MEMORANDUM

To: **Mayor, City Council, and Planning Commission**

From: **Ken Gibb, Community Development Director**

Kevin Young, Planning Division Manager

Date: **January 9, 2015**

Subject: **Process and Schedule Considerations for Review of OSU-Related Comprehensive Plan Findings and Policies**

I. ISSUE/BACKGROUND

At the December 1, 2014, City Council meeting, the City Council voted to initiate a legislative review of the Comprehensive Plan as it relates to activities and development at Oregon State University. Prior to that decision, on December 1st, a joint work session was held with the Planning Commission and City Council to discuss this potential legislative review. A number of issues were discussed, but no decisions were made during the work session. This memorandum outlines staff-identified process options and other considerations for moving forward with this Comprehensive Plan review.

Additionally, background information regarding the function and components of a Comprehensive Plan is provided in **Attachments B, C, and D** to this memorandum. **Attachment B** contains a staff overview of this information, along with an excerpt from the International City/County Management Association's (ICMA's) Principles and Practice of Urban Planning regarding comprehensive plans. **Attachments C and D** contain excerpts from more recent ICMA planning texts regarding comprehensive plans as well.

II. DISCUSSION

This memorandum discusses a number of elements for the OSU-Related Comprehensive Plan review, including the constitution of a task force, scheduling and process options, and background information on the function and components of the Comprehensive Plan. Additionally, OSU-Related Findings and Policies from the current

Comprehensive Plan, which were previously provided to the City Council, are provided for your convenience in **Attachment E**.

Task Force Formation

Although decisions were not reached at the December 1, 2014, joint City Council – Planning Commission work session, there seemed to be support for the suggestion that a small task force be charged with working on this Comprehensive Plan review, up to the point at which the Planning Commission and City Council would formally consider any associated amendments to the Comprehensive Plan. The task force might consist of members of the Planning Commission and City Council. The Planning Commission will discuss potential participation on the task force at their January 7, 2015, meeting, and will identify those members of the Planning Commission who are willing and able to serve at that meeting. Staff recommend using a smaller task force, perhaps composed of three members of the Planning Commission and three City Councilors. Generally, a working group of seven or fewer members has been found to be a good size to efficiently make progress on a task such as this. Task force members would be appointed by the Mayor.

Schedule Options

In general, the consensus from the December 1st work session seemed to be that an aggressive schedule is needed in order to accomplish the desired review prior to the potential expiration of the OSU Master Plan at the end of 2015 (to be determined by the City Council at the January 20, 2015, Council meeting). OSU has been developing a proposed District Plan, with a tentative date for formal application submittal in April of 2015. One of the issues to be considered is how the Comprehensive Plan review process schedule would relate to OSU's current District Plan schedule **(Attachment A)**. The following schedule presents two potential timetables for the Comprehensive Plan review. The first is a very abbreviated schedule, the second allows more time for public participation, meetings, and task force/staff work. Of course, these are not the only two possible scheduling and process scenarios available. Other schedules may be developed, as determined by the Planning Commission and City Council.

Option 1:

February - March	Two – three task force meetings, with a dedicated public comment session in between the meetings: First meeting – review current Comprehensive Plan Findings and Policies, as well as Statewide Planning Goals. Identify areas where more information is needed, existing policies

	that might be considered for revision or elimination, and potential new policies that might be needed.
	Public Comment Opportunity
	Second/third meeting – develop recommendations for revised findings and policies, as well as new findings and policies.
May 6th	Planning Commission public hearing to consider Comprehensive Plan Amendment (CPA) (Post-Acknowledgement Plan Amendment (PAPA) notice must be sent by April 1st)
May 20th	Planning Commission deliberations
June 15th	City Council public hearing to consider CPA
July 6th	City Council deliberations
July 20th	City Council adopts Formal Findings for CPA

Option 2:

February - June	Three - five or more task force meetings, with one or more dedicated public comment session(s) in between the meetings:
	First/second meetings – Discuss and come to agreement on specific scope of task force review process. Review current Comprehensive Plan Findings and Policies, as well as Statewide Planning Goals. Identify areas where more information is needed, existing policies that might be considered for revision or elimination, and potential new policies that might be needed.
	Public Comment Opportunity, as well as employment of on-line public involvement tool to solicit broad-based public input.
	Subsequent meetings – begin development of recommendations for revised findings and policies, as well as new findings and policies.

	Additional meetings, as needed. The recommendation would need to be finalized prior to July 1st so that the full range of proposed changes could be reflected in the PAPA notice that would be sent to the Oregon Department of Land Conservation and Development (DLCD).
August 5th	Planning Commission public hearing to consider Comprehensive Plan Amendment (CPA) (PAPA notice must be sent by July 1st)
August 19th	Planning Commission deliberations
September 21st	City Council public hearing to consider CPA
October 5th	City Council deliberations
October 19th	City Council adopts Formal Findings for CPA

Process for Review

A proposed general scope and process for the Comprehensive Plan review is as follows:

1. Review existing findings and identify areas where existing findings need to be updated or where additional findings would be warranted.
2. Review existing policies and identify where policy revisions or updates are needed.
3. Identify new policies that should be considered and existing policies that might be deleted.
4. Provide means for public input regarding existing and potential Comprehensive Plan Findings and Policies, to include public meetings and potential use of on-line techniques (e.g. Survey Monkey, on-line public engagement tools, etc. – the Option 2 schedule would allow for use of on-line tools, Option 1 would likely not)
5. Identify next steps, including potential:
    - Revised Comprehensive Plan language
    - Revised Land Development Code provisions
    - Other?

Other Considerations

- Given the short timeline for completion of this project, Staff assumes that the current format for the Comprehensive Plan, with findings and policies organized by topic area, will be maintained. A full update of the Comprehensive Plan is

anticipated in the near future and would be the appropriate time to consider more substantial revisions to the structure and organization of the document.

- The role of Oregon State University as a stakeholder in this process.
- The Comprehensive Plan is a tool that is intended to guide development in a community, but is not a policy document intended to provide direction to all aspects of city governance and community values. Consequently, there may be concerns identified through this review process that would be effectively addressed through other means, such as law enforcement or neighborhood code compliance. Those issues will need to be sorted out through the process.
- Staff recommends that, in addition to public meetings, there be efforts made to gauge community feedback through on-line public engagement tools.
- This comprehensive plan review process was not anticipated by OSU when they developed the master plan schedule included in Attachment A. As a result, OSU is likely going to need more time to complete their master plan update that could comply with any changes to comprehensive plan policy revisions that may come from this process. The City Attorney's memo dated December 31, 2014, that sets forth a number of ambiguities in current language about the expiration date for the OSU master plan, will need to be addressed by motion at the January 20 meeting. That motion should take into consideration the timeline for the comprehensive plan review.

<u>Requested Action</u>

No decisions may be made during a work session. The purpose of this work session is to allow the Planning Commission and City Council to discuss these issues and develop recommendations to the City Council for action at their meeting on January 20, 2015. Specific decisions the City Council will need to make, and that this joint work session can inform, include:

- The timeline and process for the comprehensive plan review;
- The task force make-up for Mayoral appointment; and
- Concepts for addressing the ambiguities identified by the City Attorney so that preliminary language for a motion for the City Council to consider on January 20 can be crafted

Review and Concur:

_____

Nancy Brewer, City Manager *Pro-Tem*

III. ATTACHMENTS:

A. OSU District Plan Schedule
B. Staff Overview and Excerpt from ICMA's Principles and Practice of Urban Planning (1968)
C. Excerpt from ICMA's The Practice of Local Government Planning (1979)
D. Excerpt from ICMA's Local Planning: Contemporary Principles and Practice (2009)
E. OSU-Related Comprehensive Plan Findings and Policies

2015 OSU District Plan
Schedule

Updated October 31, 2014

DATE	TASK OR ACTION ITEM
Apr 2014	City Council work session with Planning Commission and OSU
May 2014	Transportation workshop
May 2014	Campus outreach and engagement meetings
Aug 2014	Check in with Planning Commission and City Council
Oct 2014	Campus & community workshop/open house
Nov 2014	Check in with Planning Commission and City Council
Dec 2014	Campus & community public meetings
Feb 2015	Public outreach meeting #1 with campus & community to solicit feedback on first half of District Plan
Feb 2015	Hold joint work session #1 with Planning Commission and City Council
Mar 2015	Public outreach meeting #2 with campus & community to solicit feedback on second half of District Plan
Mar 2015	Hold Joint work session #2 with Planning Commission and City Council
Apr 2015	Submit land use application(s) to City
June 2015	Submit final edits to application
Aug 2015	Planning Commission hearing #1
Sept 2015	Planning Commission hearing #2
Oct 2015	City Council hearing #1
Nov 2015	City Council hearing #2
Dec 2015	District Plan adopted by City Council

Outreach & Engagement

Application Submittal & Public Hearings

MEMORANDUM

To: **Mayor, City Council, and Planning Commission**

From: **Kevin Young, Planning Division Manager**

Date: **January 9, 2015**

Subject: **A Brief Overview of the Function and Components of a Comprehensive Plan, including Discussion of the Requirements of Oregon's Statewide Planning Program**

Community Development staff have identified background information for decision-makers regarding the function and typical components of a comprehensive plan. The best source of information found thus far comes from a series of land use planning textbooks developed by the International City/County Management Association (ICMA), including Principles and Practice of Urban Planning (1968), The Practice of Local Government Planning (1979), and Local Planning: Contemporary Principles and Practices (2009). Excerpts from these three sources regarding the comprehensive plan have been included as **Attachments B, C, and D** to this memorandum. It should be noted that these textbooks describe the comprehensive plan and comprehensive planning process in broad terms that would be applicable for local jurisdictions throughout the United States. Within the context of land use planning in Oregon, the statewide planning program, and associated enabling legislation, attach certain requirements and expectations for local comprehensive plans that are more specific than those elucidated in these materials. Nonetheless, the discussion and analysis of comprehensive planning found in these excerpts provide a good introduction and overview of the form and function of a comprehensive plan. Although these excerpts may seem somewhat redundant, considered together, they help to demonstrate how the concept of the comprehensive plan has evolved and adapted over time as a tool to guide development in a community.

Perhaps the most concise description of a comprehensive plan is attributed to T.J. Kent, Jr., in the 1968 Principles and Practice of Urban Planning **(Attachment B)**:

> "The general plan *(aka comprehensive plan)* is the official statement of a municipal legislative body which sets forth its major policies concerning desirable future physical development."

Some of the essential characteristics of a comprehensive plan are described as follows:

> "It is often said that the essential characteristics of the *(comprehensive)* plan are that it is comprehensive, general, and long range. "Comprehensive" means that the plan encompasses all geographical parts of the community and all functional elements which bear on physical development. "General" means that the plan summarizes policies and proposals and does not indicate specific locations or detailed regulations. "Long Range" means that the plan looks beyond the foreground of pressing current issues to the perspective of problems and possibilities 20 to 30 years in the future."

You will note, as you review these source materials, that the terms "general plan", "city plan", and even "master plan" are sometimes used synonymously with the term "comprehensive plan."

The Practice of Local Government Planning (1979) **(Attachment C)**, elaborates on the description provided in the 1968 text, and emphasizes the different functions that can be performed by a comprehensive plan:

> "The functions performed by a city plan are many and complex, but they can be grouped under three principal categories:
>
> 1. First, the plan is an expression of what a community wants. It is a statement of goals, a listing of objectives, and a vision of what might be.
> 2. Second, the plan, once prepared, serves as a guide to decision making. It provides the means for guiding and influencing the many public and private decisions that create the future city.
> 3. Third, the plan in some cases may represent the fulfillment of a legal requirement. It may be a necessary obligation. Such a mandated plan can, of course, still fulfill the first two functions, but the fact that it is required adds a distinctive dimension to the planning process.
>
> How, one might ask, can a single document fulfill such broad and complex functions. The answer, or course, is that the plan document by itself does not do the job. The value is derived from the *process* of preparing the plan and the *use* of the plan after its preparation."

Lastly, the discussion of comprehensive planning in Local Planning: Contemporary Principles and Practice (2009) **(Attachment D)** is set in the context of the broad variety of planning documents that may be utilized by local governments. In this excerpt, the comprehensive plan is distinguished from other land use plans such as the vision document, system plans, area plans, and capital improvement plans, among others.

Table 5-1 within **Attachment D** provides an excellent overview of this variety of plans and their distinguishing characteristics.

