

A POLICY
APPROACH TO URBAN
RECREATION PLANNING

THESIS FOR THE DEGREE OF M. U. P.

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

JAMES HEDLEY VAN RAVENSWAY

1975

THESIS





3 1293 10024 8891

~~1470~~ 296
~~1470~~ 317

The a
Silver re
it being co
missions.
having an
the availa

Current
barely add
they are not
I not take
millions of
less in And
In order to
man recrea
needs of an
approach, not
attempt to do
To devel
analytical as

6-1000

ABSTRACT

A POLICY APPROACH TO URBAN RECREATION PLANNING

By

James Hedley van Ravensway

The ability of urban governments in America to adequately deliver recreational opportunities to the urban population is being severely eroded by existing, or newly developing, conditions. At the same time, the urban resident is experiencing an increase in the demand for, and an increase in time available for recreational pursuits.

Currently, recreational planning policies do not adequately address the present status of urban recreation, for they are reflective of earlier conditions and factors, and do not take into consideration the growing spectrum of problems of the urban environment. Consequently, the urban areas in America are now experiencing a "recreation crisis". In order to overcome the current problems or conditions of urban recreation, and to better address the future recreation needs of an urban population, a new direction, or policy approach, needs to be created. This thesis represents an attempt to do just that.

To develop an adequate policy framework, the following analytical approach is used:

1.

ing condition
of man reorg
determined to
the need of the
competition of
and pro...

2.

standards
the. Such a
daring, e.g.
characteristic

3.

human reorg
approaches to
standards.

The analysis
the policy of
human reorg
multiplication of
dared for on
this service
which this pro
of private corp

1. Identify and analyze existing, or newly developing conditions that are adversely affecting the delivery of urban recreation opportunities. Such conditions are determined to be the increase in available leisure time, the need for a higher density residential environment, the competition for scarce resources, the energy problem, and past and present governmental policies.

2. Identify factors that are necessary for understanding the provision of urban recreation opportunities. Such factors include the level appropriate for planning, e.g., metropolitan or local, and the diverse characteristics of the urban population.

3. Analyze existing approaches to the provision of urban recreation opportunities, including such specific approaches as open space planning and the use of recreation standards.

The analytical steps of this thesis provides the basis for a policy proposal that emphasizes a two level approach to urban recreation planning. The policy calls for a metropolitan planning unit, with day-to-day recreation needs planned for on a neighborhood basis, and general recreation needs serviced by a metropolitan wide program. Included within this proposal is the encouragement of both public and private suppliers of urban recreation opportunities

James Hedley van Ravensway

to coordinate their efforts in a manner that fosters a more equitable and rational distribution of recreational opportunities.

A POLICY APPROACH TO URBAN RECREATION PLANNING

By

James Hedley van Ravensway

A THESIS

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

MASTER OF URBAN PLANNING

School of Urban Planning and Landscape Architecture

1975

To my wife.....,

I would
Mischwitz,
and Landis
Department
making this
Planning. I
Appreciation
of Urban
are important
needs.

I must,
Appreciation
first, to
solve problems

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to express my appreciation to Dr. Carl Goldschmidt, the Director of the School of Urban Planning and Landscape Architecture, and Dr. Roger Hamlin of the Department of Urban Planning, for their assistance in making this thesis more responsive to the field of Urban Planning. I would like to give a special thanks and appreciation to Professor Donn Anderson of the Department of Urban Planning, for his guidance, invaluable input, and more importantly, his patience in the preparation of this thesis.

