political economy and metropolitanism further by focusing on the countryside. Indeed, two articles by J.M.S. Careless — "Frontierization and Metropolitization in Canadian History" (1954)21 and "Somewhat Narrow Horizons" (1968)22 — marked, in many ways at least, the self-conscious beginning of urban history.


The term "urban history," already utilized in the United States in the 1960s, made its appearance in Canadian historiography in the early 1970s. During this decade, the first important books and articles appeared in both Quebec and in English Canada. It is important to note, however, that the development of the field of urban history took place in a broader context. Urban issues were much more in evidence during the decade in universities, in government, and among groups of citizens. These issues were future oriented; they concerned the urban environment and to urban politics. Not surprisingly, then, urban issues were also being studied by the social sciences.

a) The Social Sciences

The decade of the 1970s was one in which there was a virtual explosion of work in the humanities had social sciences. Economists, sociologists, political scientists, demographers, geographers, planners, and urbanists published a wide variety of studies. The historical perspective, however, was not very evident in most of these publications since they were preoccupied with the present and the future.23 Particularly significant in this regard was the urban economic where numerous debates were future oriented. These studies were, moreover, not based on an analysis of the past and did not integrate any historical perspective.24

There are, of course, a few exceptions to this generalization. Some social scientists had an interest in the historical perspective and were convinced of the necessity to base their analysis of the present in a historical framework. Historical geography, for example, remained a dynamic field in which a number of geographers were concerned to discuss and debate questions relating to the urban past. The most important work by geographers concerned the study of the evolution of the urban system and the examination of spatial differentiation within urban areas. Indeed, Canadian geographers have made significant contributions to these studies in an understanding of urban history.

It is also important to note the emergence of new subdisciplines in the 1970s — the history of urban planning and of urbanism. Developed by a few architects and planners, these new approaches, while limited, gained in importance by the end of the decade.25 Finally, it is necessary to mention the numerous, but usually isolated, contributions of sociolo-gists, political scientists and demographers who studied diverse aspects of urban evolution.26 They represent an important contribution to urban history even if, for the most part, their work did not extend beyond the period before 1945.27

b) The Historians

By the early 1970s, it was apparent that a new subfield in Canadian history had emerged; "urban history" quickly became a popular label. By June 1973, for example, Gilles Debroucq,28 in an article in the Toronto St. Clair Stelter could present a paper devoted solely to urban history at the annual meeting of the Canadian Historical Association.29 Two years later, Stelter prepared a report of "Current Research in Urban History" that included a detailed listing of 130 researchers.30

As urban history grew rapidly in those years, it became possible to characterize the field in several distinct ways. In terms of practitioners, urban historians were generally young scholars who had been either raised or trained in urban milieus. Their formal educational training in the 1960s had been, in part, shaped by the political issues of that decade, including the so-called "urban crisis," a concern for social issues, and an appreciation of the distribution of power in society. As well, this new generation was exposed to and generally impressed by the new possibilities that existed for historical research in terms of utilizing many of the concepts and the theoretical approach in a number of disciplines. These factors were important in understanding the rapid growth of urban history since the new subfield benefited from the energy of a younger generation of scholars who saw the emerging field not only as an important addition to the broad study of Canadian history, but as an area of research that would clearly distinguish them from their earlier colleagues in history and would link them with new colleagues in the social sciences. Thus, from the outset, the study of the urban past was characterized by a fairly broad spectrum of disciplines.

Two other characteristics of the study of the urban past in this early phase are notable — its regional nature and the emphasis on "social" topics. Regionally, the study of the evolution of urban Canada was at first heavily concentrated in Ontario where the city of Toronto and its graduate programs clearly prominent. J.M.S. Careless was especially important here, as he directed numerous M.A. and Ph.D. theses on urban topics throughout the decade. Also important, however, was the Canadian Social History Project (the "Hamilton Project") under the direction of Michael Katz.30 There was also encouraging work taking place in the West and in the Atlantic provinces. In Quebec, however, few urban historians had emerged since the province's scholars had other priorities. There was, nevertheless, a significant research project underway at the Universite du Quebec a Montreal (the "Montreal Project") devoted to the study of society in Montreal during the period 1815-1914.31 Equally noteworthy was the local nature of urban history, reflected in the high degree of correlation between where scholars were located and what places they were studying. With few exceptions, scholars were engaged in research on the communities in which they lived.32

In terms of approach, the emphasis was clearly on what is generally described as "social" history, including topics ranging from systematic analyses of social structure to description of institutions and groups. The two most important systematic projects were those on Hamilton and Montreal, both of which were exploring new methods for understanding the complexities of urban society. Beyond those, these modest undertakings were not part of a coherent program. However, by the late 1970s, many urban historians were beginning to accept this approach as a fundamental component of the discipline. Chronologically, the vast majority of researchers were concentrating on the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries; understandably so in a country where urbanization was a relatively recent phenomenon. The result, however, was a lack of serious examination of urban development in the preconfederation era and in the period since 1920.

By 1980, several of these trends had changed and the thriving field of urban studies had matured to a considerable

19. The best single work of these historians, and their influence, is Donald Davis, The Metropolitan Trinity and Canadian Urban History, unpublished paper presented at the Annual Meeting of CHA, University of British Columbia, June 1983. Also important, though he had few connections with Toronto, was the Ph.D. dissertation (Carleton 1976) of Robert Batten, The Development of Winnipeg as a Metropolitan Centre. See also the discussion of his work in George M. Creighton, The Century in Review, University of Toronto Press, 1974.
22. Presidential Address to the Canadian Historical Association, Historical Review (1948), pp. 1-10. The influence of Carden is also discussed in the Davis paper.
23. Numerous publications appeared in the 1930s published by urban historians and continues to far too many to list here.
25. See the works cited below when these themes are discussed.
26. See the works cited in the section on the built environment.
27. See, for example, the two volumes edited by James Lorimer and Elyse Ross, The City in Canada: The Planning and Policies of Canada's Cities (Toronto: Lorimer, 1974) and The Second City Book: Studies of Urban Development and Social Change in Toronto (1973). See also the numerous volumes published by the Institute of Urban Studies at the University of Toronto, the numerous works of the boréal national de la recherche scientifique (INRS) — Urbanization in Montreal, or the thematic issue on "Structures urbaines," published in le Revue d'urbanisation, 41 (1979), 428-29 (see chapter 1). See also the following classics on the Urban Society: Urbanism and the Canadian City, edited by J. W. Galbraith (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1953).
28. For a complete discussion of his work see: UUTTTT, pp. 21-36.
31. For a brief description of this project see: UUTTTT, pp. 308-321, 321-322.
32. Stelter, "Current Research in Urban History," UHRR, No. 3, 75-84.
Evolution of Urban Canada

degree in a short time. Relatively, the former concentration of urban population in Ontario had diminished considerably as the study of the urban past grew rapidly in other areas. The most notable development in this regard was the rapid growth of research activity in Quebec, followed by notable but less dramatic increases in the West and in Atlantic Canada. Much of the work was being undertaken in graduate programs in newer or smaller universities, such as Laval University, Université du Québec à Montréal, Guelph, Regina and Victoria. Unfortunately, however, there was still little evidence that many scholars were tackling topics that ranged beyond either their own communities or even region. Similarly, social themes remained important to most researchers, but other themes were beginning to be recognized and addressed. Among the newer topics was an increasing emphasis on the built environment, economic growth, and the study of govern- ment and politics. The tendency to examine the period from 1870 to 1920 was still evident, but there were signs that new work was being undertaken in both the pre-1870 and the post-1920 eras.

Perhaps the most important trend, however, was the interest of an increasing number of scholars in the concept of power and place: a development that relates both to the old concern in Canadian historiography with political economy and metropolitan hinterland relationships, and to the new concern of Manitoba conferences of the late 1970s and early 1980s. This trend was recognized in a major conference held at the University of Guelph in August 1982.

c) Institutionalization of the Field

Urban history developed in a context of social transformation and intellectual stimulation that characterized Canadian society in the 1960s and 1970s. And the emergence of a new field of study was confirmed by the appearance of a certain number of new organizations and publications in the 1970s. The first was the formation in 1971 of the Urban History Group of the Canadian Historical Association. The members of this group were not numerous but they were determined to establish a position in the broader community of historians. Their presence became clearly visible in 1972 when the first issue of the Urban History Review/Revue d'histoire urbaine appeared, published with the assistance of the History Division of the National Museum of Man. Although the Review began as a newsletter, it gradually transformed into a scholarly, interdisciplinary journal serving a diversified audience. The Urban History Review, published three times per year, plays an animating role in the field, informing urban specialists about current research, presenting new local, national, and international research in a variety of contexts and regions; what scholars are discovering, what topics they are researching; what topics need to be added to the research agenda; how research can best be carried out; and what sort of research materials are available to aid research.

One of the key aims of the Review is to bring together the various disciplinary perspectives that exist in the broad field of urban studies.

In addition, during the 1970s and 1980s, urban history articles multiplied in other historical journals such as the Canadian Historical Review, d'histoire de l'Amé- rique française, and Histoire sociale/Social History.

Several conferences also helped identify urban history as a new field. The first was held at York University in 1973. Entitled the "Historical Urbanization in North America Conference," it brought together several American historians and Canadian contributors, presenting a variety of exploratory papers. The first major Canadian urban history conference was held at the University of Guelph in 1977 and it provided solid evidence of the rapid growth of the field. The conference provided an occasion for researchers to present their work and to report on projects in progress. From the perspective of the mid-1980s, there is little doubt that but this first Guelph conference was an important step in the evolution of the field.

A second conference was held at the University of Guelph in 1982. It attempted to bring together North-American scholars working on urban evolution and the papers presented by Canadian scholars indicated that they had matured rapidly. The 1982 "North American Urban History Conference" also provided evidence that disciplines other than history were studying urban evolution. In this respect, the

"Canadian Urban Studies Conference" planned for the University of Winnipeg in 1985 will attempt to involve scholars and practitioners from a wide variety of fields.

In addition to these major conferences, urban historians have actively participated in many regional conferences and in the annual meetings of the Canadian Historical Association. They have also, especially since 1980, been very visible on the international scene, especially in Great Britain, the United States, France, Italy, and Germany.

Another tangible sign of the institutionalization of the field is the rapid growth of urban history courses in universities. Since 1974, the Université du Québec à Montréal has had an undergraduate urban history course and many other universities have developed similar courses. In short, in the space of a decade, urban history has become a structured and identifiable field.

d) The Urban Studies Environment

While urban history prospered and expanded throughout the 1970s and early 1980s, other disciplines also either turned to urban studies or increased their commitment to the field. In the universities, this trend was marked by the establishment of research centers for Urban and Community Studies at the University of Toronto, the Institute of Urban Studies at the University of Winnipeg, the Centre for Human Settlements at the University of British Columbia, and the Institute national de la recherche Scénétique (I.N.R.S.) - Urbanisation in the University of Quebec system. These and several other new centres were signs of incremental growth since there were several other thriving institutes or research centres already in existence, including the Institute of Local Government at Queen's University. Activity in universities, however, was not restricted to research. It included the intro-

40. For further information on this conference write: Institute of Urban Studies, University of Winnipeg, 515 Portage Avenue, Winnipeg, MB R3B 0W8.
41. For information on centres and universities, and for government departments and agencies, the best single source is Directory of Urban and Regional Information Sources (Ottawa, 1979). A more recent, but less comprehensive guide is Canada's Urban Past, pp. 273-332.
established committees and departments concerned with preservation and conservation and passed by-laws dealing with heritage buildings.64

By the early 1980s, however, the attention devoted to urban issues at all levels of government and in the universities was beginning to wane, both as a result of the recession and because many of the earlier initiatives had not — in the minds of politicians at least — fulfilled their early promise. Thus the federal urban ministry was disbanded in 1979, several provincial urban ministries were cut back, urban institutes foundered or closed their doors, and some journals ceased publication.65 Fortunately, since urban historians had not explicitly tied their interests or support for their research to contemporary themes, these changes had a minimal impact on the field. Indeed, as urban historians entered the decade of the 1980s, they were confident that interest in the study of the urban past — by historians and those in other disciplines — was increasing. What has changed was that urban studies now had to share public and private resources and concerns with a variety of other emerging fields, including labour, native, women's and ethnic studies.