One of the key points from this analysis is that the Comprehensive Plan is a general, policy-level plan, but does not contain specific regulations. Comprehensive Plan Policies are necessarily general in nature, and sometimes may even conflict with one another. This is why the development of regulations to implement the comprehensive plan can be challenging, with the need to balance sometimes conflicting policies and considerations. For example, the current Comprehensive Plan contains policy direction that supports compact development and the efficient use of land, but to what extent should implementing regulations facilitate compact development in light of other considerations, such as the desire to preserve historic buildings, maintain and enhance livability, and protect significant natural resources within the City?

The following example of the difference between a Comprehensive Plan Policy and an implementing regulation helps to illustrate the difference between the two. In relation to the issue of wetlands protection, Comprehensive Plan Policy 4.11.1 states,

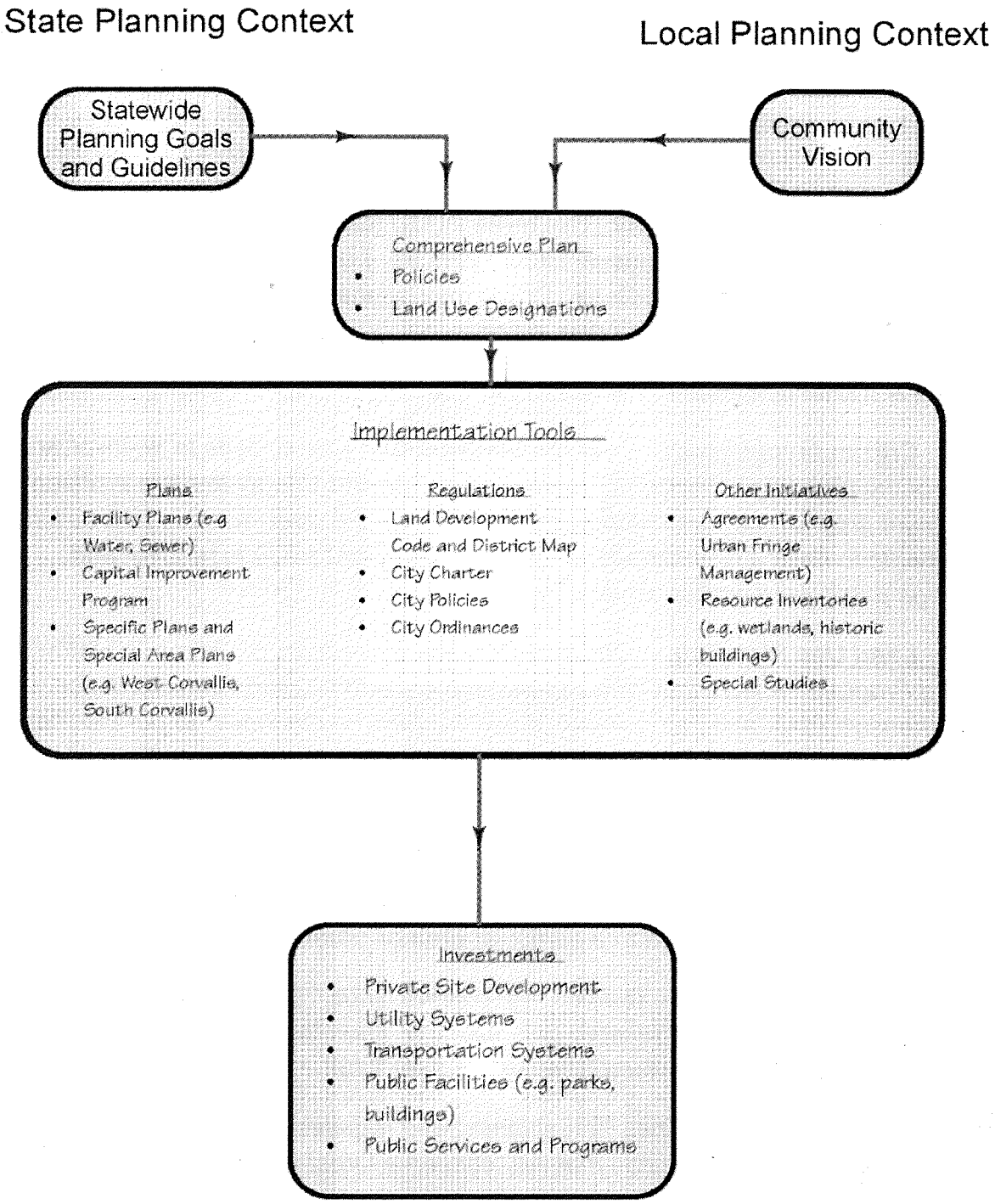
> **Consistent with State and Federal policy, the City adopts the goal of no net loss of significant wetlands in terms of both acreage and function. The City shall comply with at least the minimum protection requirements of applicable State and Federal wetland laws as interpreted by the State and Federal agencies charged with enforcing these laws.**

"No net loss" is a concept that is embedded in State and Federal law regarding wetlands, and the City's adoption of that goal is necessary to remain in compliance with these regulations. However, what is not encoded in state and federal law is the extent to which a jurisdiction should prohibit development within a significant wetland, and the extent to which development may be allowed in a wetland area, so long as mitigation for that loss of wetland area is provided elsewhere. The City's Natural Features Project tackled this very complicated issue and developed Land Development Code provisions (Chapter 4.13), based on natural resources inventory information assembled by a team of experts, which designates locally protected and non-locally protected wetlands within the City. Locally protected wetlands are wetlands where development is not allowed (unless certain extenuating circumstances exist), and non-locally protected wetlands are wetlands where development is allowed, so long as state and federal wetland mitigation requirements are met. In this case, the community determined that it was appropriate to preserve significant wetland areas in the community to a greater extent than state or federal law requires. Thus, the statement in Comprehensive Plan Policy 4.11.1 that "The City shall comply with at least the minimum protection requirements of applicable State and Federal Wetland laws...." was implemented through regulations that provided much greater specificity regarding wetland protections.

As noted previously, the Corvallis Comprehensive Plan is also a product of the requirements of the Statewide Planning Program. Per Oregon Revised Statute 197.175, cities and counties in Oregon are required to, "Prepare, adopt, amend, and revise comprehensive plans in compliance with goals approved by the (Land Conservation and Development) commission." These goals are commonly referred to as the "Statewide Planning Goals." The current Corvallis Comprehensive Plan is generally divided into categories, or "Articles," that coincide with the Statewide Planning Goals, although the numbering is not the same. Additionally, because Goals 16 – 19 only apply to coastal communities in Oregon, they are not reflected in the Corvallis Comprehensive Plan.

Figure 1.1 on the following page, from the City's current Comprehensive Plan, illustrates the role of the comprehensive plan as a document developed from the community's vision for the future and informed by statewide planning goals and guidelines. The graphic also shows how the Comprehensive Plan is used to guide the development of numerous implementation tools (including the Land Development Code and Zoning Map), as well as public investments.

Figure 1.1 Planning Process



To ensure consistency with the Statewide Planning Goals, the Oregon Department of Land Conservation and Development (DLCD) reviews any changes to comprehensive plans and related plans. When a comprehensive plan is completely updated, often in response to a "Periodic Review" requirement from DLCD, DLCD will review the revised plan and, if found consistent, will "acknowledge" the plan. Only after a plan is acknowledged by DLCD may a jurisdiction implement the plan. For incremental (non-comprehensive) changes to the Comprehensive Plan, the Post Acknowledgement Plan Amendment (PAPA) process is used. In this process, local jurisdictions are required to provide notice to DLCD at least 35 days prior to the first evidentiary hearing to consider a comprehensive plan amendment. This gives DLCD staff time to review and comment on any proposed changes. In unusual circumstances, if changes to a plan are found to conflict with Statewide Planning Goals, DLCD may appeal a local decision to amend a comprehensive plan, or may take other action.

Following is a brief summary of the Statewide Planning Goals:

Goal 1 - Citizen Involvement *- Calls for "the opportunity for citizens to be involved in all phases of the planning process." It requires each City and County to have a citizen involvement program with six components specified in the goal. It also requires local governments to have a Committee for Citizen Involvement (CCI) to monitor and encourage public participation in planning.*

Goal 2 - Land Use Planning *- Outlines the basic procedures of Oregon's Statewide Planning Program. It says that land use decisions are to be made in accordance with a Comprehensive Plan, and that suitable "implementation ordinances" to put the Plan's policies into effect must be adopted. It requires that plans be based on "factual information"; that local plans and ordinances be coordinated with those of other jurisdictions and agencies; and that plans be reviewed periodically and amended as needed. Goal 2 also contains standards for taking exceptions to Statewide Planning Goals and Guidelines. An exception may be taken when a Statewide Planning Goal cannot or should not be applied to a particular area or situation.*

Goal 3 - Agricultural Lands *- Defines "agricultural lands." It then requires counties to inventory such lands and to "preserve and maintain" them through exclusive farm use (EFU) zoning (per Oregon Revised Statutes Chapter 215).*

Goal 4 - Forest Lands *- Defines "forest lands" and requires counties to inventory them and adopt policies and ordinances that will "conserve forest lands for forest uses."*

Goal 5 - Open Spaces, Scenic, and Historic Areas, and Natural Resources *- Encompasses 12 different types of resources, including wildlife habitats, mineral resources, wetlands, and waterways. It establishes a process through which resources must be inventoried and evaluated. If a resource or site is found to be important, the*

local government has three policy choices: to preserve the resource, to allow the proposed uses that conflict with it, or to establish some sort of a balance between the resource and those uses that would conflict with it.

Goal 6 - Air, Water, and Land Resources Quality *- Requires local Comprehensive Plans and implementing measures to be consistent with State and Federal regulations on matters such as ground water pollution.*

Goal 7 - Areas Subject to Natural Disasters and Hazards *- Addresses development in places subject to natural hazards such as floods or landslides. It requires that jurisdictions apply "appropriate safeguards" (flood plain zoning, for example) when planning for development there.*

Goal 8 - Recreation Needs *- Calls for each community to evaluate its areas and facilities for recreation and develop plans to address the projected demand for them. It also sets forth detailed standards for expedited siting of destination resorts.*

Goal 9 - Economy of the State *- Calls for diversification and improvement of the economy. It asks communities to inventory commercial and industrial lands, project future needs for such lands, and plan and zone enough land to meet those needs.*

Goal 10 - Housing *- Specifies that each City must plan for and accommodate needed housing types (typically, multi-family and manufactured housing). It requires each City to inventory its buildable residential lands, project future needs for such lands, and plan and zone enough buildable land to meet those needs. It also prohibits local plans from discriminating against needed housing types.*

Goal 11 - Public Facilities and Services *- Calls for efficient planning of public services such as sewers, water, law enforcement, and fire protection. The Goal's central concept is that public services should to be planned in accordance with a community's needs and capacities rather than be forced to respond to development as it occurs.*

Goal 12 - Transportation *- Aims to provide "a safe, convenient and economic transportation system." It asks for communities to address the needs of the "transportation disadvantaged."*

Goal 13 - Energy *- Declares that "land and uses developed on the land shall be managed and controlled so as to maximize the conservation of all forms of energy, based upon sound economic principles."*

Goal 14 - Urbanization *- Requires all cities to estimate future growth and needs for land and then plan and zone enough land to meet those needs. It calls for each City to establish an "Urban Growth Boundary" (UGB) to "identify and separate urbanizable land from rural land." It specifies seven factors that must be considered in drawing up a*

UGB. It also lists four criteria to be applied when undeveloped land within a UGB is to be converted to urban uses.

Goal 15 - Willamette Greenway *- Sets forth procedures for administering the 300 miles of greenway that protect the Willamette River.*

Goal 16 - Estuarine Resources, ***Goal 17 - Coastal Shorelands***, ***Goal 18 - Beaches and Dunes***, *and* ***Goal 19 - Ocean Resources*** *- Address resources not found in the Corvallis Urban Growth Boundary; therefore, this Comprehensive Plan does not address these Goals.*

Principles and Practice of Urban Planning (1968)

13

The Comprehensive Plan

THIS CHAPTER DESCRIBES what a comprehensive plan is and how it is to be used, but it does not tell how to make a plan (i.e., what analyses and techniques to use in formulating the policies and design proposals contained in the plan). For guidance in the required planning methods, the reader should consult the other chapters of this book dealing with population, land use, transportation, etc. The preceding chapter discusses the determination of development objectives basic to the comprehensive plan; succeeding chapters explain the means for implementing the plan.