I must, however, extend my warmest and deepest appreciation to my wife, Darlene, for her love, kindness, spirit, tolerance, and above all, help, throughout this entire project.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

INTRODUCTION

PART I

INTRODUCTION

CHAPTER I

CHAPTER II

CHAPTER III

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Acknowledgments	iii
List of Tables	vii
List of Figures	ix
Introduction	1
Part I The Urban Recreation Crisis	
Introduction	8
Chapter I Leisure and Recreation	11
Leisure	11
Recreation	24
Summary	33
Chapter II External Implications for Recreation	35
Higher Density Urbanization	35
The Competition for Scarce Resources	45
The Energy Problem	54
Summary	57
Chapter III The Government Response to Recreation	59
The Federal Response	64
The State Response	71
The Local Response	74
The Impact of Government on Urban Recreation	77

Chapter IV

Part II 196

Introduction

Chapter V

Chapter VI

Chapter VII

Chapter IV	Summary: The Urban Recreation Crisis	84
Part II Creating an Urban Recreation Policy		
	Introduction	90
Chapter V	Metropolitan Recreation Planning	93
	Location of the Population	93
	Efficiency	97
	Summary	109
Chapter VI	Urban Recreation Demand	111
	The Urban Client Group	112
	The Diversity of Urban Demand for Recreation	114
	a. Income Groups	116
	b. Other Socio-Economic Characteristics	121
	c. Life Style	123
	Summary	124
Chapter VII	Urban Recreation Planning	126
	Urban Recreation Planning	126
	Standards	132
	a. Types of Recreation Standards	133
	b. The Value of Recreation Standards	136
	Location	142
	Open Space	145
	Some Implications for Urban Recreation Planning	151

Chapter VIII	Creating a Policy for Urban Recreation Opportunities	155
	The Policy Framework	156
	a. The Neighborhood Planning Unit	159
	1. The Neighborhood	159
	2. Neighborhood Needs and Preferences	161
	3. Measuring Needs and Preferences	164
	4. Converting the Need to Recreational Opportunities	168
	b. The Metropolitan Recreation System	170
	1. Outdoor Recreation	170
	2. Cultural Opportunities	172
	c. The Private Sector	173
	1. Types of Private Recreation	1 5
	2. Integrating Public and Private Recreation Planning	177
	Implications for Planning	180
	a. Planning Organization	180
	b. Citizen Participation	181
	c. Cooperation with the Private Sector	182
	Summary	182
	Summary and Conclusion	184
	Bibliography	187

File

1. Time Sheet
2. Letterhead
Paper
3. Personal
Letter
4. Personal
Letter
Paper
Paper
5. Change of
Address
6. Time Sheet
7. Time Sheet
8. Ten Minute
Sheet
9. Revenue
Paper
10. Public
Letter
Paper
11. Public
Letter
Paper
12. Address of
State
Land
13. Department
Paper
14. Monitor
Paper

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1. Time Spent on Outdoor Recreation, 1900-1970	27
2. Estimate of Leisure Time Spent in Selected Recreation Activities - 1960	28
3. Personal Consumption Expenditures for Recreation, 1969	32
4. Percentage Increase in Construction Costs Between 1969 and 1974 for New Single Family Homes	40
5. Changes in Cost and Size of Developed Lots	42
6. Home Building Costs, 1949 and 1969	43
7. Tri-County Region Housing Trends, 1960-1970	44
8. Ten Most Pressing Recreational Problems, Michigan Governmental Units, 1973	50
9. Revenue Sources by Level of Government for Michigan, 1972-1974	51
10. Public Outdoor Recreation Acreage by Type and Area and Administering Jurisdiction, 1972	63
11. Public Recreation Areas, by Location and Level of Government, 1965	64
12. Acreage of Federal Lands in the United States, for Agencies Administering Lands for Recreation Use, 1972	65
13. Department of Housing and Urban Development Open Space Program, 1962-1971	71
14. Michigan Recreation Lands, 1973	73

15.	Per Capita Expenditures for Parks and Recreation in 11 Selected Cities, 1960-1970	76
16.	Illustrations of Type of Standards	134
17.	Illustration of Space Standards by Government Level and Region	135
18.	A Summary of Recommended Space Standards for Neighborhood Playgrounds	136
19.	A Summary of the Goals and Objectives Reference Groups	163