PART TWO: MAJOR HISTORIOGRAPHIC TRENDS

Urban history emerged in the 1970s as a specific field of study in the context of Canadian historiography. This section will examine the orientations which characterized urban history by examining the issue of the use of theory, the development of several key approaches and interpretations, and the impact of social history and its methods.

A. The Use of Theory

In the preceding section, it was noted that the social sciences had an impact on urban history, particularly in the 1970s. Nevertheless, there remains a sharp distinction between most historians and social scientists; a distinction centred on the use of theory. The social sciences place a great deal of emphasis on the necessity of organizing research within a theoretical framework. Historians are far more reluctant to take this approach, although they increasingly feel there is a need to address theoretical questions. In this sense, they have remained closer to British and French historians who have retained a healthy reserve when it comes to theory.66 Can these observations be applied to Canadian urban historians?

It must be noted, first of all, that Canadian historians have generally demonstrated a distinct lack of interest in theory and, not surprisingly, this is also true among urban historians. There is, for example, still no general work by any Canadian urban historian on theoretical issues. Yet this does not mean that theory has been ignored entirely.

Part of the problem in the use of theory is the definitional issue of just what the city is: a problem historians share with urban specialists in other countries. At a recent international conference on urban studies, many participants noted the lack of a comprehensive theory of urban development and indicated that, perhaps, "this lack of progress" in the field might suggest that "there was no such thing as an urban phenomenon" and that the city was merely a convenient "container within which the real processes of historical change could be studied."67 In Canada, few would share this pessimistic view of urban studies as a distinct sub-discipline, even while accepting the fact that, to date, there has been no dominant theoretical framework in Canadian urban studies.

The lack of a theoretical framework for urban studies is also evident in the treatment of the historical evolution of urban communities. But while there are no general theories, there are two important developments that deserve to be discussed. The first is the fact that some historians have begun to make use of limited theoretical frameworks, even though this use of theory is rarely made explicit or systematic. Two important exceptions are the work of Michael Katz, who utilizes theories of family development and industrialization to explain the evolution of a nineteenth century community, and the work of Paul-André Linteau who utilizes the concept of land capitalism to understand urban development.

Notwithstanding the general lack of theory, there is a growing recognition that some fundamental interpretive questions need to be asked. Questions are being formulated that will, it is hoped, lead to new pathways in the development of the field. These questions include: What, if anything, do Canadian cities have in common? How important are regional distinctions? What is unique and what is commonplace in the history of individual cities? How does the Canadian urban experience differ from the American or European experience?68

These questions have lead to the second important development which is the growing awareness of the need to go beyond case studies and local history and to generate broader historical interpretations of Canadian urban development. To date, these approaches have not presented explicit theoretical frameworks, although there is no doubt that they are based on theoretical assumptions and that they provide a broad context for certain aspects of Canadian urban development. In any case, they provide useful tools for Canadian urban specialists.

B. General Approaches and Interpretations

"Canadian historians have not yet accepted any one general approach to urban development. There are at least two reasons for this fact. The first is that so much basic research still needs to be done — despite the significant accomplishments of the past two decades — that it is difficult, if not impossible, to generalize. Secondly, the strength of regionalism in Canada and the continuing importance of Quebec nationalism has served to divert scholars from approaches that would explain the entire Canadian experience; there is 53. Gilbert Stelter is one urban historian who is especially concerned about developing a general explanation of Canadian urban development. See his article, 'The City-Building Process in Canada,' in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

54. There are a great number of studies of the urban heritage movement. For one example see the special issue on "Urban Heritage," Urb/ RHC, Vol XI (October 1983), pp. 3-46.

55. For example, the Bureau of Municipal Research was disbanded in 1913, the Institute of Local Government in 1934. As of 1964, the Urban Reader, the Urban Forum, and the Urban Forum had ceased publication. City Magazine ceased publication in 1970 but begun again in 1983.
enough challenge in attempting to explain the many “vari-
ables” of the Canadian experience.

At the same time, it is possible to identify a number of
approaches that can be grouped under four headings: chronol-
ogical typologies; metropolis-hinterland relationships; the urban
ization process; and power relationships.

1. Chronological Frameworks and Typologies

Among urban historians there is a recognized need to
develop an approach that will provide both a chronological
categorization and a typology of cities. Attempts to develop
such an approach are numerous; they are neither new nor
unique to Canada. Some Canadian urban historians, how-
ever, have used one or other of these approaches in examining
Canadian urban development since they provide the possi-
bility of integrating and understanding the relationships
among a wide variety of phenomena. One of the most pop-
ular approaches has been the identification of several phases,
beginning with the mercantile or colonial, followed by the
commercial, and then the industrial era that lasts through to
about 1920. Since 1920, Canadian cities have entered a
modern phase that has variously been labelled the corporate
or post-industrial era. These phases are important to note,
cannot be applied rigorously to all urban places in all of
Canada’s regions. The point of this approach is, rather, to
emphasize that urbanization has taken place in a patterned
way in the urban evolution of Canada characterized by a particular political and econ-
omic milieu and that the country’s towns and cities,
regardless of scale, function and regional location, were
shaped to a great extent by that milieu.54

A second general approach attempts to characterize cit-
ies by placing them within a typology of community types
by function, including resource towns, manufacturing
centres, provincial capitals, service centres, etc. In this
approach, such variables as demography, patterns of land-
use, and factors determining political power are isolated
as keys to understanding community types.55 Another, more
recent approach, deals with the physical city as a mouser of
behaviour. In this context, the city is regarded as an inde-
pendent variable in some way influencing social organization
and behaviour.56

More promising, perhaps, than any of these attempts is
the recent development of comparative urban studies in an
international context. As Canadian scholars more beyond
isolated case and thematic studies, they are increasingly
attempting to place their work in a broad perspective. This
is evident in the number of publications that place Canadian
urban development in the context of North America,57 the
Americas,58 and even the western world,59 a phenomenon
that is not restricted to urban studies.60 In one sense, the
comparative approach skips a stage since Canadian scholars
have not yet developed convincing generalizations for
Canada. Yet it is precisely development since it compels
scholars to pose new questions that begin with the recogni-
tion that the Canadian urban experience is part of a broader
phenomenon that, ultimately, can only be fully understood
in an international context.

2. Metropolis-Hinterland Relationships

Another group of approaches to Canadian urban devel-
opment attempt to establish a hierarchy for communities.
Such a hierarchy is based on the relation between metropolis
and hinterland (or city and region); a major theme in Cana-
dian history in general and urban history in particular.
Indeed, the notion of a metropolis holding sway over a vast
resource hinterland is germane to any examination of Cana-
dian scholarship. Moreover, English-Canadian historians take
some pride in the “metropolitan thesis” since they view it as
an essentially “home-grown” approach and this is a rarity in
a sub-discipline sometimes noted for its dependence on
imported ideas.60 The popularity of metropolianism among
Canadian scholars dates back to the “Laurierian School” of
Canadian historiography,61 but despite these early origins it
has long remained a standard approach, both among histori-
ans and other scholars.62

Given the country’s geography and historical develop-
ment patterns, it is no surprise that this approach should be
so enduringly popular. Canada took form as a country with
large metropolis-hinterland communities on the one hand and
isolated, sparsely occupied expanse on the other hand; a
metropolis-hinterland relation joined in the exploitation of
 staple natural resources. The nature of the lands and
resources simply did not make for generally well distributed
occupation but it did encourage sizeable population concen-
trations at major controlling points. Furthermore, compared
with the United States, Canada produced far fewer middl-
ized cities and towns and was significantly different in the
degree to which metropolitan power could be exercised quite
directly over great swaths of countryside. Hence, “the influe-
ce of a limited number of major cities was strongly, plainly,
manifested across the Canadian landscape.”63

In terms of urban studies, the metropolitan approach owes
much to the work of J.M. Carless and his students.64 To
generalize about this large and growing body of work is dif-
ficult, but several aspects do stand out. The metropolitan
approach studies the complex of reciprocal relationships
between the concentrated population centre (metropolis) and
the extended community beyond it (hinterland). Put another
way, the metropolitan approach is not primarily concerned
with how the city affects those within it but with how the
city is affected and by those outside it. It is, in short, “exo-
urban” history as opposed to “intra-urban” history. Thus while the “intra-urban” scholar deals with land-use,
occupational patterns, political organization, the provision
of services, and so on, the “exo-urban” scholar is concerned
with how a metropolis centre affects all those inside out-
side and beyond its borders, from the immediate suburban
area to the farthest reaches of the hinterland. For example,
studies are undertaken of the metropolitan influence of
Montreal, Toronto or Winnipeg over the cities of Atlantic or

54. There have been numerous such efforts in the United States by such
historians as Lewis Mumford, Sam Bass Warner, Jr., and Theodore
Harburg. See the works cited in fn. 9.

55. Ibid.

56. For some examples see Stalter and Archibald, “Canterf Resouces
Town in Historical Perspective”; “Shaping the Urban Landscape:
Large U.S. Cities, Urban Development in Canada (Ontario: D.B.S.,
1961), and J. W. Maxwell, J. A. Greeg, and H. C. May, “The Func-
tional Structures of Canadian Cities: A Classification of Cities,”

57. For a survey of this approach in Canadian urban studies see Can-

58. See, for example, Power and Place.

59. Woodrow Bass, Jorgen E. Yaend, and Gilber A. Stalter, eds.,
Urbanization in the Americas: The Background to Comparative Par-

54. See the special issue of the Journal of Urban History, edited by Gil-
bert A. Stalter, on “Cities as Cultural Areal” which examines the
relationship between culture and urban form in eighteenth century
America and Great Britain. The issues will be published in late 1984
or early 1985.

55. See, for example, Allan Ruppersberg, “Canada and the Americans,”
History Today, Vol. 34 (February, 1984), pp. 18-30, in which the
author calls for a break away from the “mirrored perspective” of
recent history.


58. A recent example of the use of the approach by geographers is I.D.
McCrea, ed., Heartland and Hinterland: A Geography of Canada
(Doberna, Pennsylvania: Piont, 1982).

59. In addition to the cited, see Carless, “Frontier, Metropolisation and
of Metropolisation in Atlantic Canada,” in W. M. Wade, ed.,

FIGURE 3. C.R. Harnden, Bonaventure Station, Montreal, 1889.
Source: National Map Collection, Public Archives of Canada, NMC 78003/72.