This chapter principally concerns the comprehensive plan for a municipality, rather than for a county or metropolitan government. A municipality usually has regulatory powers over the use of all private land within its territory and responsibility for most of the public activities. A county or metropolitan government often has a more limited jurisdiction because there are autonomous municipalities within its boundaries. Consequently, plans for these broader units of government tend to rely more on predictions of what will happen than decisions as to what should happen. To date there has been more experience with municipal plans, and in discussing their functions, contents, and procedures, one can cite a large body of professional materials and case examples.

What Is a Comprehensive Plan?

A comprehensive plan is an official public document adopted by a local government as a policy guide to decisions about the physical development of the community. It indicates in a general way how the leaders of the government want the community to develop in the next 20 to 30 years. Because it is general and agencies devote more of their time to charting approximate, it is not a piece of legislation. T. J. Kent, Jr., one of the leading proponents of the comprehensive plan concept, has given this definition: "The general plan is the official statement of a municipal legislative body which sets forth its major policies concerning desirable future physical development."[1]

Notice that Kent speaks of the "general plan"; this term is used interchangeably with "comprehensive plan." Another synonym, "master plan," is probably the most familiar to the ear. This phrase has fallen into disrespect among planners because of its misuse in the past to describe plans which were not general and comprehensive (such as "master street plan" or "master park plan"). The term "city plan" is also used.

It is often said that the essential characteristics of the plan are that it is comprehensive, general, and long range. "Comprehensive" means that the plan encompasses all geographical parts of the community and all functional elements which bear on physical development. "General" means that the plan summarizes policies and proposals and does not indicate specific locations or detailed regulations. "Long range" means that the plan looks beyond the foreground of pressing current issues to the perspective of problems and possibilities 20 to 30 years in the future.

[1] T. J. Kent, Jr., THE URBAN GENERAL PLAN (San Francisco: Chandler Publishing Co., 1964), p. 18.

Although there is some variation in the content of comprehensive plans, three technical elements are commonly included: the private uses of land, community facilities, and circulation. The first of the three is sometimes called the "land use plan," but this is a misnomer because community facilities and streets are also uses of land. Kent labels this part the "working and living areas section." Comprehensive plans may cover other subjects, such as utilities, civic design, and special uses of land unique to the locality. Usually there is background information on the population, economy, existing land use, assumptions, and community goals. Every plan includes a drawing of the community on which the major design proposals are brought together to show their interrelationships.

Among most city planners, the preparation, adoption, and use of a comprehensive plan are considered to be primary objectives of the planning program. Most of the other plans and procedures applied in the course of local planning are theoretically based upon the comprehensive plan. Many planners have chafed under the pressure of day-to-day activities which denied them the time to take a more thoughtful look at the long-range development of the community. In the past dozen years, though, the federal government has increasingly conditioned financial assistance upon conformance to a local comprehensive plan, a spur which has caused hundreds of local governments to prepare plans.

Relationship of the Plan to Other Documents

Several other documents used in local planning are often confused with the comprehensive plan—in particular, the zoning ordinance, official map, and subdivision regulations. These are specific and detailed pieces of legislation which are intended to carry out the general proposals of the comprehensive plan. The confusion is understandable because these documents are often adopted prior to a comprehensive plan, and many communities which do not have a plan do have one or more of these. Such a sequence is contrary to good planning practice, and in some states the existence of these tools in the absence of a plan may cast doubt upon the legality of this legislation.

Particularly troublesome has been confusion between the zoning ordinance and the section of the comprehensive plan dealing with the private uses of land. Both deal with the ways in which privately-owned land will be used, but the plan indicates only broad categories for general areas of the city, whereas the zoning ordinance delineates the exact boundaries of districts and specifies the detailed regulations which shall apply within them. Furthermore, the plan has a long-range perspective, while the zoning ordinance is generally meant to provide for a time span of only five to ten years.

Other tools of the trade which are meant to effectuate the comprehensive plan include the capital improvements program and its accompanying budget and special-purpose regulations, such as a sign ordinance. A different level of plan, sometimes called a "middle-range development plan,"[2] is supposed to implement the comprehensive plan by concentrating on a particular area of the city or a particular functional element. Such plans are more specific and have a lesser time perspective, say five to ten years.

The growth of urban renewal programs since 1949 has created some confusion with the comprehensive plan, particularly when these activities are conducted by an agency distinct from the regular planning staff. More than one hundred cities have had community renewal programs prepared. To some professionals this work has seemed to overlap the preparation of a comprehensive plan. The relationships among these planning efforts have not really been clarified, but they probably will evolve gradually. Urban renewal tends to emphasize residential land and the older parts of the city; geographically and functionally, it is not truly comprehensive. Community renewal programs, while considering long-range policies, tend to recommend specific improvements to be made in the near future. It seems logical to number urban renewal and community renewal pro-

[2] See Martin Meyerson, "Building the Middle-Range Bridge for Comprehensive Planning," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, XXII (Spring, 1956), pp. 58–64.

grams among the activities designed to implement the comprehensive plan.

Why Is A Plan Needed?

Local government has a great deal of influence on the way in which a community develops. The buildings, facilities, and improvements provided by local government affect the daily lives of most citizens, give form to the community, and stimulate or retard the development of privately owned land. Typically about half of the land in a municipality is in public ownership. It is true that the workings of the real estate market help determine the uses of private land, but these uses are regulated by the local government. The local government is the only body with an opportunity to coordinate the overall pattern of physical development of the community. This is as it should be, since the decisions of the local government are made by a legislative body which represents the citizenry at large.

The local government is inescapably involved in questions of physical development. At every meeting of the legislative body, development decisions must be made concerning rezoning, street improvements, sites for public buildings, and so on. This has been especially true since World War II because of extensive population movements, suburban growth, and increased public expenditures on capital improvements.

The local government—and particularly the legislative body made up of lay citizens—needs some technical guidance in making these physical development decisions. This guidance can be provided by professional city planners, but the form in which they give it is important. If they give their advice on the basis of expediency of *ad hoc* "quickie" studies, then there is no guarantee that next month's decision will not negate the one made today. The local government needs an instrument which establishes long-range, general policies for the physical development of the community in a coordinated, unified manner, and which can be continually referred to in deciding upon the development issues which come up every week. The comprehensive plan is such an instrument.

It is true that it is possible to govern a municipality without a comprehensive plan; many cities have done so, and a few planners even recommend it. It has also been true, especially before World War II, that the plans of many communities have been ignored and forgotten. Probably the incentives offered by the federal government, rather than a spontaneous interest in city planning, have caused many communities to prepare comprehensive plans. Nevertheless, the fact that more and more communities are preparing plans, and are making use of them, clearly points to the success of the comprehensive plan. No one has suggested removing the federal requirements, and the federal planning assistance program (which requires matching funds from the locality) is very well subscribed. Expenditures for planning are increasing at a rapid rate, and much of this money is going toward the preparation of comprehensive plans. Public interest in planning matters has increased greatly, as a scanning of newspapers and popular magazines will show. In many cities there has been clamor for a plan and criticism over delays in preparing a plan. It appears that many painful years of experience have produced a comprehensive plan that has become a workable, useful, and accepted tool for cities.

Development of the Plan Concept

There is nothing novel or recent about city plans. The earliest known city planner was Hippodamus of Miletus who prepared plans for several Greek cities in the fifth century B.C. Throughout history, plans have been drawn for cities in Europe, Asia, and America, and many of them have been carried out. Famous early American plans include L'Enfant's for Washington, William Penn's for Philadelphia, and General Oglethorpe's for Savannah.[3] All of these plans were in the nature of architectural blueprints. They usually started with a bare site and were commissioned by a central authority which had power to execute them unilaterally.

[3] For an excellent history of these early plans, see John W. Reps, The Making of Urban America: A History of City Planning in the United States (Princeton: Princeton University Press, 1965).

The Practice of
ocal Gov't
Planning (1979)

Developers call city plan outmoded—stops new investment.

City loses federal dollars for lack of development plan.

State coastal zone planning to be turned back to cities and counties.

Utility announces site for nuclear power plant—village board calls for impact assessment.

These are some of the headlines that might appear in the local press indicating a city's need for a city plan. We can see from the list that cities are likely to undertake plans in response to a combination of local circumstances or to the requirements of state and federal laws or regulations.

As indicated in these fictitious headlines, conditions within a municipality itself are an important generating force for a comprehensive planning effort. Burgeoning growth or rapid decline may ignite the concern of both private citizens and public servants.

A major new facility such as an oil refinery may require a comprehensive plan for the future of a city or town. The boom towns of the West have initiated city plans as they struggle to define the short- and long-term impacts of coal mining on their communities.

A local resource such as an attractive coastal location, a lake, or a historic site may generate development pressures that require a plan. It may become apparent that new growth is destroying the resource that attracted development in the first place. Pressures may arise to restrict new growth in order to preserve the resource. A general plan becomes a useful tool for sorting out what the community wants, whether limits should be imposed, and what interests are being served by such action.

The courts increasingly have looked for a rationale behind a city's zoning ordinance that can be used to weigh the relative merits of zoning changes or to justify the costs that compliance with a zoning ordinance may require. The general plan articulates long-range development goals for the community, against which shorter-term zoning administration can be measured.

Federal requirements for comprehensive plans have varied over the years, but there has been a consistent interest at the federal level in encouraging or requiring municipalities to coordinate public and private investment. A comprehensive development plan for a municipality, whether as part of a workable program, a community renewal program, a "701" comprehensive planning grant, or an urban strategy, was and is considered a basic coordinating tool. The availability of federal money to pay for a comprehensive plan has been perhaps *the* most important motivating force for undertaking the activity.

The functions performed by a city plan are many and complex, but they can be grouped under three principal categories:

1. First, the plan is an expression of what a community wants. It is a statement of goals, a listing of objectives, and a vision of what might be.
2. Second, the plan, once prepared, serves as a guide to decision making. It provides the means for guiding and influencing the many public and private decisions that create the future city.
3. Third, the plan in some cases may represent the fulfillment of a legal requirement. It may be a necessary obligation. Such a mandated plan can, of course, still fulfill the first two functions, but the fact that it is required adds a distinctive dimension to the planning process.

How, one might ask, can a single document fulfill such broad and complex functions. The answer, of course, is that the plan document by itself does not do the job. The value is derived from the *process* of preparing the plan and the *use* of the plan after its preparation.

Planners like to point out that planning is a process. By that they mean it is

naive to assume that you can publish a single document that answers all the questions or solves all the problems. Conditions change, resources are shifted, and goals are altered, making it necessary to revise, adapt, and update the plan. The point of a plan is to focus attention on the process—to create a basis for debate, discussion, and conflict resolution. Planning must be a continuous and continuing activity designed to produce the best possible decisions about the future of the city. The *plan* represents a periodic bringing together of the activities of planning. The essence of a plan is that it is a statement of policy, an expression of community intentions and aspirations. When recognized as a statement of policy the plan can have tremendous influence, but that influence is only realized within the context of a total planning program.

The plan as a statement of policy

Central to all notions of the city plan is that the plan is a statement of what the community wants. It is a statement of goals, a listing of desires, an expression of ambitions. A good plan should be all these things. However, while there is widespread agreement as to the importance of goal setting, actual practice often falls short of ideal expectations. This is not surprising when one considers the immense difficulty of setting goals for something as large and diverse as a city. How can conflicts between the goals of competing interest groups be resolved? Is it possible to define goals that are specific enough to be useful? Can long-term planning goals be made compatible with short-term political goals?

The problems of goal setting are many and complex, but since 1960 there has been continuing and substantial improvement in the ability of local governments to prepare plans that embody meaningful statements of policy. Part of this improvement is the result of the changing context of city planning. Traditional planning methods are being replaced in response to new demands.

To a considerable degree the traditional methods of planning were borrowed from work done in architects' offices, single function government agencies, or private corporations. These methods were well suited to the single site and the unitary setting, but they have not been as well suited to the complex and mercurial city. Traditional planning method was predicated on such factors as basic agreement on goals, ability to predict the future with precision, and centralized control over the resources needed to achieve the goals. Early city planning, of course, was privately supported and was under the control of respected community leaders who shared a common vision of the future of their city. In this consensus, environmental goals were implied rather than stated, since the leadership agreed and everyone else either did not care or did not have the power to be heard.