Figure

1. Daily

2. Family

3. Televis

4. Distri

5. Family

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1. Daily Use of Time by Sex and Occupation, 1966	20
2. Participation in Outdoor Recreation by Activity, 1970	30
3. Television Viewing By Households, 1954-1972	31
4. Distribution of U.S. by Residence Population, 1970	94
5. Participation in Recreational Activities by Income	120

INTRODUCTION

Having the ability to participate in recreational desires and preferences is fundamental to our American urban society. While not necessarily instinctive, recreation serves as an essential outlet for daily societal pressures, as well as in the preparation of the individual for subsequent societal demands. The role that recreation plays in an urban setting no longer requires an explicit rationale or justification.

Recreation permeates practically every aspect of American urban society. Recreation serves as the major use of an individuals available leisure time. Recreation can serve as an educational process that aids in the teaching of many of American societies norms and values. An example of recreation as an educational tool can be found in high school, where athletics can serve as a device to teach an individual the concept of teamwork. Recreation can also serve as a theraputic device designed to create meaning to lives that may otherwise be empty, as in the case of the many elderly now residing in nursing homes and other similar facilities. Numerous other uses of recreation could also be listed. The point to consider, however, is the value that recreation has upon the very fabric of American society.

that is an

and an end

revelation

the truth is

and that is

activity with

specifically

and festive

revelation

the

direct

and spread

and of the

directional

and the first

between the

interaction

regeneration

and the first

subject and

opportunities

which where

the final a

delivery of

Each use of recreation, whether it be as a recreation tool, a therapeutic activity, or the countless other potential uses, merits a thorough analysis. For problems and conditions do exist within each use of recreation that warrant such an endeavor. To research and discuss each use of recreation is, however, beyond the scope of one thesis. This thesis will focus on one facet of the use of recreation, and that being the use of recreation as the predominate activity within an individuals available leisure time. More specifically, this thesis will investigate the conditions and factors that are influencing the provision and use of recreational services and opportunities of an urban population.

Government provision of recreation opportunities within urban areas has encountered numerous problems. Since the turn of the century, when government first began providing recreational opportunities, populations have grown faster than the fiscal capacities of local government. In addition, patterns of metropolitan growth have encouraged the proliferation of suburban units of government and the ensuing fragmentation of the delivery of urban recreational services, which has led to inequities and inefficiencies. There are affluent suburbs possessing large inventories of recreational opportunities which are in direct contrast with most central cities where the recreational opportunities, for many citizens, are dismal at best. On the other hand, the private sector delivery of urban recreational opportunities has flourished

into a multi-billion dollar industry. Like the public sector, however, the private sector is also guilty of a fragmented and uncoordinated delivery which too has an inequitable effect on the urban population.

The need to eliminate the inadequacies that have been, and still are, characteristic of urban recreation is a priority issue. For example, potential users of recreation are unable to communicate their preferences to the planner, and, "When preferences have been expressed, there is no sensitive technique for translating them into opportunities."¹ Today, however, new conditions are emerging which are having a more profound and far reaching effect on urban recreation. As a result, there now exists a "crisis" situation. Such conditions include:

1. Substantial increases in time available for the urban resident to pursue recreation;
2. The need for creating living environments of a much higher density than are common now;
3. A scarcity of resources - both in terms of fiscal resources and land;
4. The present day energy problems.

In addition to both the above listing and the contemporary situation of recreation identified earlier, there is the

1 Seymour Gold, Urban Recreation Planning, Philadelphia: Lea and Febiger, 1973, p. v.

the 1st of

they are the 1st

The next

article with

character of

the 1st of

then stated to

constitute the

the opportunity

in quantity of

however, there

and there is

success by the

identical to the

resource with

is creating a

all have to

of certain re-

visions and ex-

is required to

efficient syst-

It has to

to identify

as a requi-

serious lack of coordination among all levels of government which has resulted in a structure whereby the burden of providing urban recreation opportunities rests almost solely with the local units of government. And in terms of resources, they are the least capable to do so.