60. J.M.S. Careless, “Metropolis and Region: The Entropiet Between
City and Region in Canadian History Before 1914,” U.R.H./R.U.

61. In addition to the cited, see, Carless, “Frontier, Metropolisation and
of Metropolisation in Atlantic Canada,” in W. M. Wade, ed.,
Regionalism in the Canadian Community, 1827-1987 (Toronto:
University of Toronto Press, 1989, pp. 117-129; Carless, “Some As-
pects of Urbanization in Nineteenth Century Ontario,” in W. A.
Armstrong, et al., eds., Aspects of Nineteenth Century Ontario (Toronto
University of Toronto Press, 1974); and Carless, “Aspects of Urban Life
in the West” in The Canadian City (1977).
Western Canadians. But the metropolitan approach also con- cerns itself with the process by which the concentrated and relatively complex communities called urban and relatively less complex communities found in the hinterland areas. How do hinterland resources, markets and potentialities for being serviced and directed influence the metropolitan centre itself?66

In short, to attempt to briefly summarize a complex concept, the metropolitan approach suggests at least two things. First, the key role of the urban centre or metropolis in organizing successive and over time, the Canadian urbanization process. There is, nevertheless, a larger context for understanding the urban development process, a context that analyzes urban develop- ment as a combination of demographic, economic, social, political, and spatial variables. This approach is apparent in a few general studies that place important Canadian cities in a broad context. These studies take into account the complexity of urban development and attempt to situate the local history within a larger context. This is the case for the two major research projects already mentioned which from the outset had very general goals; the Hamilton Project and the Montreal Project. But this perspective is only one way to study the urban context; after having completed a number of specialized monographs, scholars such as John Weaver, Gilbert Steiner and Jean-Francois Kostantinoff.

There are, as well, a few tentative comparative studies. In general, however, Canadian urban historians have opened the way because of their growing concern for the study of the process of urbanization in all its complexity and over long periods of time; a perspective that does not have an equivalent in other disciplines. Unfortunately, however, urban studies is still far away from an integrated or common per- ception of the urbanization process and, of course, from a sophisticated theoretical or interpretative framework.

4. Power Relationships

Power relationships have a very important place in Cana- dian history. This is the Canadian way of bringing together the older, traditional study of elites and the new approaches of social history. The political context of Canada for the past two decades also helps to explain such an orientation.

In most of the important studies, a key place is given to the study of dominant groups and urban cities. But, rather than looking at membership of these groups as unique individuals, historians are increasingly considering them as social groups, with interests to promote and to defend. There is, in other words, a sensibility to the phenomenon of power and control in an urban society. The dominant classes are perceived in the context of the dominating classes.

In Canada, the dominating-dominant relationship has not only a social connotation but an ethnographic connot- ation as well. Historians have become more and more conscious of this. They are now preoccupied with the significance of the presence of the distinctive ethnic groups in the shaping of urban experience, and of the competition among ethnic groups. In Quebec, the emphasis is placed on French-English relationships, on the dominant minority and a dominated majority. In this respect, Montreal represents an exceptional case study of the dynamics of ethnic relationships. The questions asked, especially Quebec historians, reflect the trendy analytical general historiography. But, seen in an urban con- text, the study of these relationships bring into focus specific connotations, demonstrated by attention being given to neighborhoods and to municipal administration as measures of the search for power.67

It is noteworthy, however, that the ethnic dimension of power relationships is concerned as well with groups other than the French and English. Urban historians are vitally interested in the immigrants who have come in growing numbers since the end of the nineteenth century — the so- called "mimmary historians" — to study the relationship between the search for research on immigration and eth- nic groups. This preoccupation was important in the political context of the 1970s when governments, and especially the federal government, concentrated on this process and, of course, from a sophisticated theoretical or interpretative framework.

How can this interest in power by Canadian historians be explained? A partial explanation can be found in recent intellectual history. There is, first of all, the tradition of rad- ical politics that has characterized Canada for more than half a century, especially among English Canadians. This tradition has found expression in antiformalist and labor-oriented movements, and most notably in the New Democratic Party (NDP). And within the NDP, there have been a radical minority known as the "Waffle Group" that sprang up in the 1960s and had a profound impact on a number of young intellectuals. There is also the influence of Marxism, nearly absent from the Canadian university tradition until the end of the 1960s but present throughout the 1970s. This sharp change in the university tradition was to be expected by the dynamism of Marxist thought in France, but the pheno- menon was also present in English Canada. Sociologists, political scientists, and social theorists were as much or more than historians — attracted by Marxist historical analysis. They have often stated their work in a context of long term study of society.

Among historians, the influence of Marxism is most often found in labour and economic history; urban history has not been influenced by Marxism to any great extent. It can be noted, however, that if Marxist historians are still few in number, the Marxist approach evident in the 1970s did affect the thought of many historians who, without entirely accept- ing Marxist analysis, have nevertheless been persuaded to give more attention to class relationships.

The political debates that have characterized Canadian society for the past two decades have certainly not been carried over into this new preoccupation with power relationships. The French-English conflict which is more than two centuries old, and

67. See, for example, Brenda Bradbury, "The Formation of the Canadian Urban Society," in The Urban Past, pp. 110-143.


PART THREE: MAJOR THEMES IN URBAN STUDIES

The work of Canadian urban historians can be organized into two categories: urban centres, organizing urban space, controlling the city, and population and society. In analyzing the writing that fits into each of these themes, this report will mention what is considered to be essential books or articles, but it is impossible to be exhaustive. The object is to present trends and currents and to identify the more important works, those that have had a significant impact on Canadian urban historiography.

A. The Urban System

The urban system is a key theme in Canadian urban history. It is necessary at the outset, however, to note that research on this theme is of differing importance in each of Canada's regions: Atlantic Canada, Quebec, Ontario, the Prairies, and British Columbia. As well, research on the urban system is characterized by important contributions by geographers. Historians have not been as prolific in this topic, however, and they have attempted to find historical frameworks to allow them to understand the evolution of the Canadian urban system.

1. The Colonial and Pre-Industrial Period

Canada had an urban beginning and historians have shown that New France was characterized by a strong urban presence. The urban system of the Saint Lawrence Valley was formed very early, taking a form that has been maintained or at least preserved. Louis Hétheri has noted, it was from the outset strongly centralized with the population concentrated along the river. It was at first a rudimentary system dominated by Quebec City. Apart from Montreal and Quebec City, there were only a few trading posts and some minor villages. On the Atlantic coast, some fortified towns (Louisbourg, then Halifax) were based on fishing and imperial defence.

It was not until the first half of the nineteenth century that a complex urban system was developed. The system was still dominated by Quebec City and Montreal but the expansion of the rural population in the Saint Lawrence Valley and around the Great Lakes led to the emergence of a system of villages and towns both in Quebec (Lower Canada) and Ontario (Upper Canada). In Quebec, evidence for this development is relatively recent and the work of geographers and historians has demonstrated the importance of a village hierarchy in the first decades of the nineteenth century. Geographer Serge Courville has recently undertaken important research on the village structure of Quebec during the first half of the nineteenth century. He finds evidence of more numerous village-like clusters than previous research has discovered. In Ontario, the system was decentralized. Here is an area of early de facto numerous small service centres for the rural areas which will grow into small and medium-sized cities.

Less well known are the relationships which unite all the small centres. A few studies by business historians have examined commercial and credit relationships with Montreal and Kingston, showing the evolution of a hierarchical and dependent system. Notably, the peak of the system in this era is in Great Britain. In this respect, Montreal, more than other centres, has been the subject of historical research because it is the heart of a continental commercial system and it is at the centre of Canada's economic evolution. Its rivalry with New York for control over the commerce of the interior of North America was the subject of research by Donald Congdon. Louis Hétheri has noted, it was from the outset strongly centralized with the population concentrated along the river. It was at first a rudimentary system dominated by Quebec City. Apart from Montreal and Quebec City, there were only a few trading posts and some minor villages. On the Atlantic coast, some fortified towns (Louisbourg, then Halifax) were based on fishing and imperial defence.


Serge Courville, "L'expansion du développement villageois au Québec: l'exemple du comté de Magog (1785-1850)". Centre de Recherche en Géographie de Montréal, 1989.


C. R. Cooper, "Le développement de la ville au Canada (1760-1867)". Montréal, 1978.


C. R. Cooper, "Le développement de la ville au Canada (1760-1867)". Montréal, 1978.


C. R. Cooper, "Le développement de la ville au Canada (1760-1867)". Montréal, 1978.
2. The Post-1850 System

After 1850, the Canadian urban system underwent a significant transformation. A highly hierarchical system based on international commerce was succeeded by a more complex system characterized by industrialization and by the development of interior trading centres. The appearance of railways was also an important determinant in the structure of the system, altering the dependence on waterways that had prevailed until then. The first stage of industrialization, in the middle of the nineteenth century, led to a degree of deconcentration with the multiplication of small industrial towns. This was especially evident in southern Ontario but, at the same time, there was a developing hierarchy in the urban system since a few small service centres grew to the status of industrial towns.

The situation is somewhat different in Quebec even if several rural villages were also transformed into small industrial towns. But here, the structure inherited from the French regime remains important. Montreal, with initial advantages, particularly benefits from industrialization and centralization in its hinterland.

At the same time, the differences between Quebec and Ontario are very clear. In Ontario, the urban system is decentralized, characterized by the existence of numerous medium-sized towns, with industrial bases but with diversified functions. In Quebec, a more centralized system in which Montreal contains a large proportion of both the urban population and industrial production, limits the possibilities for growth by new centres and even retards the growth of the old metropolis, Quebec City. The weakness of small Quebec towns is also explained by the fact that the agricultural base is less prosperous in Quebec than in Ontario, a thesis put forward by John McCullum.

The second phase of industrialization, at the beginning of the twentieth century, is characterized by a movement of concentration among business enterprises, especially by financial institutions. These developments accentuate centralization in both Quebec and Ontario with the emergence of Toronto as the principal city of Ontario and with the growing dominance of Montreal in the province of Quebec. The central Canadian urban system thus has two focal points and is marked by competition between Montreal and Toronto. Montreal retains leadership during the first half of the twentieth century, but during the 1960s and 1970s, Toronto becomes the major Canadian metropolitan centre.

This centralization is also accompanied, during the first decades of the twentieth century, by a special expansion of the urban system into new resource regions in the north. But this urbanization is heavily dependent on the southern metropolitan centres.

The effects of centralization are especially evident in Atlantic Canada, as the recent studies by L.D. McCann have shown. This region had developed a relatively autonomous urban system in the nineteenth century, with both public institutions and industry. By the early twentieth century, however, Halifax lost control to Montreal, blocking further development of a regional system and placing the region in a dependent position.

A very different urban system developed in western Canada. It consisted of a number of service centres and commercial towns that grew together with the agricultural economy, with the exception of Winnipeg — which had a fairly complex industrial sector — the western urban system was not supported by industry. The emergence of several regional metropolitan centres was based on the skill of local residents in convincing investors and businessmen to locate in their town. In the Canadian west, cities sprang up on railroad lines, usually after urban promoters made concessions in order to obtain railway service. Railway policies were an essential element of the promotional strategy and had a good deal to do with determining the western urban hierarchy.