Today we plan in a different political and social environment. Decision-making processes are more open and more democratic. A more sophisticated citizenry wants to know what the city administration "plans" to do, and wants to be part of the plan-making process.

Traditional planning was essentially a technical exercise. Modern planning practice is both normative and technical, concerned with both ends and means. Normative planning develops the broad, general basis for action, whereas technical planning is concerned with specific, established purposes and the procedures employed in achieving those purposes. One is concerned with values, the other with methods.

An effective plan should deal equally with the normative and the technical, since a planning department has a dual role in the affairs of government. A planner should function in a middle zone between the politician (a normative planner) and the bureaucrat (a technical planner). The planner has special competence and training in both areas and his or her plans should reflect both.

The policies or goals that are contained in a plan may already exist in various

Local Govt Planning (1979)

forms or places within a community and may simply be brought together and organized. Or they may be the result of a long and sophisticated goal-setting process. In either case they must be sufficiently unified to express clear direction and purpose so that the citizen has little doubt as to what the community believes in and stands for.

Some will resist using a plan as a statement of policy. Elected officials may be reluctant to commit themselves too far into the future, preferring instead to keep their options open. Special interest groups may also see some danger in using the plan as an expression of policy. If the adopted policies are antithetical to their perceived interests they would prefer to have no plan at all. It should be kept in mind, however, that a good plan does not foreclose future decision making by prescribing the future in detail. The policies of the plan say, in effect, "When we encounter this situation we will probably act this way for these reasons." This approach has the advantage of stating a position in advance of heated controversy. To deviate from a policy in the plan will require an argument and a rationale as convincing as the one in the plan. Departing from the precepts of a plan should always be possible although not necessarily easy.

The advantages of reviewing the plan as an instrument of policy include the following:

1. The essential and uncluttered statements of policy facilitate public participation in and understanding of the planning process
2. A plan that is a statement of policy encourages or even demands involvement on the part of public officials
3. The plan as policy provides stability and a consistency in that it is less likely to be made obsolete by changing conditions
4. Finally, the plan is a guide to the legislative bodies responsible for adopting land use controls, the commissions or boards that administer them, and the courts which must judge their fairness and reasonableness.

The plan as a guide to decision making

If the first function of a plan is to express community goals and objectives, then the second is to serve as a guide to decision making. A plan needs to make a difference. Those who make decisions about the city need to take account of what the plan says.

The ways in which a plan can make a difference are many and complex. Sometimes the relationship between a plan and the community decision is clear, direct, and formal. At other times the relationship is ambiguous and indirect. And, unfortunately, there are too many cases in which the decisions are made without any reference to the plan. The most common way in which the plan is used as a guide to decision making is in the zoning process. Certainly, the enactment and amendment of a zoning ordinance should be guided by the contents of the plan. In addition, the week-to-week administration of the zoning process is best done through reference to the policies and principles set forth in a comprehensive plan. As will be indicated later in this chapter, this relationship between the plan and the zoning ordinance is being defined by law rather than by convention. Some state legislatures are requiring that the zoning ordinance be consistent with the city or county plan, and some courts are hesitant to uphold a land use control measure that is not supported by a plan.

Subdivision regulations, like the zoning ordinance, should also be designed and administered in accordance with the recommendations of a plan. In the same way, the official map is another tool of community development that is designed to reflect the goals set forth in the plan.

The capital improvements program and budget have traditionally been thought of as implementation devices that were guided by the contents of a plan.

The worth of the comprehensive plan

Ever since I was awarded a degree in city planning from a school that stressed, I thought, the worthiness of comprehensive, long-range physical planning for urban areas, I have heard that whole notion criticized. Repeatedly, I have heard the quality, content, usefulness, and effectiveness of the comprehensive plan challenged, as often as not by those who teach city planning. The critics say that the comprehensive plan is too vague, too subjective, too biased, too specific. It is elitist and divorced from the people, . . . full of end-state visions that are unrelated to the real issues of a dynamic world. . . .

There are certainly elements of truth in these assertions. But, in general, they coincide neither with my sense of reality nor with the centrality of the idea. Comprehensive plans have always been policy documents, even if they have not been read that way. They have become less and less end-state, static pictures of the future. They regularly deal with pressing current issues: housing, transportation, jobs, public services, open space, urban design. . . . Any planning efforts are remarkable in a society that could never be accused of having a bias toward city planning in the first place, a society that has tended to look at land and urban environments as little more than high-priced consumable commodities. And isn't it grand that plans are visionary! Why shouldn't a community have a view, a vision of what it wants to be, and then try to achieve it?

Source: Excerpted from Allan B. Jacobs, *Making City Planning Work* (Chicago: American Society of Planning Officials, 1978), p. 307.

Planning departments are frequently responsible for putting together the capital improvements program and setting priorities among the competing demands for a share of the capital budget.

A rather dramatic illustration of the plan as a guide to decision making as reflected in budgeting exists in Atlanta, Georgia. In 1974 a new city charter integrated the planning and budgeting process in a new department of budget and planning. The city's plan, known as the Comprehensive Development Plan, is the cornerstone of an elaborate and continuing process that relates the city's goals to its budgets. According to the 1974 charter amendment, the operating and capital budgets *must* be based on the Comprehensive Development Plan (CDP). Public hearings are required for both the Comprehensive Development Plan and the budgets, and the city council must formally adopt each of these each year. The introduction to the 1978 Comprehensive Development Plan states that the plan "is . . . mandated by the city charter and published annually for frequent use by citizens, city officials and organizations interested in the development and improvement of Atlanta."[20]

The Comprehensive Development Plan includes "plans" for one, five, and fifteen years in a program format. Summary information on current or proposed projects and programs to achieve those plans, and cost figures, are also included in the document. The major sections of the 1979 Atlanta CDP are as follows:

1. *Issues and General Goals* is a statement of the most important current issues, problems, and opportunities confronting the city of Atlanta. Citywide goals, which would establish what kind of city its people are attempting to build, are set forth in this section.
2. *Major Directions* indicates the focus of the Comprehensive Development Plan. The 1979 CDP identifies six major directions toward which city resources will be directed during 1979 and over the next five years.
3. *Development Policies* translates the CDP's Major Direction statements into recommended city policies for seven of the eight functional areas.
4. *Program Areas* lists recommended programs and projects, by functional

area and by goal, objective, and action. The one, five, and fifteen year funding priority and Neighborhood Planning Unit (NPU) location of each action are also indicated.

5. *Official Maps* are included. There are two kinds of maps: those that are citywide, which include narrative notations drawing from the material in the main body of the document; and those that cover a single Neighborhood Planning Unit and show proposed land use patterns, together with one and five year actions for the NPU.

Few, if any, cities are as advanced in this process as is Atlanta, but Atlanta's experience is indicative of a trend, a trend toward making the plan a significant document that will be used to guide the many decisions controlling city development. It is clear that by integrating planning and budgeting, and by requiring that no budget be adopted without reference to an adopted city plan, a city plan takes on major significance in Atlanta. In short, it does indeed function as a guide to decision making.

A city plan can and should be used to guide or influence a variety of decisions. Allan Jacobs illustrates the importance of the plan as he reviews his experiences as the former planning director of the city of San Francisco:

As time passed and with a growing and more solidly based set of plans to rely upon, individual short-range proposals . . . could be viewed in the light of long-range

---

How to use development plans The good planning agency does not keep its plans on dusty shelves but uses plans in day-to-day decision making. This example shows how planning agencies use plans.

Let us say that a private developer wants to build a 150 acre development that is predominantly residential (135 acres) and partly commercial (15 acres). Let us assume that a mixture of housing types —single family homes, rental apartments, and condominium apartments— is proposed. How does the planning agency use plans in reviewing such a development?

The agency would first check the land use plan to determine whether the general area is designated residential, then examine the proposed densities to see how well they fit with the plan's proposals and projections. The planning staff would also check to determine any physiographic characteristics—soil conditions, stream profiles, and important stands of trees—to see the environmental constraints that will influence site planning. The staff will also determine the land use plan policies concerning the amount and location of commercial space in the center of the community.

On the basis of the land uses and anticipated population to be served, the staff will, in turn, check other plans for sanitary sewers, storm runoff, major and minor streets, and public facilities to determine how well the proposed development "fits into" the community's plans. For example, the parks and recreation plan may call for a neighborhood park site within this general area. Or the school plan may have identified the area as being served by an existing school; therefore, no additional school facilities are anticipated. The staff will also examine the capital improvements program to determine how public facilities that are or are not programmed in the future will serve the new development.

There will be times when the development raises major policy issues not covered by general plans. Perhaps the plan is out-of-date, or perhaps it was not detailed enough to make a judgment. In these cases planning staffs will carry out supplemental studies that amplify or update a plan element.

Finally, the planning staff will prepare a staff report that will be presented to various decision makers in government, such as the planning commission, the mayor, the city manager, and the city council.

---

considerations. . . . We could review the location of a subsidized housing development in the context of the housing plan element. We could measure a neighborhood re-zoning proposal against the housing and urban design elements. When a piece of public land was to be sold or leased, we could check it against a policy of the plan, as we could the vacation or widening of a street. We could relate a small renewal project in Chinatown to both the city-wide and neighborhood plans that we had prepared and we could advocate such a project. City planning was especially pleasing when the projects and programs were clearly the outcome of our plans. We were exhilarated when all our research, meetings, presentations, reconsiderations, confrontations and responses to demands led to concrete actions, or even when all we knew was that the ideas had a fighting chance of becoming reality.[21]

Jacobs goes on to say that the functions of coordination, zoning administration, subdivision regulation, design review, and the design of renewal and redevelopment projects are extremely important activities; but all require some framework within which to function and make recommendations.

That framework is the general or master plan. Without it, city planners have a much harder time explaining why their ideas and their proposals are preferable to anyone else's. There were times when I might have argued otherwise, most notably in the early San Francisco months when I was impatient to get on with the action, to respond to the burning issues. . . . Taking the time to decide what we want our communities to be and then acting to achieve those goals seemed more and more worthwhile in San Francisco as time passed. It was a route that proved more practical as well.[22]

Most often a plan is used to guide the decisions of the planning department itself, the planning commission, the city council, and the mayor or manager. However, there are others who use the plan as a guide. Other departments of city government, for example, might have need for the guidance offered by a plan. A fire department might use it in designing its service areas. And state government and metropolitan planning commissions may have occasion to use the plan. What is perhaps most important is that a well-designed plan should influence the decisions of the private sector. Builders, land developers, and businesses can learn of the city's intentions as indicated by the plan and be guided accordingly.

Obviously, a plan that is used to guide decision making must be well prepared. It must be specific, must outline clear programs and priorities, and must avoid the trap of vague generalities.

The plan as a legal document

Increasingly, cities are preparing plans because they have to, not necessarily because they want to. This is a fairly recent phenomenon that has resulted from states mandating their local governments to plan, or courts insisting that some form of planning document be presented as the basis for land use controls.

This trend toward the required plan gained considerable momentum during the decade of the 1970s and promises to have a profound and lasting effect on our views of planning and plans. The trend reflects, more than anything else, a coming of age of planning and a recognition that a plan can and should really mean something. It reflects a change in attitudes toward the plan. The plan is no longer a formality, to be prepared and forgotten. It is rapidly becoming a requirement—and one that must contain certain elements; it is becoming a requirement that has for all practical purposes the force of law, or a requirement that must be fulfilled if the city is to receive federal or state funds or other benefits.

This trend appears to result primarily from a shifting attitude on the part of the courts as they review land use regulations. The Standard State Zoning Enabling

Act of the 1920s stated that zoning "shall be in accordance with a comprehensive plan." For decades this language has been the subject of intensive debate, but for decades the courts rendered their opinions on zoning matters without requiring that a city have a plan, or requiring the zoning to be consistent with a plan if there should be one.

This judicial attitude was not surprising considering the rather static nature of the early zoning practice. It was in those days assumed that a city would prepare a zoning map which outlined areas of residential, commercial, or industrial use and that any amendments to or variances from the zoning map would be few and far between. Property owners needed only to look at the map and the zoning text to determine what they could or could not do with their property. In short, the zoning map and text became the plan and the courts needed to look no further to determine what the city wanted.

Two major changes have occurred in land use control practices which have eroded the willingness of the courts to accept a zoning ordinance without reference to a city plan. The first change was the increasing use of flexible land use controls. Cities are no longer willing to specify in advance where everything will be or what it will look like. They have adopted a "wait and see" attitude toward development by using such devices as floating zones, planned unit developments, large lot zoning, special use permits, and wholesale amendments or variances. Property owners can no longer know in advance exactly what they can do with their property. They expect to go before the city authorities and negotiate an agreement.