The rationale for describing urban recreation being in a crisis situation is due primarily to the fact that the character of the problem has been changed dramatically. Prior to the decade of the 1970's it could have generally been stated that the addition of more resources and a greater sensitivity to the needs of those who would use urban recreation opportunities would substantially reduce the gap both in quantity and function between supply and demand. Today, however, there are little additional resources to be had, and there is a greater competition for the available resources by other urban concerns that demand attention. Coincidental to the fiscal resource dilemma is the physical resource situation such as the present energy problem which is creating a situation whereby most of the urban population will have to recreate near or at home. Thus, the character of urban recreation has substantially changed, and a more serious and explicit investigation of these new conditions is required in order to create a desirable, equitable, and efficient system of urban recreation.

It has become quite evident that what needs to be done is to identify and analyze these new factors now emerging, and as a result, provide the framework for a new policy

designed to cover
regarding the
business primarily
characteristic of
the provision of
and less typical
separate. The
restriction, and
human population
identified.

It is the
and in a
during the
through such an
framework for
the needs and
service, such as
the needs and
and not just the

In order to
needs will provide
the first and
negotiating the
restriction policy

1. To inter-

designed to overcome them. The policies that now exist regarding the provision of urban recreation opportunities address primarily those conditions that have been characteristic of urban recreation for nearly 80 years such as the provision of parking. With the introduction of new and less typical problems, these policies are no longer adequate. To better reflect the present situation of urban recreation, and to better address the recreation needs of an urban population, a new approach and direction needs to be identified.

It is the objective of this thesis to focus upon the new, and in some instances unexpected, conditions confronting the delivery of urban recreation opportunities. Through such an investigation, the desired result will be a framework for a policy that can more adequately address the needs and problems associated with urban recreation. Likewise, such a policy should be capable of reacting to the needs and preferences of an entire urban population, and not just to the central city or its suburbs.

In order to develop such a policy framework, this thesis will focus upon three interrelated sub-objectives. The first sub-objective relates to those factors that are precipitating the need to evaluate and redefine urban recreation policy which is:

1. To identify those conditions which are influencing the delivery of recreational opportunities to the urban population.

The other two sub-objectives relate to the policy generating aspects of this thesis, and are a direct result of the analytical activities identified in the first sub-objective. These sub-objectives are:

2. To develop a policy framework that will minimize or eliminate those problems now affecting the delivery of urban recreation, and will also provide for a more relevant, abundant, and equitable level of recreational opportunities to all urban residents, and

3. That such a policy reflect the ability to be uniformly applied throughout the entire metropolitan area.

It is the intent of this thesis to be contemporary rather than historical. The result of this approach will be a proposed solution to today's problems rather than an account of past mistakes or failures.

The thesis will be divided into two parts. Part I, which includes Chapters One through Four, will be a discussion of the variables that are serving to create the urban recreation crisis. Part II, which includes Chapters Five through Seven, will investigate the factors in need of understanding prior to the development of an urban recreation policy. And finally, Chapter Eight, also in Part II, will be the proposed policy recommendation.

PART I

THE URBAN RECREATION CRISIS

America is
white. Many
being confronted
it increasingly
has. Large
man recreation
man recreation

The un-
der crisis and
results decri-
ments, the
times surround
resses in qual
problems; and
government.

The increa
machines, and
the large de
the primary
available le
recreational
the morning in

INTRODUCTION

America is presently faced with an urban recreation crisis. Many residents within the urban centers, which are being confronted with greater numbers of people, are finding it increasingly difficult to pursue recreational opportunities. Large urban areas are experiencing a shortage of urban recreational opportunities in the face of increasing urban recreation demand.

The underlying causal factors behind the urban recreation crisis are almost as varied as the types of recreational pursuits desired by urban dwellers. For purposes of this thesis, the following are being proposed as the fundamental issues surrounding the crisis. Briefly, they include: increases in available leisure time; external factors or problems; and past and present policies and program of government.