While historians and geographers have been very interested in the development of the urban system in the provinces and the major regions, there are still few studies of sub-regions. There are in Canada numerous small regional metropolises such as Sherbrooke, Trois-Rivières, and Chaudière in Quebec, or Ottawa, London and Kitchener-Waterloo in Ontario, as well as many capitals and medium-sized cities in the other provinces. These cities have not been studied from the perspective of their relationship with their immediate hinterland or in terms of regional metropolitan hierarchies; little is known, especially in historical terms, of the relationships among small towns, villages and hamlets.

The work of Spil in southern Ontario, Dalhousie on the gulf region, and Martin in Quebec in the nineteenth century are still exceptions.

There are, however, numerous studies by geographers, economists and sociologists on the urban hierarchies of sub-regions in terms of recent developments, often studied in the context of planning.

3. Interpretive Perspectives

Several interpretive frameworks have been developed to help explain the Canadian urban system. The most notable is certainly metropolitanism, already outlined in an earlier section of this report. The study by Donald Davis indicates that this metropolitan interpretation is very fluid and that there are numerous variants. In simple terms, it states that the metropolitan approach explains the development of the urban system and the exploitation of Canadian territory by the metropolitan centres, notably the latter.

The best known version of metropolitanism, developed by Kellow in 1954, is according to Davis, an ecological approach. It not only states that metropolitan centres are


dominant poles directing the rest of the country, but it also sees them as centres of organization and integration.106

The metropolitan approach has caused a reaction among historians identified with the dominant regions. These historians have emphasized the other part of the relationship — such as in the case of numerous studies of Western entrepreneurship, attempting to highlight the role built by and exploitation of the cities for the benefit of the metropol

cal. The most recent version of metropolitanism, one which has been developed by geographers, is inspired by interpretations of developments of structure of the urban system in terms of dominating cities and dominated cities and the relationship between core and periphery.107 For Davis, historians who utilize these models are still strongly influenced by geographers.

In placing the emphasis on the phenomenon of interregional dominance, they forget too easily social relationships and the phenomenon of inequality within metropolitan centres.108

In other respects, one frequently finds in Canadian historiography the presentation of the evolution of the urban system in terms of major, defined stages of economic functions. This approach emphasizes the principal economic activity underlying the growth of cities; it poses some serious limits, because of differences in spatial growth patterns and in the chronology of the establishment of industry in various cities. Another problem is the fact that historians now realize the complexity of the urban economy, especially in the commercial phase. These are beginning to view the city more and more as a diversified setting, not only in terms of economic but also in terms of population concentration and the allocation of services of all kinds. In this situation, it is difficult to identify a unique determining cause of urban growth.

B. Organizing Urban Space

The organization of urban space is another major theme around which it is possible to examine research on the evolution of urban Canada. Within this major theme, there are at least three distinct topics. One topic is the economic control of space, particularly in terms of promotion and the imprint economic leaves on the urban landscape. A second topic is the social division and internal structure of urban space. And, finally, a third topic is the built environment itself in terms of planning, housing and architecture.

1. Promotion and Economic Control

The control of urban space is a fundamental dimension of urban history. In addition to the land itself, this topic is concerned with explaining the patterns of development in cities. And, in explaining these patterns, urban scholars have taken two major approaches: boosterism and capital function (land capital).

Boosterism, a term with American roots,109 has been developed as an explanatory approach in Canada by Alan F.J. Aitken who has applied it to the case of Winnipeg and to other Prairie centres. boosterism is best defined as an ideology of growth adopted by local elites to guide their promotional activity. boosters, therefore, are promoters who attempt to advance both their personal interest and the growth of their community. They attempt to find a consensus among members of the elite on development projects or strategies designed to increase the growth rate of a particular town or city. Growth, whether in terms of population size, manufacturing output, or miles of streets constructed, is the issue of utmost importance.110

A key issue for boosters is the ability of an elite group to impose their views on the wider community. Thus, Aitken has noted in his study of Winnipeg that the booster elite was able to assert control, and that growth oriented forces dominated municipal affairs to the detriment of the public welfare of the population and the general quality of life. In Winnipeg, which is a striking example of this phenomenon, this strategy of urban promotion played a fundamental role in the development of a class conflict, particularly after the Great War.111

The booster approach underscores the importance of local factors and the key role of the dynamics of community leadership. While boosterism does recognize the importance of local factors and macro-economic trends, it stresses the role of local promoters. According to these outside forces.

There are, however, powerful social versions of this booster interpret- tion that have transformed it into singing the praises of local entrepreneurs. Some articles which purport to follow sing the fates of local promoters and cities, "City-Building in the American West: From Boosterism to Corporatism," Journal of Canadian Studies/Faisonnement canadien, Vol. 17 (Fall 1982), 33-46.

106. Ibid.

107. See, for example, McCann, cardboard and Maitland


109. Aitken, "In Pursuit of Growth: Municipal Boosterism and Urban Development in the Canadian Prairies, 1871-1913," in the booster model turn out to be Board of Trade style papers, praising the virtues of local entrepreneurship. These approaches are, in effect, a simplification of the model proposed by Aitken and others. They fail to recognize the complexity of the local environment or the relationship between local leadership and outside forces.112

The booster approach has been frequently utilized in western Canada where each major city has histories who have emphasized the actions of local elites. The interest of western Canadian historians in the booster approach is explained in part by the recent revitalization of the region. The fact that several cities experienced rapid growth around the turn of the century, or the success or failure of promoters, the fact that American urban historians, in the post-war years had emphasized the role of developers and promoters in the development of the west and in urban growth; all these factors contributed to the application of the booster approach in Western Canada.113

It can be noted, however, that promotional activity has also been examined in other parts of Canada, although not always with explicit reference to boosters. Historian Ronald Rodin, for example, has examined the strategies of local elites in Quebec in four small urban centres. He explains the growth of these cities as the result of the different promotional activities adopted by local elites.114 And in Ontario several scholars, notably Elizabeth Bloomingdale, have also written good studies on urban promotion.115

In Quebec, however, promotional activity has usually been examined from another viewpoint, that of the interests of major property owners who were attempting to increase property values by promotional activity. Historians Paul-Andre Linteau and Jean-Claude Robert have utilized the concept of land capital. This approach was inspired by the work of French sociologists working on urban issues.116 It emphasizes the concentration of land capital and developmental capital in cities after 1945 and the impact this had on urban development. In his study of Montreal, for example, Linteau has taken this idea and given it an historical dimension, distinguishing several characteristic phases. Land capital is defined as that portion of capital that is concerned with the organization and management of space. This concept is particularly useful in understanding the way in which urban development has proceeded in new areas in the nineteenth and twentieth centuries. The land capitalists control the management of a defined section of the city, often in a private and not in a public way. This model emphasizes these interests and stresses that they are a fundamental aspect of urban development. It must be noted, however, that this approach does not explain the dynamism of urbanization, it is only one aspect of a larger theme.117

The land capital approach has been utilized by Linteau and Robert in understanding the development of the Montreal region.118 It has also been utilized, with less concern for the historical perspective, by certain urban specialists examining recent urban development, in particular by Henry Askin and James Lorimer.119

It should be noted, however, that work on the topic of economic control is fairly extensive and is not limited to these two approaches. In terms of the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries, the work of Lewis has been important. She notes that there was little competition for the control of space. Monopoly control of land was not evident and residents did not attempt to appropriate rural land for urban development. The growth of the city resulted in the creation of suburbs, populated by artisans. In the second half of the eighteenth century, as a result of fires, the more prosperous middle-class began to encroach urban land, to define the city more clearly, and to push the other elements of the population out to the suburbs.120

By the beginning of the nineteenth century, the appropriation of urban land had become as indicated by the work of Thibault in 1825 by Linteau and Robert. The first signs of promotional activity are apparent, those of


111. For examples see several of the articles in Alan F.J. Aitken, ed., Power and Aspects of Western Canadian Urban Development (Regina: Carleton-Pluto Research Centre, 1983).

112. For example, see several of the articles in Alan F.J. Aitken, ed., Power and Aspects of Western Canadian Urban Development (Regina: Carleton-Pluto Research Centre, 1983).


117. Linteau and Robert, "Land Ownership and Society in Montreal,"
the Vigor family360 or those who undertake to develop the "New Town," a residential section destined to become the home of the British in the period 1840-1860.361 Until the nineteenth century, the control of land is still heavily influenced by the seigneurial system and the activity of seigneurs, such as the Saint Sulpice priests, recently studied by Brian Young.362

More than any other city, Montreal has been the object of research in terms of land development in the early nineteenth century period. After 1850, however, there are fortunately — more numerous works available.

Even if it is possible to detect the phenomenon of property concentration, it is still a relatively minor phenomenon in the development of the city as a whole. During the second half of the nineteenth-century development was characterized by a multitude of factors and by the absence of coordination among urban promoters and landowners, as indicated in the work of Douet on Hamilton and Ganton on Toronto.363 To the division of property should be added a very clear distinction between the promoters, who subdivided and sold the land, and the contractors, who built housing, as has been indicated in Montreal.364 Housing construction was modified, however, with the emergence of building societies benefiting from government contracts and urban expansion generally.365

The division is less clear, however, at the periphery of major cities, especially in the new suburban developments. These tracts of land were often created and controlled by a handful of promoters. The city of Maisonneuve, an important industrial suburb of Montreal at the turn of the century, is a striking example366. This type of intervention was replicated in other suburban Montreal municipalities.367 As well, John Weaver has studied the activities of promoters in Westdale, a suburb of Hamilton. This project, designed for the middle class, is typical of North American developments in the twentieth century.368

In western Canada property promotion represents a fundamental dimension of urban expansion. During the decade preceding the Great War there was exceptional speculation in virtually all western cities. However, the promotion and control of land has still not been studied to any significant degree by historians. Rather, most efforts have concentrated on the broader phenomena of boosterism.369

In central Canada, some work has been done on several small industrial cities. Historians have examined the strategies directed toward attracting industry and promoting economic growth. There are, for example, several good studies on Quebec370 and Ontario.371

In northern Canada, the circumstances were very different. During the first decades of the twentieth century a group of towns based on the exploitation of natural resources were developed. They were generally the creation of companies that owned the property and completely controlled development. The history of these communities is quite significant in terms of the history of planning.372

In the post-1945 era, a new type of promoter emerges. These are the large land development companies who control not only land but construction as well. These promoters are interested not only in residential developments but also in commercial development, and their impact is extremely significant in the 1960s. Land development companies have received a great deal of attention from economists, political scientists, sociologists, and even journalists.373

The appearance of these major land development companies represents a fundamental change. The companies not

only represent local elites, firmly established in the community and personally profiting from urban growth, but national elites who are simultaneously involved in several cities. Canadian urban development is, in fact, open to not only Canadians but to foreign developers as well (although, it must be added, Canadian developers are involved in other countries as well). These major developers have not eliminated local actors, but for many projects, they have succeeded in determining the method and shape of urban land development.374 Especially important in this regard is the management of city centres which leads to the removal of the residential population and the influx of administrative and commercial activity, or the construction of major high-rise apartment complexes.375

Recent urbanization has been studied by numerous scholars, especially those concerned with major cities. Urban institutes and the ministries of government have undertaken many of these studies. Unfortunately, from the perspective of evolution and perspective, few of these studies have a historical dimension.376

2. The Social Division of Space

If urban space is to be understood in terms of economic control, it also has a profound social dimension. Space is structured, organized and functionally divided by the needs of the economy, but these processes are also influenced by social structures and demographic pressures.