This trend toward negotiated agreements is in part a result of an appreciation of our inability to predict the future. It seemed that no matter how carefully a city would prepare its zoning ordinance something unanticipated would happen to make it inappropriate or out-of-date. The other reason for negotiated agreements was that cities wanted to be able to attract the right kind of use and prohibit the wrong kind. The flexible controls allowed them to say yes to electronics factories, and stately homes on two acre lots, and no to smelting plants and low income apartment buildings. While this may have suited a city's need to control its own destiny, the courts began to doubt the fundamental fairness of the system. The zoning ordinance was no longer prescriptive on its face but was merely a set of procedures one had to go through to find out what might be done with one's property. It was a system that could be subject to abuse.

The second change in land use control practice has been the increasing adoption of growth management programs. Traditionally, planning and land use control systems have been concerned with the location and character of growth. In the 1970s planners added a third dimension: timing. It was no longer assumed that all growth was good. Growth had its negative consequences and some cities went so far as to adopt a no growth policy. Most, however, were satisfied to control the rate of growth (for example, x number of housing units per year).

Again, the courts have begun to say that if a city wants to control the rate of growth it will have to show some evidence of a coordinated approach in order to avoid charges of arbitrary and capricious enforcement. In short, they would like to see a plan.

When vast acres of land were zoned for all manner of uses far in advance of need, it did not matter that much whether there was a plan. Now that land use control has become a finely tuned flexible tool for controlling the most minute detail of development, including timing, a plan has become increasingly more important.

One of the best-known cases in which the judiciary has recognized a plan as a valid defense of a local growth program is *Golden* v. *Planning Board of the Township of Ramapo*.[23] Ramapo Township amended its zoning ordinance to implement a permit system for all new residential development. A permit would be granted only if the development were adequately served by public facilities; ad-

equacy was determined by a point system based on the proximity of the development to available services such as sewage treatment or water supply. In upholding the timing control system, the court relied heavily on the fact that the challenged ordinance was implementing a well-designed general plan for the community. In the absence of the plan, it is unlikely the court would have ruled in favor of the township.

Two Oregon cases further illustrate the judicial interest in the plan. In *Fasano* v. *Board of County Commissioners* the Oregon Supreme Court rejected the notion that amendments to the zoning ordinance are legislative and instead determined that they were quasi-judicial, thus completely shifting the presumption of validity usually applied to all legislative acts. The court's opinion placed heavy weight on the comprehensive plan as a justification for zoning amendments, and noted that "the more drastic the change, the greater will be the burden of showing that it is in conformance with the comprehensive plan as implemented by the ordinance."[24]

In *Baker* v. *City of Milwaukie* the Oregon Supreme Court unequivocally gave the city plan a central role in local zoning:

> We conclude that a comprehensive plan is the controlling land use planning instrument for a city. Upon passage of a comprehensive plan, a city assumes a responsibility to effectuate that plan and conform prior conflicting zoning ordinances to it. We further hold that the zoning decisions of a city must be in accord with that plan.[25]

The issues that are being raised in the courts concerning the status of the city plan are also being debated in state capitols. A number of states have begun to *require* local governments to prepare plans, or *require* zoning and other land use control measures to be consistent with local plans, or both. State legislatures are being pushed and pulled into this posture. They are being pushed by the courts and pulled by their own desire to gain greater control over the development process.

California was one of the first states to enact legislation requiring local governments to adopt a plan. California also requires local zoning to be consistent with the adopted plan. The Florida Local Government Comprehensive Planning Act of 1975 mandates planning by counties, municipalities, and special districts. It further requires that all land development regulations enacted or amended be consistent with these comprehensive plans. Kentucky, Nebraska, Colorado, and Oregon also have some form of mandatory planning or "consistency" requirements.

Not everyone agrees with this movement to require cities to plan. Some argue that the only meaningful plan is one that is generated from local needs and desires, not one imposed by some higher level of government. The debate on this issue will doubtless continue, but it is probable that the decade of the 1980s will see the plan emerge as an "impermanent constitution," a term coined a quarter of a century ago by Charles M. Haar. Haar argued as follows in 1955:

> If the plan is regarded not as the vestpocket tool of the planning commission, but as a broad statement to be adopted by the most representative municipal body—the local legislature—then the plan becomes a law through such adoption. A unique type of law, it should be noted, in that it purports to bind future legislatures when they enact implementary materials.[26]

The implications of the mandated plan and the rulings that the control of land use be consistent with the plan are far-reaching. The plan ceases to be an exercise in platitudes. It must do more than be for motherhood and against sin. It must be carefully and accurately crafted, for it will have the force of law. This is not to suggest that the traditional functions of a plan, those of education, information, persuasion, and coordination, are lost. On the contrary, these functions

will always be a central purpose of the plan. However, as the status of the plan changes increasingly toward that of the impermanent constitution, it will become more important, it will be taken more seriously, and it will have a greater effect on people's lives.

Preparing a city plan

Who initiates?

The development of a local city plan is most often initiated by the local public authority—the city council, mayor, city plan commission, city manager, or city planner (not necessarily in that order). The reason for undertaking the plan *in theory,* and perhaps in best practice, is local concern over the future orderly growth and development of the city. Concern may stem from lagging growth, burgeoning growth, or stagnation.

In fact, federal and state requirements for and funding of comprehensive plans may be the most important motivating force for undertaking a plan. Federal requirements for comprehensive plans have varied over the years, but some coordinative plan has been a requirement for federal city development monies, and federal monies have been available in greater and lesser amounts to pay for plans.

We have already discussed the trend in state enabling legislation to require plans for cities. While there is increasing national concern about rational use of land and protection of farmland and natural resources (such as coastal zones), there is a continuing political pressure to maintain the "local" nature of land use decisions. The result is state planning efforts that delegate comprehensive planning responsibility to local municipalities. One of many examples is the coastal zone planning program in Oregon, where coastal cities were required to prepare master plans that included provisions for use of the coastal area. Massachusetts has recently proposed growth policy requirements for localities that tie local and regional growth plans to statewide capital investment programming.

It is important to note that there is also a long American tradition of initiation of comprehensive planning efforts by concerned citizens as well as public servants. The Burnham plan is the best-known historical example. There are many recent instances. For example, in Rockport, Massachusetts, a comprehensive plan was undertaken by a group called Citizens for Rockport who "met . . . to map out plans for documenting the consequence of rapid and unplanned growth, to design more effective recommendations for shaping new development and to involve as many people as possible in the formulation of an overall growth strategy for the town of Rockport, Massachusetts."[27]

There may be a combination of public and private effort, such as the startlingly determined new growth plan for La Jolla, California. This is a joint effort of a nonprofit corporation of La Jolla citizens (La Jollans, Inc.) and the city of San Diego.[28]

The initiation of a comprehensive planning effort in response to public concern over the future of the municipality is, in many ways, the ideal circumstance for the undertaking. One of the aims of the planning effort is to generate widespread discussion of the future development of the municipality. As many planners have discovered, it is often difficult to gain the attention of any but a few of the public. This is particularly true of plans generated by a planning department or commission simply in response to federal or state requirements.

Who directs the work?
And who else should be involved?

While a comprehensive planning effort may be financed and directed wholly outside the public sector, this is the exception and not the rule. The majority of

Local Planning (2009)

Plans that fit the purpose

Barry Miller

Urban plans address a vast array of topics, have extraordinarily diverse intentions, and cover geographic areas that range from a single parcel to an entire metropolis. Their common trait is that they guide change through a coordinated set of deliberate actions. They lead us from the way things are today to the way we'd like things to be in the future, while taking into consideration all the uncertainties that the future holds.

For the purposes of this article, the word *plan* refers to the printed or digital prescriptions or representations that urban and regional planners use to shape the built and natural environments. Over the past century, and especially since the 1960s, the range of such plans has expanded as the challenges of managing cities, towns, and natural resources have become more complex.

Most plans share a few common elements. For instance, they typically

- Require some assessment of existing conditions ("where we are"), trends ("where we're headed"), and goals ("where we'd like to be")
- Reconcile individual needs with broader community needs
- Require trade-offs to achieve goals
- Result in a commitment of resources, such as capital dollars or staff time
- Are vetted through a public process, from a single public hearing to an elaborate series of community workshops
- Result in a tangible work product—usually a document or map—that sets a course for decision makers to follow
- Are adopted or endorsed by an elected body (such as a city council), an appointed body (such as a planning commission), or a stakeholder organization (such as a board of directors).

Beyond these shared qualities, plans differ in scope, format, structure, scale, intent, time horizon, level of detail, and legal status (see Table 5-1). There are also significant regional differences: in many cases, state laws preempt the question of which plan best "fits the purpose."

Finding the right fit

The following factors influence the type of plan used in a given setting:

- *Desired outcome.* The desired outcome is what the plan is supposed to accomplish.
- *Size and complexity of the geographic area covered.* Larger geographic areas tend to require less prescriptive and more flexible plans than smaller geographic areas.
- *Time horizon.* Plans with shorter horizons tend to be more detailed and task-oriented than those with more distant horizons.
- *Regulatory parameters.* Many states have legal statutes that prescribe the contents of a plan or require particular planning tools to be used in specific situations.
- *Local planning context.* As noted in Chapter 2, the local planning context is determined by a range of factors, including cultural norms, local politics, the state of the economy (including the real estate market), and the natural environment.
- *Resources.* Plans must reflect the financial and staffing resources of the jurisdiction or entity doing the planning.
- *Audience.* Plans should be designed and written for the people who will ultimately use them. Characteristics such as writing style, layout, length, and the balance between text and graphics should all vary with the audience.

Table 5-1 Plan types and characteristics

	Characteristics					
Plan type	**Geography**	**Time horizon**	**Preparation time**	**Level of detail**	**Legal status**	**Essential content**
Vision	Varies	20 to 50 years	6 months to 1 year	Low	Advisory	Motivational "big" ideas, design concepts, renderings
Framework plans	State or region	20+ years	1 to 2 years	Low	Advisory	Broad goals and policies
Comprehensive plans	Municipality or county	10 to 25 years	2 to 3 years	Moderate	Regulatory, though general in intent	Topical elements that include goals, policies, actions, and maps
System plans	Municipality or county	5 to 20 years	1 to 2 years	High	Advisory or regulatory	Needs assessment data, design and standards guidelines, operating policies, list of capital projects
Area plans (including neighborhood plans)	Sub-area	5 to 10 years	6 months to 1 year	High	Advisory	Place-based recommendations and guidelines
Downtown plans, waterfront plans, corridor plans	Sub-area	10 to 20 years	1 to 2 years	High	Advisory	Place-based recommendations and development strategies
Reuse plans for large sites	Site	20 to 50 years	2 to 3 years	Very high	Advisory	Site plan, reuse and impact mitigation strategies
Specific plans and redevelopment plans	Sub-area	10 to 20 years	1 to 2 years	Very high	Regulatory	Development standards, financing plan
Strategic plans	Municipality or county	4 to 6 years	3 months to 1 year	Moderate	Advisory	Program recommendations
Capital improvement plans	Municipality or county	4 to 6 years	3 to 6 months	Very high	Regulatory	Project lists, evaluation criteria, budget, financial data
Private sector or institutional plans	Site	5 to 15 years	1 to 2 years	High	Advisory or regulatory	Site plan, systems plans, impact mitigation strategies
Land development plans	Site	5 years	3+ months	High	Advisory (until codified)	Site plan, infrastructure details

Note: This table reflects common practice; the characteristics of plans from particular communities may differ from those shown here.

A similar set of factors must be addressed when designing the planning *process*—particularly when it comes to determining the level and type of public involvement. Public input can substantially improve the quality of decision making, build trust between planners and the communities they represent, and ensure that plans are responsive to local concerns. Plans that proceed without public trust may be perceived as arrogant, out of

Creating the technical foundation for planning

Every plan, regardless of scope, should be grounded in data: good plans take stock of existing conditions, analyze trends, develop projections for the future, and test the impacts of decisions and choices on the community. These tasks require a variety of quantitative methods and mapping techniques, ranging from simple windshield surveys to elaborate geographic information system analyses and scenario testing. The collection and analysis of spatial and socioeconomic data are important functions of most large planning offices and are typically accomplished through long-range- or strategic-planning divisions. To provide the rationale for local policies and programs, these divisions undertake land suitability analyses, demographic studies, and environmental impact reviews; they also inventory vacant land and track development activity. In the absence of quantifiable data, the public may view plans as little more than wish lists.

touch, or undemocratic. On the other hand, plans that strive for complete agreement run the risk of getting watered down or being rendered meaningless. The challenge for every planner is to find the right balance between "top-down" principles and "bottom-up" input.