The increase in available leisure time is a societal phenomena, and the implications of this situation is realized, to a large degree, in the area of recreation. Recreation is the primary use of leisure time, and thus, any increase in available leisure time will mean a parallel increase in recreational desires and pursuits. Consequently, what is now occurring in the area of recreation can be appropriately

represented as a
man represented
planned to meet

The extent
for three and
examination; the
and the present
and for all the
lower as in the
ability of a full
man population
services. It
that which is a
series of a series
location for the
and monetary re
that engage in
which, a series
through location
living people
were represented

The final
studies toward
levels of power
in the Federal
time of power
and government

described as a "recreation boom." The difficulty is that urban recreation resources are not adequately, nor properly planned to meet this boom.

The external implications for recreation are centered upon three areas of concern: the need for higher density urbanization; the distribution or allocation of resources; and the present day energy shortage. When referring to the need for higher urban density, this relates directly to such issues as increasing land costs and the decreasing availability of buildable land, and the increasing size of our urban populations, both of which stress higher population densities. If and when we do reach densities higher than that which now exists, how shall we plan for the recreation needs of a densely populated environment? Resource allocation for purposes of this thesis refers to both physical and monetary resources, and the competition that recreation must engage in for these scarce resources. The energy crisis, a shortage of energy resources, is having the effect - through lesser availability of fuel and higher prices - of forcing people to recreate closer to or within urban areas, where recreation resources tend to be inadequate.

The final factor to be considered is governmental policies towards urban recreation. This factor includes all levels of government - Federal, State, and Local. The States and the Federal Government have emphasized outdoor, non-urban forms of recreation, leaving urban recreation problems to local governments which do not have the adequate resources

any system of
activities or
the elimination
the following
recreation or
future control
of this report

necessary to do the job. Thus, our State and National Park Systems are being maintained while urban recreation facilities are continually deteriorating. It is through the culmination of the factors that will be discussed in the following chapters that we have the present day urban recreation crisis. The extent to which each of these factors contributes to the overall problem is the subject of this section.

CHAPTER I

LEISURE AND RECREATION

One of the significant factors underlying the recreation crisis is the increase in leisure time available to devote to recreational pursuits. During the previous half-century the amount of leisure time made available to the average working man (in this case, the urban dweller) has increased to such an extent that a "leisure ethic" is beginning to supplant the long held value of the "work ethic". The relationship between leisure time and recreation is one that needs to be explored, and understood within a framework that indicates the impact that is occurring because of this phenomena. The importance of this relationship is the subject of this chapter.

Leisure

The significance of leisure in this study centers on the fact that it is during this period of ones time that the majority of recreation activity occurs. Whether it is indoor or outdoor, urban or rural, recreation is a reflection of ones choice of the use of leisure time. Therefore, a study of recreation necessitates an examination of leisure time.

The existence of, and the use of, leisure time has been the focus of study for many years. With the general viewpoint that leisure time is the opposite of work time, what man does outside of his working hours has been an interesting subject of study. Today, however, the view of it as being interesting has suddenly transformed into a more serious investigation of the impact of increased available leisure time on the working man. Through increases in technology, the time workers spend on the job has decreased to the point where the very structure of American society is experiencing a major change in many of its institutions and values. Paul Douglas comments that:

For the first time in human history,
leisure rather than work has become
the dominant human factor which
integrates life...to accept our
leisure as seriously as we once did
our work shifts a whole emphasis.²

John Hendricks states this value change in a more direct fashion, and one which indicates the gravity of this change,

² Paul Douglas, "The Administration and Leisure for Living," Bulletin of the American Recreation Society, XII, Number 3 (April, 1960) p. 11

Sanitizing

increasing

expecting

of it.

The

live or

this situation

survival.

as proposed

1
2
3
4
5
6
7
8
9
10

Humanity

the freedom

which comes

John Heron
Urban Heron
July, 1911

David Heron
University

by suggesting that:

We are shifting away from the "Protestant Ethic" and moving towards a "Fun Morality".³

Hendricks may be overstating the overall consequence of increasing emphasis on leisure time. Nonetheless, we can expect important changes in our societal structure because of it.