The social division of urban space has been the object of numerous studies in the United States. These studies grow out of a relatively old tradition, marked by the noteworthy contribution of the Chicago-School of the inter-war period,377 and the tradition was revived in the 1970s and early 1980s. From the work of David Ward378 to the recent studies by Theodore Hershberg and the Philadelphia Project,379 the theme of the social division of space has given rise to a large number of publications, nourished by the rapid development of research on ethnic groups.380

This is not the case in Canada where this theme has traditionally had a minor place in historiography. Certainly,381

315. Brian Young will publish a volume on the economic and land development activities of the Sabeline in Montreal in the near future.

Source: University of Winnipeg. Photo by Peter Titisberger.
most historians recognize the existence of disparities inside the city when they study the social characteristics of neighborhoods but, for the most part, they do not attempt in-depth studies of this phenomenon.

There are, nevertheless, a certain number of studies to note, especially in Quebec, where the number of Quebec studies published since the provinces are closely associated with ethnic divisions and, for this reason, they have been apparent for some time. The recent work by historians has, at the same time, allowed some nuanced to be added to the simplistic views that have often been proposed for the social division of space. They have highlighted the complexities of these phenomena and their evolution over time.

The study by John Hare on Quebec City at the turn of the nineteenth century tackled the distribution of occupations within neighborhoods.143 Montreal, however, has as yet received a good deal of attention. Louis Declée studied the beginnings of spatial segregation in the eighteenth century,144 and the Research Group on Montreal Society in the nineteenth century undertook to delineate several decades later.145 Marcel Bellavance and Jean-Daniel Greco- off utilized the techniques of computer assisted cartography to derive "social" and "ethnic" maps of Montreal in 1981.146 In addition, there is the excellent study by Jean-Pierre Kesteman on the evolution of the different socio-economic neighbourhoods which formed the city of Sherbrooke.147

Ontario historians have not shown an equivalent interest to the social division of space. A notable exception is the study by Ian Davey and Michael Doreen on the urban geography of Hamilton.148 It is included as an appendix to the Katz volume on Hamilton, this excellent study has not received the attention it deserves.149 Another, very recent study, examines these issues in terms of the city of Guelph.150

In western Canada, the Arbutus study of Winnipeg marks a significant stage in pointing to the important social differences and the spatial segregation evident in the city. The strong ethnic dimension of these differences the experience of the Manitobans capital to that of Montreal.141

Thus, Canadian historians have — with the exception of those in Quebec — devoted little energy to the study of this phenomenon. There is, in contrast, a large Canadian experience in sociological studies and the tradition of the pioneering work of Ames and of Woodworth.151 The inquiries on urban poverty and its spatial distribution and on the inequity of access to different services are numerous in the context of the twentieth century and constitute basic material for urban social history.152

The Built Environment: Planning, Housing and Architecture

Another fundamental dimension of urban space is the use of land and the built environment. The study of the city-building process — in which the focus is on the physical environment — is bringing geographers, architects, and planners into the discussion of urban history.153 This aspect of urban studies is probably the element that most clearly differentiates cities from rural areas, and how the built environment simultaneously reflects and shapes behaviour is an important key to understanding urban life and urbanization.

In terms of the study of city-building in the pre-Confederation period, most of the important work has been completed by historians, with the recent articles of Gilbert A. Slater in the 1983 review.

149. Most of these studies are discussed in the section on "Public Health and Medicine" in this report.


dom led to a maladaptive action by government. More than any other aspect of city-building, housing remained almost totally in the hands of the private sector. Perhaps because of this aspect, economists have studied housing, contributing to the spate literature with analyses of residential construction trends but, most of the time, what has been at the aggregate level and not concerned with society and space. In addition, the Dominion Bureau of Statistics published a brief history of housing as early as 1941, along with a data on construction and three overviews in Canadian cities, during the early twentieth century. But research on real estate, housing, and society in specific locales remains spotty. Another crucial era that remains largely unexplored is suburban development although, fortunately, there are several recent studies that do address this topic. In short, while certain aspects of the built environment are and continue to be studied, housing and suburbanization require a good deal more attention.

Stimulated in part by the growth of an urban heritage conservation and preservation movement that developed in the 1960s, the interest in urban architectural history grows rapidly in the past two decades. While Allen Gowans's 1966 study, Building Canada, is still the major work in the field, there are numerous other and newer efforts that allow one to gain a better appreciation of past urban environments. Illustrated volumes testifying to the energy and interest of amateurs and professionals are numerous. And while the number of urban design and architecture books on how communities were constructed, they do provide fragments of information about architects, building practices, and the use of buildings. Unfortunately, they have a common shortcoming of concentrating only on structures that have survived or on examples of architectural idiosyncrasy tastefully selected. "Aesthetic values that make good art history do not produce comprehensive source books for understanding the total urban environment that are generally controlled by the current "Historic Landmark" or "Heritage" movements. More than one or two of the interests to the homes and business establishments of the cities to the exclusion of other portions of the cityscape not produced by well-known architects, a small number of federal agencies to help formulate and implement urban policy - the Central (now Canada) Mortgage and Housing Corporation (1946) and the Ministry of State for Urban Affairs (created in 1971 and disbanded in 1979).

Unfortunately, there is a paucity of historical material on this very important subject. Interestingly, there has been little research interest in this area by urban historians, while political scientists and scholars of government have tended to emphasize federal-provincial relationships and contemporary issues. When they do turn to study either provincial or municipal relations or municipal government itself, they usually concentrate on the post-1945 period. There are several other sources of information (all of which include some mention of federal-provincial-municipal relationships), but because of a lack of detailed historical research, most of these surveys fail to provide convincing chronicle or thematic frameworks, or compelling hypotheses.

In terms of more specific themes, the role of the federal government in urban affairs has received some attention, both within and outside the government. Since 1945, several major federal-provincial agreements have been negotiated, ranging from the 1954 agreement on urban development to the 1971 agreement on urban affairs. These agreements represent a major step forward in the development of federal-provincial relations. The federal government has recognized the importance of urban affairs and has taken steps to strengthen its role in this area. The Urban Affairs Act, passed in 1971, provides for the establishment of a federal-provincial-territorial committee to advise the federal government on urban affairs. This committee has been instrumental in bringing about a greater understanding of the needs and aspirations of urban residents. The federal government has also taken a number of steps to increase its involvement in urban affairs. The Urban Affairs Branch of the Department of the Environment has been established, and the government has taken a leading role in the development of a national urban policy. The federal government has also been active in providing financial assistance to urban areas, and it has taken steps to improve the quality of urban life.

One reason, perhaps, for this failure is that the urban areas are evolving in ways that are not always consistent with the past. This is particularly true in the case of the older, more established cities, where the pressures of economic change and population growth are particularly challenging. In many cases, the older cities are facing problems that are unique to them, and these problems are not always easily solved. The federal government has recognized this, and it has taken steps to address the specific needs of the older cities.

There are two other aspects of intergovernmental relationships that have received attention by urban scholars. Studies of regional and/or metropolitan government - focusing on a tier of government that exists between municipalities and the provinces - have been numerous since metropolitan forms of government are common. A related theme is the evolution of municipal autonomy in Canada; a topic that has received attention from historians. Most notable here is the pioneering work of John H. Taylor, who has contributed a great deal of information on the development of municipal autonomy in Canada, and on the ways in which municipalities have responded to the challenges of urban change. The two themes, however, have not been studied in isolation, and there is a need to see how they interact and influence each other.
The relationships are so poorly understood and as, this overview suggests, the theme has great potential to increase the understanding of the political-economy of urban development. Certainly, studies of the federal-provincial-municipal relationship promises to be one of the most exciting fields of research in the coming years.

2. Urban Policies and Governance:

With the exception of a recent collection of essays on city politics in Canada, there has been little comparative work completed and one is left with the impression that two cities are constituted and governed in the same way. Fortunately, this problem has begun to be addressed by urban political scientists and, while no general framework has yet been developed, concern has been expressed and research goals established. The task of specifying what is distinctive and what is commonplace about Canadian politics at the municipal level, in relation to political practice at other levels and in other countries, is now well underway. Progress should be fairly rapid since scholars have a large body of case work to build on, ranging from the study of political institutions and structures to studies of mayors, local elections, and city councils. At this stage, it is possible to outline some of the major themes which have emerged as the research is relatively advanced. One important set of conclusions is that the tradition of non-partisanship is widespread and that local politics is almost exclusively about boosterism, land development, and the enhancement of property. Another set of conclusions relate to the characteristics of municipal politicians and city councils, an area of research where political scientists have no more experienced work.

3. Urban Reform Movements:

While few urban historians have studied urban government generally, there has been a great deal of excellent research completed on specific urban reform movements, especially during the periods between 1980 and 1990, and 1960 and 1980. In terms of the first reform movement, research has shown that Canadian municipalities were experimenting with American models of centralized decision-making and scientific management such as boards of control, city managers, and commission government. The reformers have received a sympathetic treatment from some scholars who argue that the middle-class leaders of the movement were agents of social change. Most urban historians, however, argue that the reformers’ rhetoric hides their desire to make cities less democratic by expunging bureaucracies and increasing regulatory powers at the expense of newcomers and the poor and the working class. In other words, the urban reform movement was in most instances a case of class struggle. Montreal, however, is a special case because a strong ethnic component was evident. Here, the reform movement rests essentially on an Anglo-Saxon elite that fought a populist-type political machine dominated by francophones and with the support of some Anglo-Saxon politicians, primarily Irish. By the Great War, francophones assumed control of both city council and the mayorality and have retained that control ever since.

One of the traditions stemming from this period was the notion of non-partisanship in municipal policy, a topic that has received a good deal of attention. As well, research has shown how the structural changes and the ideologies of this era have continued to influence local government. Approaches designed for another age have remained significant factors affecting present-day decision-making.

By the late 1960s, a second reform movement was underway in Canada’s cities. In some respects, this reform movement was a reaction against the very successes won by the earlier generation of reformers. And it was thus very different in nature. It can be differentiated by several characteristics. Demands for urban reforms had now shifted from the mere provision of public services to demands for greater citizen participation in the governance of local affairs, and for quality of public performance, including fiscal and linguistic quality. And although reformers expressed similar goals, they tended to give different and alternative operational meaning to those goals. While government bureaucrats and politicians generally used the expression “citizen participation” to mean improved communications or dialogue, citizens’ groups used the same expression to demand not simply that they be heard but that they have a real share of power. The name of quality of performance, provincial government officials pressed for metropolitan government or the upward redistribution of political authority; municipal officials pressed to gain or retain control over essential public services; and citizens’ groups pressed for neighborhood democracy or the downward redistribution of political authority. It is noteworthy, however, that not all citizens’ groups had the same orientation. On the one hand, there were groups that had grown up among working-class people from low-income, “slum” areas of cities like Toronto and Montreal who sought fundamental changes in the status quo. On the other hand, middle and upper-class citizens groups often sought to protect the status quo, either by fighting freeway construction or zoning changes. In either case, the modern reform movement had all the characteristics associated with the issue of collective goods and political change in post-industrial societies. There have been few general assessments of this reform movement, but one recent study does state that citizens’ groups have had a major impact.