The family of plans

Prior to 1900, most city plans were two-dimensional drawings showing the locations of streets, parks, and public buildings (see "From Town to Metropolis" in Chapter 1). Over the course of the twentieth century, these plans evolved in several important ways. Hybrid plans emerged that recognized social, economic, and environmental factors as integral parts of land use and physical design. Policy plans were created, supplementing maps and illustrations with narrative policies to guide daily decisions. Regulatory plans were developed to provide a legal foundation for controlling land use and development. And strategic plans, which are action-oriented and short term in focus, were widely adopted. Today's comprehensive plans incorporate all four of these approaches to varying degrees. The accompanying sidebar uses the metaphor of a tree to explain the origins and evolution of the modern comprehensive plan.

The planning "family tree"

In a 1995 article in the *Journal of the American Planning Association*, Edward Kaiser and David Godschalk use the analogy of a tree—with multiple trunks—to chronicle the evolution of the comprehensive plan.[1] The trunks correspond to

- Land use design plans, which are prescriptive and map-focused
- Land classification plans, which are more conceptual and oriented toward urban form
- Verbal policy plans, which are narrative and less spatially oriented
- Development management plans, which are regulatory and focused on growth management and short-range actions.

Kaiser and Godschalk describe the modern comprehensive plan as the canopy of this tree; in essence, it is a hybrid that incorporates attributes of each plan type. They also note that in most jurisdictions, the comprehensive plan is just one aspect of a dynamic, long-range planning program that includes the capital improvement program, land use controls, small-area plans, and functional (or system) plans.

1 Edward J. Kaiser and David R. Godschalk, "Twentieth Century Land Use Planning: A Stalwart Family Tree," *Journal of the American Planning Association* 61 (Summer 1995): 365–385.

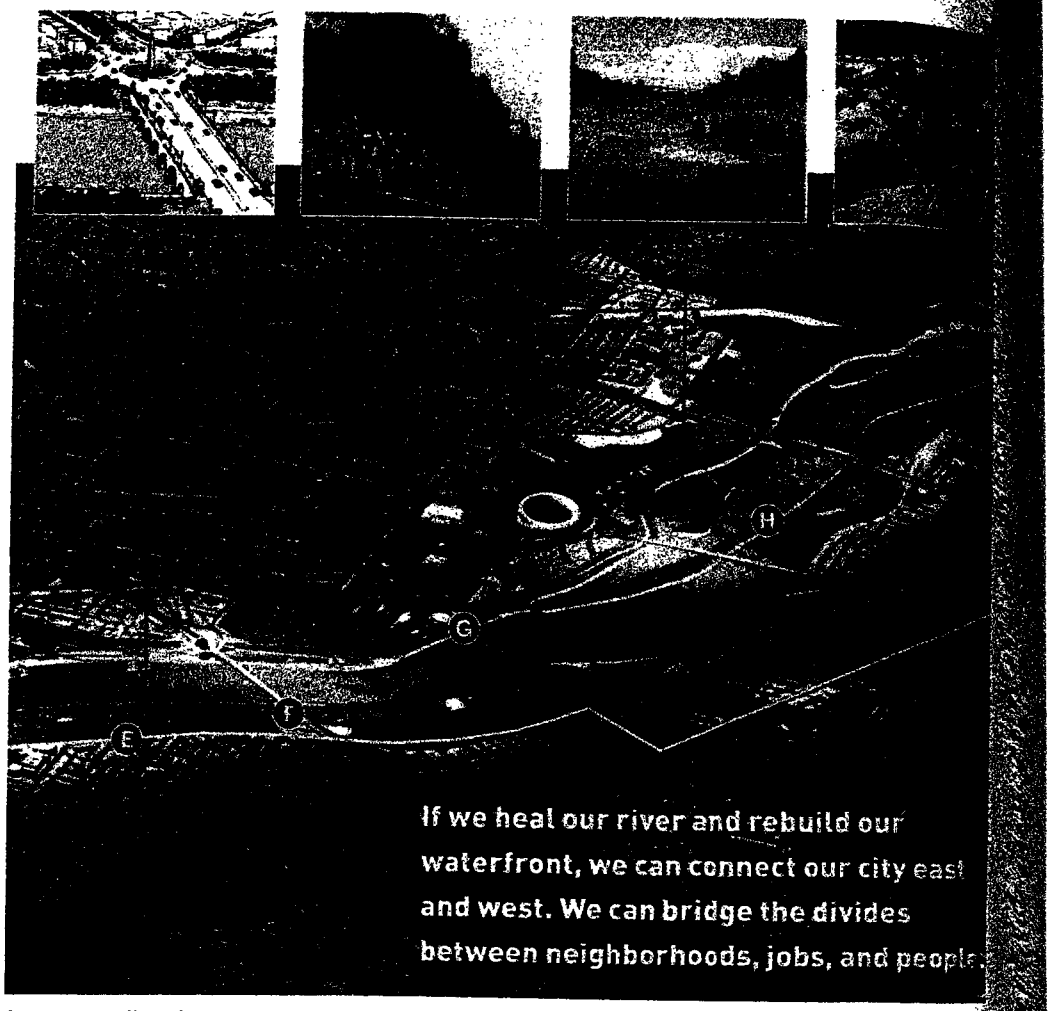


Figure 5-1 Washington, D.C.'s *Vision for Growing an Inclusive City* (2004) combines renderings, photos, site plans, and aspirational text challenging residents to visualize a new future for the city.

Source: D.C. Office of Planning

A model based on family relationships is useful for understanding the connections between plans. State and regional plans, visions, and other broad policy documents are the grandparents, providing the conceptual framework and wisdom (and sometimes the requirements) that underpin the comprehensive plan. The comprehensive plan is the parent, providing jurisdiction-wide land use maps and a policy and action framework for an ever-expanding array of topics. A host of siblings—system plans—address topics such as parks, transportation, housing, and resource management. Area plans, neighborhood plans, and other plans covering subcomponents of the jurisdiction are the children. Figure 5-1, an excerpt from Washington, D.C.'s comprehensive plan update, *A Vision for Growing an Inclusive City,* uses the "family" metaphor to show the relationship among urban plans.[1]

Laying the foundation through visioning

Visioning is planning at its boldest. As Lewis Hopkins has explained, "A vision is an image of what could be. Visions compel action. Visions work by changing beliefs about how the world works."[2] Visioning provides a tool for identifying and articulating what matters most to a community. It is a good way to establish a sense of direction, define shared values, and pinpoint desired outcomes before proceeding too far down a particular path. It also provides an opportunity to identify issues that will require greater focus later on. Vision plans allow creative, "outside the box" think-

ing that may be missing from the more measured, analytic, and rigorously structured comprehensive planning process.

In some respects, today's vision plans are a throwback to the City Beautiful plans of a century ago. They are highly visual and may be accompanied by elaborate renderings and maps. They often have a strong physical emphasis, and may depict desired development patterns in illustrative form. Vision plans are seldom implemented directly; instead, they provide the foundation for more detailed planning.

Vision plans typically have long time horizons and are less focused on constraints than other types of plans. A vision might feature watercolor renderings of a magnificent new waterfront park, or it might describe a day in the life of a resident in a new community built on the site of an abandoned factory. However, such plans probably would not address in any detail the logistics of obtaining easements from waterfront property owners, the plan for financing the new park, or the program for cleaning up hazardous materials on the factory site. The intent of the vision is simply to show a possible future and gain general agreement about a concept before proceeding to the details.

Visioning provides a tool for identifying and articulating what matters most to a community.

Not all visions focus on reshaping the physical environment. A vision may be a statement of a community's values or an expression of an ideal future. Washington, D.C.'s *Vision for Growing an Inclusive City,* for example, identifies the social and economic challenges facing the District of Columbia and describes a future in which these challenges have been resolved through thoughtful, effective planning. Such products are not really *plans* per se, but they do articulate the values of a community and define the priority issues to be addressed in the future. *Getting there* is a subject for another day.

A vision can be an effective way to generate widespread interest in the planning process. Visions are short; they often take the form of stories; and they are designed to capture the attention and imagination of citizens and other stakeholders. Their tone is engaging and emotional. They can spark the dialogue needed to create effective and responsive policies in the detailed planning efforts that follow.

Framework plans

A framework plan presents guiding policies for a large geographic area such as a state or a region. Such plans may cover thousands of square miles and typically emphasize broad issues and principles—such as environmental quality, farmland preservation, and transportation—rather than specific actions. The vast geographic scope of these plans necessitates this approach. The best examples of framework plans are the many state and regional policy plans that have been prepared to promote smart growth across the country.

The advantage of framework plans is their ability to address issues that span jurisdictional lines. An individual town or city may find it difficult to assess problems like water pollution and traffic congestion, but a regional council of governments can analyze an entire watershed or transportation network. Similarly, a state can provide overarching policy direction on issues such as historic preservation, coastal management, and habitat management more effectively than can a village or small city. As they prepare comprehensive plans, local governments may look to state and regional plans for guidance to ensure that place-specific policies also reflect a state or regional perspective.

Comprehensive plans

Municipalities and counties use comprehensive plans (which are also called general plans or master plans) to manage physical development, typically over a ten- to twenty-five-year time horizon. The word *comprehensive* applies to both geography and subject matter: a comprehensive plan covers an entire municipality or county, not just a part of it, and it addresses all issues that touch the physical environment. Although its main focus is land use, the plan also addresses transportation, housing, natural resources, community facilities, and other topics. With the recognition of the strong relationship between the physical environment and social and economic conditions, the scope of comprehensive plans has expanded to include issues such as public health, culture and the arts, and sustainability.

Preparing a comprehensive plan usually takes at least two to three years and often requires two years or more. The process begins with an assessment of issues and the development of broad goals for the community's future. This is followed by an inventory of existing conditions, which involves data collection, the preparation of maps, and consultation with major stakeholders. On the basis of the data and identified trends, various scenarios for the community's future may be developed. A public vetting process is used to select the alternative that best fits the community's goals. Plan policies and maps are then drafted, and the document is put forward for public review and adoption.

Content of comprehensive plans

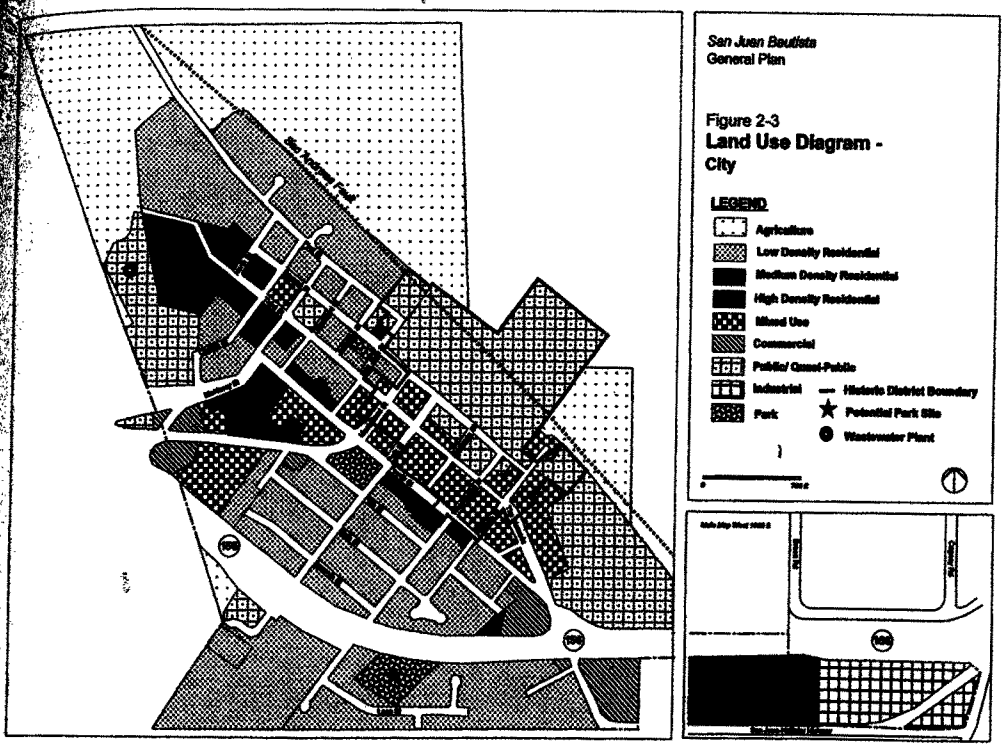
Most comprehensive plans are organized by topic into a series of chapters called *elements*. The core elements address land use, transportation, housing, and environmental resources. Plan elements may also cover natural hazards, parks and recreation, open space, infrastructure, community facilities, historic preservation, urban design, and other topics relating to the community's physical setting. In some cases, issues such as governance and intergovernmental coordination are addressed. There is also a growing trend toward including "implementation" chapters in comprehensive plans to highlight the administrative, regulatory, programmatic, and financial measures necessary to carry out the plan.