The question of increasing leisure time being a positive or negative condition is open for debate. Many view this situation as a necessary step towards mans sanity and survival. Such a view is expressed by David Reisman when he proposes that:

Play (leisure) may prove to be the sphere in which there is still room left for the would be autonomous man to retain his individual character from the pervasive demands of his societal character.⁴

Reismans view is based on the assumption that man will use his freedom for more leisure time in a manner that will indeed enhance the spiritual qualities of mans existance.

3 John Hendricks, "Leisure Participation As Influenced By Urban Residence Patterns", Sociology and Social Research, July, 1971, p. 26.

4 David Reisman, The Lonely Crowd, New Haven: Yale University Press, 1950, p. 326.

to put it
of increas
margin, w

into a
leaving t
that the
the oppor
will play

What
covered t
is recore
synonym
that we
either a
requires
necessary
great de
widely

Stuart
Univer

To put it in to the context of recreation, one of the impacts of increased leisure time is more aptly stated by Stuart Chapin, who concludes that:

.....there is no doubt that one result of changes in leisure-time patterns will be a greater demand for open spaces to accommodate recreation needs.⁵

Both Chapin and Reisman reflect the issue of increased leisure time by agreeing, in their own interpretive fashion, that the consequence will be one of individuals seeking out the opportunity to use their new freedom in a fashion that will place demands upon the recreation system.

What is leisure time? This question needs to be answered to gain the perspective that is germane to the issue of recreation. Many people perceive of leisure as being synonymous with recreation, or simplify it by stating that we experience leisure when we are not working. Neither statement is completely true, which therefore requires that a definition of leisure be expressed. It is necessary to point out that definitions of leisure vary a great deal, but the chief emphasis is on the time element. A widely used definition of leisure is advocated by the

5 Stuart F. Chapin, Urban Land Use Planning, Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1965, p. 376.

Admission

Times From

Lecture 20

The above

temporal

Label
Recent

The 2000
any 1000
first 10
second
never

International Study Group on Leisure and Social Science,
which defines it as:

.....a number of occupations in which the individual may indulge of his own free will -- either to rest, or amuse himself, to add to his knowledge and improve his skills disinterestedly, and to increase his voluntary participation in the life of the community often discharging his professional, family, and social duties.⁶

A definition that tends to hold more professional status comes from the Dictionary of Sociology, which defines leisure as:

.....free time after the practical necessities of life have been attended to. The adjective leisure means being unoccupied by the practical necessities as, leisure hours; the adverb leisurely applies to slow, deliberate, unhurried undertakings. Conceptions of leisure vary from the arithmetical one of time devoted to work, sleep, and other necessities, subtracted from 24 hours - which gives the surplus time - to the general notion of leisure as the time which one uses as he pleases.⁷

The above definitions of leisure indicate that leisure is a temporal process that occurs in the absence of work,

6 Isabel Cosgrove and Richard Jackson, The Geography of Recreation and Leisure, 1972.

7 The definition of leisure was reprinted from the Dictionary of Sociology, edited by Henry Pratt Fairchild, Copyright 1944, Philosophical Library, New York; with permission in Leisure and Recreation, Martin H. and Esther Neumeyer, New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1958, p. 14.

and is further qualified to exclude other necessary functions such as sleep and eating. A more applicable definition, however, is needed to apply more directly to recreation. Thus, for purposes of this thesis, a more comprehensive definition as expressed by Justin Voss will be use, which is:

.....a period of time referred to as discretionary time. It is that period of time when an individual feels no sense of economic, legal, moral, social compulsion or obligation nor physiological necessity. This choice of how to use this time is solely his. In leisure time an individual feels he does not 'have to' do anything, where he is free from the various states of constraints described above.