In terms of controlling the city, however, this research has had the result of emphasizing that the study of local government necessarily includes provincial and federal relationships and other “external” factors, such as national and international economic trends, rates of immigration, and so on.

4. Administration and Municipal Services:

Research on urban reform has led to new attention being focused on the structure and administration of urban government and on the provision of urban services. In terms of structure, a good deal of attention has been focused on Winnipeg where, in 1971, the provincial government consolidated or amalgamated fourteen separate municipal governments into a single (“dual”) city; the most centralized metropolitan government in North America. At the same time, community committees and resident advisory groups for each of the dismantled municipalities were designated as part of Unicity to

181. See, for example, the articles in The Usable Urban Past and in Selby, Politics and Government in Urban Canada. For case studies on large cities, see the works of Magnusson and Stavney, City Policies in Canada, and for studies of both large and small communities see the material cited in City’s Usable Past.
182. Andrew Stavney, “City Policies in Comparative Perspective,” in Magnusson and Stavney, City Policies in Canada.

185. These conclusions are based on a large body of work. Two important articles are by John Weaver in The Canadian City (1977) and by James Anderson in The Usable Urban Past. Montreal, see G. Bozic, “The Political Elite of Montreal: From Arisocrats to Bureaucrats,” Institute of Social Studies and the Political Science Report, City’s Usable Past, 1995 (St. John’s, 1983), pp. 46-51. See also the special issue of the Urban History Review published in 1976 on “Approaches to the History of Urban Reform.”
188. See, for example, James Lorimer’s article in A.M. Lindsey, ed., Living in the Seventies (Toronto: Peter Martin, 1970). Andrew Stavney, “The Impact of Language Differences on Metropolitan Reform in Montreal,” Canadian Public Administration, Vol. 21 (1979), pp. 247-250; and the work of J. S. Lewin, also in City’s Usable Past. See also the essay on public involvement in M.K. Dickins, et al., Problems of Change in Urban Government (Waterloo: Wilfrid Laurier University Press, 1974). On the other hand, middle and upper-class citizens groups often sought to protect the status quo, either by fighting freeway construction or zoning changes. In either case, the modern reform movement had all the characteristics associated with the issue of collective goods and political change in post-industrial societies. There have been few general assessments of this reform movement, but one recent study does state that citizens’ groups have had a major impact.
189. James Lorimer, “Citizens and the Corporate Development of the Contemporaneous Canadian City,” URB/RHU, N. XII, N. 6 (June 1981), p. 3-10. See also H. Yoshida, et al., Les mobilisations populaires urbaines (Montreal: Nouvelle Ondine, 1982). P. Huot, Leveillant et lutes urbaines a Montreal, 1945-1975 (Montreal: Faculte de l’enseignement, Universite de Montreal, 1983), and John Seawell, City Against City Hall (Toronto: Irwin, London and Samuel, 1979). There are numerous other items that could be cited, but that a fairly complete list has been found in Sobel, Reflections on Canadian Urban Governance.”
encourage citizen participation. The two-tier metropolitan structure of Toronto has generated considerable interest, not only because it was the first such reform in Canada (in 1953), but also because it served as a model for subsequent regional government reforms. Other scholars have examined the extension of regional government throughout Ontario. The Quebec experience, and especially the case of the Montreal Urban Community has received particular attention from francophone scholars, while profiles of structural change in other parts of Canada may be found in several scholarly works as well as in innumerable provincial government reports. Fortunately, as well as an excellent textbook on the management and administration of urban government exists, although there is certainly a need for more research in this aspect of administrative history.

The activity of urban government in terms of coping with the problems of growth (and more recently decline) by providing and managing a variety of services has not received the attention it deserves from urban historians. One area that has received attention is the municipal ownership of utilities. Research on this topic indicates that local pressure for public ownership often comes from local businesses who stood to benefit from more efficient water, power, and transportation systems. Where municipal ownership was delayed, as was the case with Toronto waterworks, arguments were based on practical as well as ideological grounds. Generally, however, the role of the municipality was one of facilitating private development — of providing a framework within which private investment decisions could be made. A recent study, comparing municipal regulations for four Montreal suburbs, also indicates that regulations are used to create distinct and different environments.

There has also been a good deal of research published on internal transportation services, both by railway and road authorities. The role of streetcar and other systems played in encouraging decentralization in cities. In terms of general, comprehensive studies (or even in terms of case studies), research on municipal services is far behind what has been completed in the United States. General studies are still rare, but a recent survey of urban growth and local services in Ontario may suggest that this is an emerging area of interest for urban historians. Another encouraging sign is the work on urban service delivery systems that has been completed by analysts associated with some forms of Marxist political economy. These writers have coined the phrase "property industry" to suggest that much of the performance of urban delivery systems is at the service of land developers. In short, the theme of control found in the other emerging topic suggests the nature and variety of municipal action obviously plays a key role both in facilitating the nature and rate of urban growth and in determining how benefits are distributed within the urban community.

D. Population and Society

In this broad theme there will be found several topics relating to the urban population in a broad sense, social relationships, and conditions of living. The studies discussed under this heading are numerous. That the phenomenon studied occur in an urban setting, the authors do not always situate their research in the context of urban history, preferring to define it as social, labour, or family history. In this sense, the history in which these events take place is important to the history of the city. Nevertheless, a good deal of this material does contribute to an understanding of urban phenomena and urban society.

1. Demography

The urban demographic study that has a historical perspective is rare. In Canada, they are usually case studies. The only general study is the one by Stone published in the context of an analysis of the 1661 Census. It examined the evolution of certain demographic changes over time in large urban areas and major metropolitan areas. Of particular importance is Stone's analysis of the composition of the population in terms of age and sex and the role of migration.

In other respects, many historians have integrated population analysis within their studies of particular cities. They have been interested in population growth and decline in birth and death statistics, and in migration. However, these studies are carried out as historians rather than as demographers, and historians attempt to sort out the socio-economic dimensions of demographic phenomena. Most of this kind of work deals with the nineteenth century, notably that by Michael Katz on Hamilton and Jean-Claude Robert on Montreal.

It should be noted that demographic analysis for the nineteenth century poses certain problems, especially those related to the uneven quality of sources. Some historians have begun to point out the limitations of the sources themselves and this effort needs to be pursued.

It is also necessary to mention certain social history studies completed on cities at the turn of the twentieth century that contain a demographic component. These studies are concerned with immigration and high urban mortality rates, especially infant mortality rates. Historians are especially attracted to the socio-economic and cultural aspects of these phenomena, rather than to strictly demographic dimensions.

2. Social Class

Studies published in the 1970s have contributed to a better understanding of the urban social structure of the past. Evidence of this fact can be found in the numerous studies of urban history. At the outset of the decade, interest was usually and principally focused on the labour movement, but in subsequent years, researchers turned more and more to examine the structure of the working class and working-class culture. These studies did not place the urban milieu in the forefront of their concern; nevertheless, they did provide a significant indirect contribution to urban history.

The broadening of perspective is obvious in the numerous published studies on the conditions of the working class in major Canadian cities. Many of these studies marked a new stage in historiography and it has been followed by other works in the same genre.

The preoccupation with class relations is also evident among historians who study the upper classes, even if their approach usually follows elite models inspired by American sociological studies of business and the middle classes which denote a growing preoccupation with the question of power and with the issue of networks.

Since 1970, certain urban historians have indicated that they wish to go further — to attempt to reconstruct the past urban social structure in all its complexity. The trick is to utilize the data on individual occupations, to the ancient past, and at the same time to assess the data on social structure, and, perhaps, to use the data on social structure, and, perhaps, to identify the classification and the hierarchy of occupations — have not

201. While there are numerous studies of Locality, the most comprehensive account is M. Brownstone and B. Corner, Metropolitan Honolulu: Politics and Government (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1961).


206. See, for example, H. N. Lowry, The Regional City and Metropolitan Area: A Political and Planning Approach (Toronto: C. B. Cooper, 1936), p. 18.


208. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.


211. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

212. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

213. See A. W. Price, The Economics of Urban Growth (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1974).

214. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

215. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

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219. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

220. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

221. See A. W. Price, The Economics of Urban Growth (Toronto: University of Toronto Press, 1974).

222. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

223. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

224. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

225. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

226. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

227. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

228. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

229. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

230. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

231. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

232. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

233. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

234. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

235. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.

236. See, for example, the articles by Arion and Johnson in Shaping the Urban Landscape.
enabled scholars to make direct and early links between classes and occupations; for example, given occupations often reflect the labour market and economic structure, rather than social structure. Nevertheless, these attempts do provide some insights into social structure.

Despite these developments, there are still urban historians who ignore class dynamics, who treat conflicts as personality clashes, and who use a limited set of the perceptions of the dominant groups. The majority of research is, fortunately, usually conscious of the reality of social classes and of class conflict in the urban milieu. Urban history in Canada remains, however, characterized by theoretical and methodological weaknesses on this subject. English Canadian historians especially utilize the concept of middle-class very freely, despite the pathbreaking work of sociologist John Porter who demonstrated that the concept was the subject of widespread abuse.214 Quebec historians have certainly used methodologies differently, providing a certain stimulus to their English colleagues. As well, labour historians' critiques of urban history have also had a positive influence.

3. Ethnic Groups

In Canada, the study of urban social structure cannot be considered without a presentation of ethnic groups. Two principal tendencies are obvious in urban history. The first is the interest in the relations between the two main groups, English-Canadians and French-Canadians. This is, as has already been observed, an important theme of Canadian historiography in general. But when it is discussed in urban history, it is often limited to Quebec where the two groups are most evidently in contact. The numerous studies cited on Montreal, Quebec and Sherbrooke emphasize the importance of ethnic composition in terms of urban social relationships. Throughout the history of Quebec cities during the nineteenth and twentieth centuries, ethnic origin has been added to class as a factor related to either discrimination or solidarity, and it is present as well in social structure, the organization of space, and the management and control of the city.215

A second perspective emphasizes the importance of other ethnicities in urban Canada. In this regard, has benefited from the recent development of ethnic studies and immigration history as fields of specific research and is most evident in the major cities since all large cities have an important urban component. Some studies emphasize the reactions of the French (and English) groups towards the new immigrants. The issues of acceptance or rejection, and the question of assimilation, are studied. Other researchers, in contrast, are interested in the ethnic groups themselves: their methods of integration into the city and the local society; cultural adaptation and practices; and the relationships established within the city and with the "old" country. This aspect of ethnic studies has experienced a good deal of growth since 1970, assisted by government procurement in the field of ethnic relations and multiculturalism.216

It is important to note, however, that the majority of these studies have a limited perspective. They examine a specific ethnic group within a particular city. What is still missing are comparative studies and studies with a broad perspective that allow students to understand the process of ethnic group adaptation in urban areas. But research if broadly moving in this direction.

In terms of specific groups, mention must be made of the study of Italians and Metis in the urban milieu. These studies have been stimulated by the rapid rates of migration of natives into urban centres, especially in western Canada. But long-term perspectives in terms of urban natives have yet to be developed.