Each plan element usually includes narrative text that describes existing conditions, trends, issues, and recommendations. The text is accompanied by some combi-

Essential qualities of a comprehensive plan

In addition to broad geographic coverage, comprehensive plans share the following characteristics:

- **Generality.** Comprehensive plans are broad policy documents designed to provide general direction. They should not include small details about individual properties or address operational issues such as street sweeping or sidewalk repair.
- **Internal consistency.** The policies, actions, and diagrams in a comprehensive plan should be internally consistent. For example, if a plan includes policies to produce affordable housing, its land use policies and maps should identify locations where such housing can be built.
- **Long-term perspective.** Most states require local comprehensive plans to take a long-term perspective, which usually translates into about twenty years. The plan's horizon does not mark the "end" of the plan as much as it provides a set of objectives to guide day-to-day decisions.
- **Legality.** Comprehensive plans are often adopted as law by local governments. Once a plan is adopted, all local government land use decisions should be consistent with it.



Source: Barry Miller

Figure 5-2 Graphic patterns in the comprehensive plan future land use map for San Juan Bautista, a city of about 2,000 people in Central California, are used to show allowable land uses in different parts of the city.

nation of goals, objectives, policies, actions, and standards that are intended to guide day-to-day decisions by elected officials and local government staff. Maps may be used to convey information visually, and data tables may be included for reference.

Most comprehensive plans include a future land use map in which different colors or patterns represent the types of land uses envisioned for the community by the horizon year. The map may also show the general location of public improvements such as roads, parks, and schools. Such maps—often presented in a large-scale, poster-sized format—provide a graphic interpretation of the plan's recommendations and offer a compelling visual image of how the community intends to grow. More than any other part of a plan, the future land use map provides a tool to help residents grasp the significance of the plan to their community, neighborhood, and home. The map is especially critical to plan implementation: it provides the benchmark for evaluating proposed development and serves as the foundation for the local zoning map.

Adapting the plan to the community

Even where state requirements dictate what a plan must address, both the approach to planning and the plan itself should reflect the size of the community, its anticipated growth rate, its physical setting and character, its ability to annex land, the values of its residents, and other factors that create the context for land use decisions. Table 5–2 on page 220 identifies the typical array of issues that are likely to be addressed in comprehensive plans, depending on the community setting.

The contents of comprehensive plans also reflect regional differences—in political beliefs, social customs, growth rates, real estate dynamics, planning laws, and especially natural hazards. In California, for example, local general plans must include a safety element addressing earthquakes, wildfires, and landslides; Florida requires its coastal communities to develop coastal management elements that include policies on hurricane evacuation, beach erosion, and shoreline access.

Historically, states with a strong tradition of self-reliance and self-determination have had less stringent planning requirements than those with a reputation for social advocacy and progressive politics. But it would be oversimplifying to assume that

Table 5-2 Typical issues addressed in a comprehensive plan

Setting	Land use pattern	Issues
Central city	Stable to evolving	Downtown revitalization, neighborhood improvement, economic development, housing affordability, social equity, urban "greening," reuse of catalytic sites, historic preservation
Inner-ring suburb	Stable	Renewal of older commercial corridors, conservation of aging postwar housing stock, strengthening of community identity, changing demographics, sustainability
Outer-ring suburb	Evolving	Growth management, location of schools and parks, improvement of infrastructure to keep pace with development, preservation of open space, community character
Small towns/rural communities	Stable to evolving	Agriculture, management of resource-based industries, economic development (including small-business growth), tourism, community character, growth management, housing
Urban and suburban counties	Evolving	Intergovernmental coordination, transportation management, smart growth, preservation of open space, service delivery
Rural counties	Stable to evolving	Economic development, resource production, hazard mitigation, tourism, agriculture, conservation

comprehensive planning requirements are determined primarily by a state's general political leanings. Since the 1990s, such states as Tennessee and Georgia have begun requiring local comprehensive plans, while others, such as Arizona and Utah, have moved to increase the power of local comprehensive plans as a tool for shaping growth.[3]

New approaches

The essential form of the comprehensive plan, particularly its organization into topic-based elements, has persisted since the 1950s. While this structure is logical and predictable, it does have drawbacks. For one thing, as new elements have been added, plans have become unwieldy: in some communities, plans may include entire elements devoted to topics such as agriculture, educational facilities, geothermal energy, local tourism, and even the siting of electric transmission lines. The inclusion of sub-area plans within the comprehensive plan has had a similar effect, turning many plans into multivolume documents. As comprehensive plans have become longer (some are more than 1,000 pages), their basic purpose—which is to provide a *general* framework for future growth—has become obscured.

The element-based format has also been criticized for having a "silo" effect—that is, for yielding plans that treat topics in parallel, without recognizing the crosscutting, integrated nature of urban and regional issues. Lack of integration is a particular risk for land use and transportation, which are typically treated in separate elements of a comprehensive plan. Emerging issues such as climate change, sustainability, and environmental justice may also be difficult to address in the context of an element-based plan. Some communities have tackled this challenge by creating "super-elements" that span multiple topics. Others have reinvented their plans entirely, grouping plan elements around larger themes: Baltimore's comprehensive plan, for example, is organized into chapters titled "Live," "Work," "Play," and "Learn."

New approaches to the content of comprehensive plans also are being explored. In response to criticism that comprehensive plans are too vague, some jurisdictions have introduced objective benchmarks and performance standards. For example, the state of Florida requires local comprehensive plans to include concurrency requirements to ensure that infrastructure and services are in place as new development

comes on line. A growing number of plans include standards such as fire-response time, park acreage per capita, and number of affordable-housing units to be produced over a given time period. Such standards make it possible to evaluate plan implementation, allow for corrective measures in the event that targets are not being achieved, and provide a clear basis for regulatory controls.

System plans

Communities are made up of natural systems, such as watersheds and air basins, and man-made systems, such as utilities, highways, transit systems, and park networks. Comprehensive plans provide general direction for these systems, but cannot—and should not—address each topic in detail: that is the function of system plans. System plans may be specifically called for by the comprehensive plan, may be required to obtain a grant or public funding, or may be ad hoc—designed to respond to a particular issue and prepared at the request of elected officials. They typically contain background data, analyses of needs and opportunities, and action programs. Although they may include policies, system plans are more likely to focus on design and siting issues, operations, management, and capital projects.

The concept of systems planning has expanded to include dozens of issues addressed by the comprehensive plan. Today, cities have public arts plans, pedestrian safety plans, child care facility plans, historic preservation plans, street tree plans, and more. In many large planning departments, the preparation of system plans is the principal activity of the long-range planning division during the years between comprehensive plan updates.

Area plans

For all the benefits that comprehensive plans and system plans provide, they usually cannot provide place-specific prescriptions for each neighborhood, business district, or corridor in a community. In large cities with diverse neighborhoods, a citywide plan may be too general to strike a chord with residents and businesses. The same could be said of countywide plans that cover dozens of small, unincorporated communities. Plan users will search the document for references to their neighborhoods or townships, but will instead find only general statements about the city or county. Area plans—also known as district plans, small-area plans, or sector plans—refine the comprehensive plan and establish policies that are grounded by geography and the issues that are unique to smaller sub-areas.

The process of preparing an area plan is similar to that of preparing a comprehensive plan: issues are identified, data are collected and analyzed, alternatives are evaluated, policies and maps are developed, and a plan is created. This process can be a highly effective way to address localized land use and design conflicts and to engage people who might not participate in a citywide or countywide planning process. However, the immediacy and small scale of area planning can also lead to a loss of objectivity and to a myopic perspective on what is best for the wider community. It is therefore important when developing area plans to help stakeholders keep the broader context in mind.

Neighborhood plans

Neighborhood plans are among the most common type of area plan. The neighborhood provides a geographic scale that almost everyone can relate to, and it evokes a sense of ownership that is conducive to public involvement. In fact, many larger planning departments have neighborhood planning divisions charged with preparing and implementing plans for areas ranging in size from a few blocks to several square miles. The neighborhood plan can become a tool for resolving neighborhood land use conflicts, reinforcing neighborhood identity, and empowering the community.

OSU-Related Comprehensive Plan Findings and Policies (1998 Comprehensive Plan)

Article 3. Land Use Guidelines

3.2 General Land Use

Findings

3.2.c Continued cooperation among Corvallis, Benton County, Linn County, and Oregon State University is important in the review of development. This should help to ensure compatibility between uses on private and public lands.

3.2.i Land within the Urban Fringe contains large contiguous Oregon State University agricultural and forestry land areas. The ability of these areas in support of instruction / research and extension activities requires that these large areas must be maintained free from division into small land parcels.

Article 5. Urban Amenities

5.2 Community Character

Findings

5.2.c Natural features, such as rivers, streams, and hills, or manmade features, such as highways, major streets, and activity centers (downtown and Oregon State University), act as either boundaries or as internal features for several distinct neighborhoods within the Corvallis Urban Growth Boundary.

5.4 Historic and Cultural Resources

Findings

5.4.a There are a number of inventories of buildings with historic significance located within the Corvallis Urban Growth Boundary, including those developed by the State Historic Preservation Office and the State Board of Higher Education. As of 1998, 375 inventories of historic sites and structures had been conducted in Corvallis. They identify the 26 Corvallis structures on the National Historic Register, 12 structures on the

Oregon State University campus, and many other buildings as having historic significance. In 1989, the City created the Corvallis Register of Historic Landmarks and Districts which contains 85 properties. The City will be adding properties to this listing on an ongoing basis.

5.4.b Structures of historical significance in Corvallis include: commercial buildings generally found within the central business district core; residences located throughout older neighborhoods; industrial and religious buildings; and public buildings generally located on the Oregon State University campus and downtown.

5.4.g The region's cultural needs are served by Oregon State University, Linn - Benton Community College, the Corvallis Arts Center, Corvallis School District 509J, the Majestic Theater, the City of Corvallis, and other cultural groups. There is currently no designated "agency or organization" to coordinate cultural events and activities in Corvallis.

Policies

5.4.8 The first priority for historic inventory and preservation work shall be older neighborhoods, especially those bordering the downtown and the Oregon State University campus.

5.6 Parks and Recreation

Policies

5.6.6 The City shall continue to use cooperative agreements with the Corvallis School District 509J, Benton and Linn Counties, Linn - Benton Community College, Oregon State University, and other leisure service providers to ensure that adequate recreation and open space lands and facilities will be provided.

Article 8. Economy

8.2 Employment and Economic Development

Findings

8.2.d The stability of Corvallis and Benton County's economy is dependent on a few major employers in a few economic sectors, i.e., Oregon State University and Hewlett - Packard; other local, State, and Federal government employers; firms engaged in electronics, forest and agricultural products; consulting and medical services; and retail

businesses. In 1996, the twelve largest employers in Benton County were located in Corvallis, representing nearly half of the total employment in the County.

8.4 Education

Findings

8.4.a State and local education represents the most significant sector of Benton County's economy, with approximately one-fourth of all County jobs in this sector. This sector provides a stable economic and employment base for Corvallis and is three times the State average.

8.4.b Oregon State University is consistently rated among the top Universities in the nation in the areas of forestry, agriculture, computer science, engineering and pharmacy. A significant portion of the nation's research in the fields of forestry, agriculture, engineering, education, and the sciences takes place at Oregon State University. Changes in Oregon State University employment will be affected mainly by research activities.

8.4.c Oregon State University will continue to develop new technology in both "high-tech," and "bio-tech" renewable resource based industries.