Finally, it can be noted that even if there are numerous studies of native history in Canada, and especially in Quebec, there has been little evident interest in the relations between ethnicity and religion in the urban context. A recent study of Irish Catholics in Toronto has, however, provided an interesting perspective on this obviously rich topic.217

4. Family

The urban family has received attention for several years and, even though the published literature is not voluminous, the research revealed some particularly significant phenomena. The major work of Michael Katz on Hamilton in the mid-nineteenth century fits in with numerous British, European and American works on the transformation of the traditional family as the city moved from the commercial to the industrial phase. The work of Tamara Harvey on the relation between the size of family and the life-cycle of women was equally influential in Canada. One can find an influence in the research of Bethany Bradbury on the working class family in Montreal in the second half of the nineteenth century.218

For several years, historiography touching on the family grew out of the pressure of the growth of women's history. There are still few studies that specifically treat the Canadian woman in the urban milieu but this topic has grown rapidly in recent years. In addition to Bradbury's work, there is the pioneering work of D.S. Cross219 and, more recently, the industrial phase. The work of Tamara Harvey on the relation between the size of family and the life-cycle of women was equally influential in Canada. One can find an influence in the research of Bethany Bradbury on the working class family in Montreal in the second half of the nineteenth century.

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217. See the many articles by Robert Harvey, for example, cited in Canada's Urban Past.


227. Reminiscence studies are an important part of planning education and many are very close to the traditional type. A good recent collection that contain urban material is G. Well and S. Hursh, eds., Recreational Land-Use: Perspective on the Evolution of the City (Ontario: University Press, 1983).


230. As an exception see Carl Beck, "The Original City of Edmonton: A Developmental Analysis," Urban History Review, 1982, and McDowell's article examines the issues, background and significance of Canada's pre-war debate about parks. In particular, the article examines the significance of the debate for the development of urban parks in other parts of Canada about the purposes and design of parks. See "How "Lover" is or "Practical Building Spot? A Case Perception of Toronto's "Stanley Park," CHRE, Vol LXV (June 1946), pp. 127-153.

5. Leisure, Public Space, Sports and Cultural Life

The literature on contemporary leisure and public space requirements for urban dwellers is growing rapidly, but there is surprisingly little that deals with the evolution of leisure space and activities in Canadian cities.220 What has been completed is often still in the formative stages and consists of a series of studies, particularly aspects of leisure or periods in a community's development.221 In terms of published material, most studies have been devoted to parks, carnivals or festivals.222 Studies that attempt to relate leisure activities and the development of public space to the broader issues of urban history are still rare.223 This situation, fortunately, is beginning to change as a recent article by Robert A.J. McDonald illustrates.224
Research on such topics as urban sport, education, libraries, theatres and so on are more common but, again, few attempt to address the issue of how the urban environment affected the development of the people and the activities within it. And comparative studies are rare. One recent study, however, indicates that historians are turning their attention to research that goes beyond description. A special issue of the Urban History Review devoted to "Prospects on Sport and Urban Studies" argues that the urban "terrain" was not only a manifestation of culture but an important determinant of culture. In other words, the urban environment was a significant cultural parameter that helped pattern sport as it did all cultural phenomena. The urban environment, for example, often played a role both in bringing about new forms of organization for sports and cultural activities and in precipitating the formal organization of previously unorganized activities. While Canadian historians have only begun to explore this complex but fundamental theme, studies completed in recent years in the United States and Canada, especially, indicate that an understanding of the city must include this component. At the same time, the British studies also make it clear that while the urban environment did shape leisure activities, other factors — most notably class — are also crucial components of leisure patterns and the use of public space.

Another intriguing approach to the study of urban culture relates not to the question of the role of the urban environment as an active agent in terms of social change, but rather with the changing place of the city in the consciousness of the larger society. This broad topic has been addressed in terms of fiction in a variety of novels and short stories, but has received scant attention from most urbanists in Canada. In a forthcoming special issue of the Journal of Urban History, however, Gilbert Stelter has brought together several essays on the topic of "Cities as Cultural Arenas." His own contribution examines the relationship between culture and urban form in eighteenth century America and Great Britain. Stelter also notes that the study of cities as paradigms of a culture's experience of modernization remains a rich field of inquiry.

6. Public Health and Social Welfare

The growth and proliferation of government funded and administered public health and social welfare policies have developed sporadically and discontinuously, rather than gradually and continuously. Depressions, recessions, wars, and the intergovernmental disputes so common in a federal system have all influenced governments in assigning greater responsibility for what were previously private matters, both individual and institutional. Much of this story concerns the provinces and federal government, but municipalities were also involved initially by providing the delivery system for the programs of senior governments. As well, during the inter-war period — and especially during the depression — Canadian social welfare policies were developed. It was during the 1930s, for example, that a considerable number of programs were initiated that now constitute integral parts of the modern Canadian welfare state.

Research on social welfare is voluminous — as the publication of a recent major bibliography indicates — but very few studies examine public health or social welfare from an explicitly urban perspective. One major category of writing stems from the tradition of social research, a form of research which is inextricably bound to the advocacy of reform and to the promotion of particular social welfare policies. Most notable here is the work of Ames in Montreal, Woodworth in Winnipeg, and Kelso and the Bureau of Municipal Research in Toronto. All of these studies are based on the reports of royal commissions, House of Commons committees and government task forces. In all these cases, researchers were either amateurs or civil servants and few academicians or trained researchers concerned with the 1970s, producing a substantial number of studies of social conditions but few studies that could be labelled urban history. Two of the most prominent documents were compiled during World War II. A second major category of material is found in historical analyses of the development of the Canadian social welfare state in particular periods, analyses of particular policies, studies of organizations which have influenced the development of policy, and biographies of individual reformers. In all this work, however, there are a few very cases that address issues of concern to urban history, although there are not many. This theme has been well-studied and continues to receive attention from social historians, it has not yet become a clearly identified concern for urban specialists. There is still a need for work of an analytic nature which would link the development of public health and social welfare policies and institutions to the urban transformation of Canada. As well, there are still too few case studies which examine public health and social welfare with sufficient analytic or even descriptive acuity.

241. L.C. Marsh, Final Report of the Advisory Committee on Restrictive
         .Iziation (Ottawa, 1943); and Advisory Committee on Restrictive
          Housing and Community Planning Sub-committee, Final Report
          (Ottawa, 1948).

242. See, for example, J.E. Morgan, "Social Welfare Services in Canada,"
          in M. Oxen, Social Services for Canada (Toronto: TMP, 1958); E.
          Wallace, "Origin of the Welfare State in Canada, 1867-1900,"
          CASH, Vol. 16 (August 1940), pp. 305-329; and Allen Parkel, Busi-
          ness and Social Reform in the Thirties (Toronto: J. Lorimer and Co.,
          1979).

243. See, for example, M. Pires, "The Worker's Compensatory Move-
          ment in Ontario," Ontario History, Vol. 67 (March 1977), pp. 39-
          56; M. Taylor, "Quebec: Medicare Policy Formulations in Conflict
          and Cooperation," Canadian Political Administration, Vol. 16 (1977),
          pp. 431-450; and T. Tomlinson, "The Welfare State in Canada: A

244. M.G. Irish, "The Story of a History of the Young Women's Christian
          Association in Canada" (Toronto: McClelland and Stewart, 1947); R.
          Allen, The Social Conflict: Religion and Social Reform in Canada,

245. M.C. McNutt, N.J. Duberman, A Prophet in Politics (Toronto: TMP,
          1959); P. Brooks and R.L. Schilt, Child Welfare in English Canada,
          1920-1948 (Charlottesville, VA: Social Service Review, 1981),
          pp. 363-386; A.C. Reid, The First Five Years of Social Service in
Conclusion

In this concluding section, attention will be focused on three interrelated topics. First, a series of generalizations regarding urban history and urban studies will be put forward. Second, drawing on these considerations, the field will be assessed in the context of its relationship both to urban studies elsewhere and in terms of its progress in Canada itself. Finally, we will turn our sights to the future, offering a general prescription for research in the coming years.

In framing these concluding remarks, we are conscious of how vulnerable and short-lived explanations and interpretations can be, particularly ones that attempt — as this report does — to deal with a large number of complex studies. In these circumstances, generalizations and conclusions, at best, are tentative, contingent upon partial evidence, and subject to refinement or even replacement. In addition, we have few illusions about our ability to redirect the pace and direction of scholarly urban research in Canada. Most scholars already have investments in one or another line of research and these commitments are not easily or readily altered. Still, reports such as this one on the state of a field are fuel empowering the continuous reworking of history, and the more scholars are able to see clearly where they have been and to break out of specific cocoons, the richer are the possibilities for more satisfying and enduring generalizations and interpretations.

A. The Major Characteristics of Urban History

Canadian urban history and urban studies are no longer emerging fields of study. While they are still young in relative terms, they have become in the past fifteen years solid, important, and durable approaches. Urban history grew rapidly in the 1970s, drawing on earlier work on urban evolution completed by other social scientists (most notably geographers) and reflecting the problems of cities that became the focus of public concern in North America in the late 1960s and early 1970s. As well, urban historians were influenced by the traditions of English and French Canadian historiography, in part rejecting older approaches and themes but also retaining certain elements from past practices. To these continuing concerns were added, in part as a product of training and of foreign (especially French and American) influences, a new emphasis on interdisciplinary approaches.

As studies of the evolution of urban Canada multiplied in the 1970s, a great variety of themes and subjects were examined, although the great majority were analyzed in the context of individual cities or regions. Synthesis at the multi-city or multi-thematic level is still rare, as are comparative studies of either individual cities or of even one theme in more than one urban environment. One result of this diffuse approach has been the continuation of definitional problems in the field; for example, there is still apparent confusion about the precise distinction between studies of developments in cities as opposed to studies of phenomena that are both in and of the city. Thus attempts to create a widely accepted nomenclature for Canadian urban studies — including, for example, such concepts as “urban as setting,” “urban as entity,” and “urban as process” — have not been entirely successful.

In this context, the links with older Canadian historiographic themes (such as the metropolitan approach), the continuing influence of social history and its methods, and the rediscovery of the theme of power, are still very evident. Still, new themes and approaches are emerging, including a growing awareness of the need to understand urban society in spatial, class, ethnic and political terms; a recognition of the role of urban culture, in both a broad and a narrow sense; and the need to develop systematic chronologies and typologies for Canadian urban development.

B. An Assessment

The achievements of Canadian scholars concerned with the evolution of urban Canada are quite remarkable, despite continuing problems in the field. During a period of less than fifteen years a very small group of scholars have initiated and sustained a scholarly journal, organized several successful conferences, contributed urban perspectives to texts, collections and journals (both in Canada and abroad), and published hundreds of essays, research reports, articles, and monographs. In this process, Canadian urban scholars have participated actively in the larger intellectual life of the Western world and, although modest, their contributions have been significant. General interpretations regarding the historical evolution of urban systems and networks; a new appreciation for the social and ethnic complexities of urban environments; the role of the state as a promoter or director of urban growth; the understanding of the control and development of urban frontiers and colonies, and the nature of colonial thinking; all these themes have been enriched by Canadian research.

This very positive view of urban history in particular and urban studies in general must be balanced by several caveats. In their rush to address ignored issues and themes — to, in effect, create a new sub-field — Canadian urban scholars have tended to overlook critical concerns about theories or general interpretations. There has been, in short, a distinct lack of integration among the practitioners of urban studies. To a point, this diverse approach is creative; it is both receptive to new ideas and respectful of old approaches. It is, however, also a distinct weakness. Interestingly, it can be argued that the diversity which characterizes urban studies reflects Canada itself, with its competing rationalisms and its diverse geographical and socio-economic divisions. It can
also be noted that while urban studies was characterized by a new appreciation of the value of interdisciplinary work, this concern was not always manifest in published work and, when it was, it rarely went as far as might have been expected. Urban historians remained reluctant to adopt sophisticated social science methodology, and social scientists often completed urban studies without much appreciation of historical evolution.

The urban studies field continues, as well, to have gaps in terms of time, place, and theme. In terms of time, the study of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries still lag behind studies of the nineteenth and twentieth centuries although, fortunately, this appears to be changing rapidly. In terms of place, the bulk of studies to date still focus on large metropolitan centres — small towns and cities are only just beginning to receive the attention they deserve. As well, while Quebec urban studies have grown rapidly in the past few years, "the shading and texture that must be contributed by the eastern half [i.e., the Atlantic region] of the country are yet to arrive." Finally, in terms of themes, the most notable gaps have to do with questions surrounding everyday life and social relationships in the urban environment; a concern for appreciation of how people are changed and affected by the so-called "urban process."

C. Future Concerns and Directions

Canadian urban studies is not a sharply circumscribed or single, focused field of study. The books, reports, and articles cited in this essay display a diversity of both content and approach and any user of this material will find much that is useful, stimulating and provocative and, just as surely, will wish that more attention had been brought to bear on additional themes and/or places. It would be futile, then, to attempt to outline in any detailed way a research agenda for the future. Rather, it is our intention, in a very general way, to suggest that Canadian urban scholars broaden their research horizons in certain directions.

First, as has already been noted, it is to be hoped that as scholars mature their work will encompass a spatial term more than particular communities or regions; the need for comparative studies is self-evident. If progress is to continue to be made in terms of understanding the complexities of Canadian urbanization, just as essential, however, is the need to encourage even broader horizons along the lines of the first steps that have already been taken in terms of placing the Canadian urban experience in the context of other western countries. Related to this direction is the need for an expanded chronology or, to put it another way, for Canadian scholars to appreciate that cities have always played a fundamental role in the development of civilization. In this context, Canadians can benefit greatly by collaborating with their colleagues who study other countries and by an increased appreciation for reading widely in urban studies, both in terms of time and place.

Second, if these ambitious hopes are to be realized it will be necessary for scholars to work more frequently as members of research teams that include not only representatives of several disciplines but experts on experiences other than Canadian. Developments in this respect are increasingly common in Quebec, but English-Canadians remain reluctant to experiment. There are many reasons for this reluctance and some of these reasons have been examined elsewhere, but two deserve comment here. First university administrators and professors must overcome their prejudices in regard to team as opposed to individual research, prejudices that are still quite evident in both reward systems and research funding. Second, granting agencies and research institutes must also be prepared to test the value of team research, recognizing that in a country as vast as Canada that team research necessarily involves added costs for travel. The challenge is thus to develop the environment and to provide the resources that will allow research teams to function and, we trust, prosper.

Canadian urban historians have accomplished a great deal in the past fifteen years and it is possible to predict, confidently, that much will be accomplished in the future. Those historians who study the evolution of the Canadian city are concerned with such crucial issues as increased specialization in methodology, the need to develop new conceptual frameworks, and the importance of genuine interdisciplinary communication. And as long as these elements are present, the study of the urban past has a secure future in Canada.
APPENDIX A

Urban Studies Formats

An obvious measure of the development of any field is the number and variety of published works available to students and researchers. Until recently, it was commonplace for students of Canadian urban studies to decry the lack of basic work in the field and to assert that this void had to be filled before substantial progress could be made. Like all generalizations, this one contains elements of truth. There are important gaps in our knowledge of Canadian urban development and these gaps are quickly identified in a systematic survey of the various forms of material available. As the following sections will indicato, there are areas of insufficient research that must be filled if a comprehensive approach to Canadian urban studies is to be facilitated. At the same time, however, this analysis of urban studies formats does provide solid evidence that large strides have been made in the past few years and that continued progress can be expected.

At the outset, several general characteristics relating to Canadian urban studies writing should be noted. The majority of published material deals with thematic issues and is usually based on local or case studies. Generally, this work grows out of research completed for graduate degrees and reflects the fact that urban history and urban studies are relatively new and emerging sub-fields. In terms of formats, this work appears most frequently as monographs or as articles; the latter appearing first in journals and, then, often in edited collections or readers.

A. General Studies

Canadian urban specialists have produced few long-term, multi-purpose studies at either the national or the regional level; unlike the situation in the United States where numerous surveys have been published, there is still no single-volume study of the evolution of urban Canada. At the national level, there are several studies of urban Canada, but most of these lack a convincing, general framework and tend to focus on particular issues or on contemporary perspectives. As well, despite their acknowledged value, none are viewed as essential reading for students of urban Canada. It is perhaps not too strong a judgement to make that until such a volume is produced, the study of urban Canada as an important conditioning influence on the general development of Canada will not be widely acknowledged.

At the regional level there are, not surprisingly, far more examples of general, multi-purpose studies. But even here there are important omissions, including the absence of general articles on urbanization in British Columbia and few studies of the Atlantic provinces and Quebec. At the local level, there are numerous case studies that also take a multi-purpose approach. In one category are case studies completed by local historians, many of which provide detailed outlines of past events and a place to begin more analytical research. But urban "biography" has also attracted many professional scholars and this format remains an important source for any understanding of Canadian urban development. In addition to several important, but unrelated studies, the History of Canadian Cities Series is consciously designed to be more than a series of disconnected case studies since all authors follow a set of guidelines that include an emphasis on comparable data. The goal of the series is to produce a systematic, interpretative and comprehensive account of the urban experience in a variety of Canadian cities. Eventually, as new volumes are completed, the History of Canadian Cities Series will be a major step along the path.

1. In this and subsequent notes in this section we have endeavored to provide examples of work in the various formats but it is, obviously, impossible to be comprehensive without, in effect, producing a bibliography. For complete reference, readers are referred to the bibliographic studies covered in section D. Below.
6. This series, under the general editorship of Alan E.J. Arterberry, is co-published by James Lorimer and the National Museum of Man. Volumes published to date are: Arterberry, Winnipeg: An Illustrated
to a general and comprehensive study of the evolution of urban Canada.

B. Thematic Studies

In contrast to general studies, there are a wide variety and number of long term thematic studies dealing with one or two themes. In virtually all cases these studies adopt what has been labelled the "urban as entity" approach in which the aim is to examine the formation of urban communities in terms of a variety of independent variables, including political economy, population, technology, and geography. At the national level, these thematic studies on topics ranging from demography to politics to housing, while at the regional and local level there are even a wider variety of excellent volumes and articles. Indeed, it is no exaggeration to note that the bulk of writing on the evolution of urban Canada takes a thematic approach, regarding the city as a dependent variable; the product — at least in part — of the theme being examined.

Despite this large and growing body of thematic studies, there are still some gaps in terms of regional coverage and, more notably, in terms of comparative analyses of the cities across regions and at the national level. Fortunately, several recent articles suggest that the field has reached a stage where this level of generalization will become more common.

C. Collections and Readers

While the bulk of writing about the evolution of urban Canada is of the most conventional format of publishing the collection or reader, this fact suggests that while the number of researchers growing, most are not yet ready to present their research in book form, opting instead for articles in edited collections. It is notable, however, that several of these collections do contain excellent introductory, concluding, and transitional essays that often represent the "state of the art" in their field. In both cases, the growing interest for such publications — itself a reflection of the increasing popularity of Canadian urban studies — has prompted the writing of essays that would otherwise not have been attempted. As well, since collections are often issued in revised editions, they provide an excellent way for students to stay in touch with a rapidly developing field.

In addition to several general collections, there are volumes that cover specific themes, including government and politics and planning and the physical environment, urban problems, metropolitan hinterland relationships, and social issues. There are also a few readers that seek to cover two or more related themes or that cover urban development in a specific regional. These specialized collections cited in the appropriate thematic sections of this report.

D. Bibliographies and Guides

Canadian urban experts are well served by bibliographies and guides. At the national level, there is a comprehensive, single-volume bibliography and guide that covers the field to 1980 and that is being updated annually. Canada's Urban Past contains more than 7,000 entries for books, articles and theses, and is an indication of the wealth of material that exists in the field. The volume also contains a listing of critique of urban organizations involved in urban research and a detailed description of major sources of urban data in areas across the country. This indispensable and major reference tool does not, however, totally replace other national bibliographies and guides and several other volumes should be referred to ensure complete coverage.

The rapid growth of urban studies in Canada is nowhere more apparent in the increasing number of periodicals devoted in whole or in part to urban themes. The major journal in Canada is the Urban History Review/Revue d'histoire urbaine, published three times a year by the Institute of Urban Studies at the University of Winnipeg. The journal publishes significant articles in each issue as well as information on current research, book reviews, theses abstracts, and notes and comments on conferences, recent publications, and archives. Other important journals that contain urban material include: Plan Canada (1959), published by the Canadian Urban and Regional Magazines (1974-1979, 1983); and Actualités immobilières (Canada, 1976-). At the international level, there are several important journals including: Urbanism Past and Present (United States, 1974); the Planning Review (Great Britain, 1979); Cities (Great Britain, 1983-); the Journal of Urban History (United States, 1974); the Urban History Yearbook (Great Britain, 1974-); and the Urban Affairs Quarterly (United States, 1964). As well, given the often diffuse nature of the field, urban studies material regularly appears in disciplinary journals.

Appendix A


The bibliography is compiled in supervisory tenure. For further reference, see Canada's Urban Past, p. 31.


13. There are far too many to begin even to list even a few here. Most, however, are listed in Canada's Urban Past.

14. A continuing list is also included in the "List of Bibliographies" in the "Bibliography" section of the "Index of Urban Journals" in Canada's Urban Past.
APPENDIX B/ANNEXE B

Studies Available in Both Official Languages /
Études disponibles dans les deux langues officielles

Note: Nous n'avons pas inclus dans ce relevé les publications du gouvernement fédéral, qui sont normalement disponibles en français et en anglais. / We have not included federal government publications in this list since they are normally available in both official languages.

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THE INSTITUTE OF URBAN STUDIES

The Institute of Urban Studies (IUS) was created by the University of Winnipeg in 1969 at a time when the city’s “urban University” perceived a need to deal with the problems and concerns of the inner city. From the outset, IUS was both an academic research centre and an innovative, action-oriented community resource. While the Institute has always been committed to examining urban development issues in a broad context, it has never lost sight of the demands of applied research aimed at practical, often novel, solutions to urban problems.

The Institute of Urban Studies is a multiple function centre that undertakes to encourage, facilitate and engage in independent, multi-disciplinary research on urban or urban-related topics (including housing, community and neighbourhood development, urban policy and government, and social demographic issues); to promote and engage in formal and informal education and community outreach programs and to conduct mission oriented and applied research.

The Institute has an active publications program that includes a scholarly journal, newsletter, research reports, monographs, and occasional publications.

The Institute is an institutional member of the following organizations: the Canadian Urban Transit Association, the Social Science Federation of Canada, the Urban Affairs Association, the International New Towns Association, the International Federation for Housing and Planning, the Association of Regional and Planning Programs at Canadian Universities, the Social Planning Council of Winnipeg, the Downtown Winnipeg Association, and several other local or regional bodies.

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