8.4.d Oregon State University undergraduate students are attracted to the university for its programs and its location. Support for students' convenient retail shopping and entertainment needs will be one key to improving on OSU's attractiveness to new undergraduate students. Undergraduate students, per person, contribute as much as $11,000 each year to the local economy through the employment of University faculty and staff who live in the local area and the purchase of goods, food, and services from local businesses.

Policies

8.4.1 The City shall encourage and support Oregon State University as a major education and research center.

8.4.2 The City shall support Oregon State University to facilitate the transfer from research to business of new technologies developed at the University.

8.4.4 The City shall encourage collaboration between the Corvallis School District 509J, Oregon State University, Linn - Benton Community College, and local employers to address emerging education and workforce needs of the community.

8.6 Visitor and Conference Activities

Findings

8.6.a In 1996, there were an estimated 200,000 overnight visitors to Corvallis, representing the following market segments: business travel and Oregon State University (approximately 54%); visiting friends and relatives (35%); conference and sports (8%); fairs and festivals (2%); and leisure vacationers (1%). The fastest growing visitor market segment is conferences and sports.

8.6.d Most of the conference activity attracted to Corvallis is generated by local groups, most notably Oregon State University, and to a lesser degree by local governments and businesses. The University's activities are capitalized on to support the Corvallis motel, restaurant, and retail businesses.

8.6.e People attending Oregon State University athletic events make a significant contribution to the Corvallis economy.

8.6.f The Oregon State University conference facilities and additional private conference facilities, satisfy some of the demand for conference space in Corvallis.

8.6.h The Oregon State University LaSells Stewart Center has a theater-type auditorium seating 1,200, a 200-seat lecture room, and seven conference areas ranging in size from 375 to 1,800 square feet. The priorities of the center are to provide facilities for: 1) Oregon State University conferences; 2) the Oregon State University Office of Continuing Education; and 3) the general Corvallis community.

8.6.i The Oregon State University Alumni Center was completed in 1997 and has a ballroom which can accommodate 700 people, and eight conference rooms ranging in size from 254 to 1,600 square feet. The priorities of the center are to provide facilities for: 1) Oregon State University alumni to come home to and host events; 2) Oregon State University meetings and conferences; and 3) the local and regional community. Oregon State University is currently interested in having a 150+ room hotel constructed near these conference facilities.

8.9 Industrial Land Development and Land Use

Findings

8.9.j Corvallis has a large existing research base and a comparative advantage in the research-technology field due to Oregon State University (OSU), the Forest Ecosystem Research Laboratory, Environmental Protection Agency, Hewlett-Packard, CH_2M HILL, regional medical facilities, and other major employers.

8.9.k The Linn - Benton Regional Economic Development Strategy states that technology transfer, primarily from Oregon State University, will be a major factor in starting or expanding businesses that bring new products and processes into the marketplace. (See Section 8.4 - Education.)

8.9.l The economic base of Corvallis would be strengthened by additional employment opportunities in the research-technology area which in turn would benefit from proximity to Oregon State University, a major research institution.

Article 9. Housing

9.4 Housing Needs

Findings

9.4.a The need for new housing is influenced by job generation and in-migration, the availability and cost of transportation, and seasonal factors in such areas as employment and student enrollment at Oregon State University.

Policies

9.4.1 To meet Statewide and Local Planning goals, the City shall continue to identify housing needs and encourage the community, university, and housing industry to meet those needs.

9.7 Oregon State University Housing

Findings

9.7.a Oregon State University enrolled 14,127 students for the 1997 fall term. The number of students living within a 1/2 mile of the main campus area was approximately 7,000, while roughly 25% of the students live on campus.

9.7.b According to information collected by OSU University Housing and Dining Services, during the 1997 fall term, student occupancy in residence halls, cooperative houses, student family housing, the College Inn, fraternities and sororities totaled 4,430. Total housing capacity in these units was just over 6,100, and thus exceeded occupancy by over 1,600 units.

9.7.c If the percentage of OSU students who live within 1/2-mile of the main campus could be increased from the current estimated 50% to 60%, there is a potential savings of at least 5,000 vehicle trips per day in a very congested part of the City.

9.7.d The student population is not expected to increase significantly during the planning period. The percentage of the total population who are students will decrease as the non-student population increases.

9.7.e There are approximately 140 acres of land zoned medium density residential and 85 acres of land zoned medium-high residential within a 1/2 mile of the main OSU campus, all of which has some potential for rezoning to a higher density.

9.7.f A 1993 OSU survey found that 17% of OSU students commute to campus in single occupancy vehicles. Fifty-six percent of faculty and staff commute to campus in single occupancy vehicles.

9.7.g Some of the Oregon State University residence halls are not protected with built-in fire sprinkler systems, which creates risk for the residents and a higher reliance on the fire department for rescue services using aerial apparatus.

Policies

9.7.1 The City shall encourage the rehabilitation of old fraternity, sorority, and other group buildings near OSU for continued residential uses.

9.7.2 The City shall encourage OSU to establish policies and procedures to encourage resident students to live on campus.

9.7.3 The City and OSU shall work toward the goal of housing 50% of the students who attend regular classes on campus in units on campus or within a 1/2 mile of campus.

9.7.4 The City shall evaluate cooperative programs and investments with OSU to provide alternative transportation services specifically targeted towards students, faculty, and staff.

9.7.5 The City shall encourage Oregon State University and its fraternities, sororities, and cooperative housing owners to pursue opportunities for retrofitting residential units with fire sprinkler systems, and to provide fire sprinkler systems for all new residential units.

Article 11. Transportation

11.6 Pedestrian

Findings

11.6.d The 1990 Census identifies the pedestrian mode as the second highest mode used in Corvallis to get to work, while Oregon State University has identified it as the most common mode for students accessing the campus.

11.12 Oregon State University Transportation Issues

Findings

11.12.a The existing traffic pattern serving Oregon State University has an impact on the community. These impacts include additional through traffic in neighborhoods and higher-speed traffic in residential areas.

11.12.b Existing non-university traffic patterns include traffic flow through the campus which has an impact on the campus community.

11.12.c Off campus on-street parking of university-related vehicles has a significant impact on the availability of on-street parking near campus. The University and the City are working together by encouraging increased use of the free transit pass program, increased bicycle and pedestrian travel, and by developing and implementing a parking plan.

Policies

11.12.1 The University and the City shall work together to improve traffic patterns through and around Oregon State University which will reduce negative impacts on existing residential areas and the campus.

11.12.2 The University shall develop and implement a transportation and parking plan that reduces the negative traffic and parking impacts on existing residential areas.

11.12.3 All-day parking of University-related vehicles on streets in proximity to the University shall be discouraged.

11.12.4 The City shall work with the University to minimize Oregon State University-related off-campus parking problems.

11.12.5 The City shall work with OSU to develop a plan to decrease traffic and parking impacts in and around the University during major events.

Article 13. Special Areas of Concern

13.2 Oregon State University

Findings

13.2.a Oregon State University is the major employer, landowner, and traffic generator in the Urban Growth Boundary.

13.2.b The location and function of University land uses have a major impact on the community.

13.2.c Oregon State University contributes to the economic vitality of the community by attracting students who provide the employment base for teaching faculty and support staff at OSU and secondarily by drawing conferences and conventions among its faculty peer groups and alumni / donor base. Oregon State University invests considerably each year to attract new and returning students, alumni, donors, and other groups to come to its Corvallis campus. The University also contributes to the economic vitality of the community by attracting Federal, State, and corporate research funds which support its locally-based research faculty and facilities development.

13.2.d The location and function of private land uses surrounding the University can have a major impact on the campus and University agricultural lands.

13.2.e Changes of land use on the campus and on surrounding private and public lands are expected to occur. These changes include the location of new structures, changes to existing structures and their uses, and changes to traffic patterns.

13.2.f In 1986, the City adopted the Oregon State University Plan which updated the Physical Development Plan for the main campus. This made the Oregon State University Plan consistent with the Comprehensive Plan in accordance with State law.

13.2.g The City and the University periodically revise and update their land use plans.

13.2.h The OSU Campus Way agricultural service road / pedestrian trail impacts the adjacent agricultural uses and the use of the road by farm service equipment.

Policies

13.2.1 The University and City should work cooperatively to develop and recognize means and methods to allow the University to provide the mission activities.

13.2.2 The City and the University shall continue to work together to assure compatibility between land uses on private and public lands surrounding and within the main campus.

13.2.3 The City shall continue to work with Oregon State University on future updates of and amendments to the 1986 Oregon State University Plan. Coordination shall continue between the City and Oregon State University on land use policies and decisions.

13.2.4 The City and Oregon State University shall jointly participate in activities to "market" Oregon State University as a resource for members of the community and to draw people to the community.

13.2.5 Development on the Oregon State University main campus shall be consistent with the 1986 Oregon State University Plan, its City-approved successor, or approved modifications to the Plan. This plan includes the Physical Development Plan Map that specifies land use at Oregon State University.

13.4 Oregon State University Open Space and Resource Lands

Findings

13.4.a Oregon State University open space lands are a valuable asset to the community as they: 1) provide a good transitional zone between intensive agricultural uses at the University and community land uses; 2) contribute to community open space; and 3) provide gateways to the community.

13.4.b Oregon State University has four types of open space: 1) unbuilt areas on the main campus; 2) Comprehensive Plan designated Open Space - Agriculture; 3) Comprehensive Plan designated Open Space - Conservation; and 4) Oregon State University forest resource land.

13.4.c Some Oregon State University lands are currently made available to the public on a limited basis.

13.4.d Oregon State University agricultural and forest open space provide important viewsheds.

13.4.e The University agricultural lands are necessary to the University and beneficial to the State and local community.

13.4.f Adequate buffers help prevent conflict between University agricultural / forest uses and urban uses.

13.4.g There is no jointly-adopted plan between the City and Oregon State University for University agricultural and forest uses. The lack of alternate plans requires land use decisions to assume that agricultural land uses will continue in place into the future without change. This intent has been substantiated with confirming letters from OSU.

13.4.h Oregon State University agricultural runoff and agricultural activities could degrade the water quality of Oak Creek and Squaw Creek and negatively impact stream system integrity.

13.4.i Citizen use of agricultural, conservation and forest open space can impact the operation of those areas and the ability of the University in providing its State mission.

13.4.j Due to proximity to urban development, some OSU resource lands could be easily served by City services and are capable of accommodating urban development. At the same time, some lands within the Urban Growth Boundary could provide for the agricultural land needs of OSU.

Policies

13.4.1 If Oregon State University agricultural and conservation open space lands change to more intensive uses, provisions shall be made to ensure that a transitional zone separates university and community uses, as appropriate.

13.4.2 Designated open space in the OSU Physical Development Plan and Oregon State University agricultural, conservation, and forest resource lands make a significant contribution to community open space and their loss should be minimized.

13.4.3 The University should develop and maintain a plan for its open space, agricultural, conservation, and forest lands within the Urban Growth Boundary.

13.4.4 The City and the University shall work together to ensure plans for the University lands are consistent with the City's Comprehensive Plan.

13.4.5 The City shall adopt land use policies, such as maintaining adequate buffers, to protect University agricultural and forest land from the negative impacts of urban development and protect urban development from the negative impacts of agricultural practices and forest uses.

13.4.6 OSU shall continue to prevent harmful agricultural runoff from entering local streams and avoid agricultural activities that ecologically impair the Oak Creek and Squaw Creek systems.

13.4.7 The City shall recognize the ability of resource land exchanges between OSU and public and private land owners to provide enhanced agricultural opportunities and urban development or demonstrated public benefit to the community by the exchange.

13.6 Madison Avenue

Findings

13.6.a Madison Avenue is a centrally located street which runs east and west through the downtown area. It also provides an important pedestrian connection between the University and the Willamette River through the heart of the downtown area.

13.6.b This street has a unique mixture of land uses abutting it and provides a street linkage, typified by low vehicular and high pedestrian traffic volumes, between Oregon State University and the Willamette River.

Policies

13.6.1 Madison Avenue shall continue to be developed as a pedestrian link between Oregon State University and the Willamette River. Development in this area shall be compatible with and enhance the abutting land uses and allow for this area's continued use for cultural and civic purposes.

Article 14. Urbanization / Annexation

14.3 Urban Fringe Development

Findings

14.3.k *Oregon State University agricultural and forestry land uses are critical to maintaining OSU's stated mission.*