The remainder of non-work time is referred to as non-descretionary time. Here the individual is faced with a sense of legal, moral, social or physiological compulsion or obligation when deciding how to allocate his time. He is not, however, faced with a sense of economic obligation. But here, as in work, the individual feels he does have to do something.⁸

Through this definition two important factors become evident. All non-work time is not leisure. Various segments of non-work time still retain a sense of obligation, and thus, are not free time. For example, being on a school board or a church group. Such an activity, while not an economic obligation, is actually a social or moral obligation, which

⁸ Justin Voss, "The Definition of Leisure", Journal of Economic Issues, June, 1967.

is not a

is an op

whether

quired

The

temporal

something

As an ex

taxation

leisure

being ap

the chief

approach

the refer

at by Gen

the, near

the time

With

the nation

side, in

the view

Gold, of

is not considered leisure time. To put it broadly, leisure is an opportunity to engage in some kind of activity, whether vigorous or relatively passive, which is not required by daily necessities.

The second important factor is that leisure is a temporal (time) dimension, not an activity. An activity is something that is done within the available leisure time. As an example, relaxation is often viewed a leisure. Relaxation is not leisure, but is one way of spending available leisure time. Equally misleading is the notion of recreation being synonymous with leisure. It is not. It is however, the chief way most people spend their leisure time. The emphasis of leisure is on the time element, whereas recreation refers to one way that leisure time is spent. As pointed out by Seymour Gold:

In a statistical sense, leisure provides the time dimension for recreation. It is discretionary time or that which is left after necessary obligations are met.⁹

Thus, recreation is primarily an activity that occurs within the time frame of leisure. They are not the same.

With recreation being that activity that encompasses the majority of leisure time, if leisure time is, on the whole, increasing, so then, should recreation. However, before viewing recreational activity, it is necessary to view

⁹ Gold, Op. Cit., p. 27.

the magnitude of the increase in leisure time. Martin Neumeyer stresses this point by stating:

The place of recreation in modern society cannot be fully understood without a consideration of the significance and development of leisure, because the increase of free time is chiefly responsible for the demand for recreation.¹⁰

The working man of today has more leisure time than at any other point in history, and technology appears to be the liberator. As Lawrence Suhm, Director of the Institute for Leisure Time at the University of Wisconsin points out:

One thing is clear, cybernetics enables machines, coupled with computers, to perform tasks more rapidly and more accurately than has been possible under the previous period in the history of technological progress. The net result is the freeing and displacement of human time and energy resources at a more accelerated rate than ever before experienced in this or any other society.¹¹

Suhms statement is in response to the fact that man works 40 hours a week and lives 70 years, enjoying 22 more years of leisure than did his great-grandfather. We have gained some 1,500 free hours each year. These 1,500 hours multiplied

10 Martin H. and Ester S. Neumeyer, Leisure and Recreation New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1958, p. 21.

11 Lawrence Suhm, "Cumulative Earned Leave; New Tool For Economic Planning", Social Policies For America In the 70's, Edited by Robert Theobald, New York: Doubleday and Company, 1969, p. 117.

by the 50

more hours

This, in t

ditional

A re

1961 and 1

not 50.1

longer wa

To the

time and

approach

the of the

the average

of the

available

The

point of

that this

factory

the report

selection

with week

2. This,
3. This
4. This
5. This

by the 30 year increase in our life span amounts to 45,000 more hours - or 22 years of leisure added to our lives.¹² This, in turn, implies that there is an average of 22 additional years of potential recreation time for each person.

A recent Labor Department study indicated that between 1960 and 1970, leisure for most employees increased by almost 50 hours a year.¹³ This reflects shorter work weeks, longer vacations, and more holidays.

To help analyze mans use of his time, the concept of time budgets have been devised. The usefulness of this approach is manifested in Figure 1, which shows the daily use of time by sex and occupation for 1966. Even in 1966, the average person had available, for himself, nearly 5 hours of leisure time, which implies a significant amount of time available for recreation.

The fact that the working man has a considerably large amount of available leisure time is outdone only by the fact that this will continue to increase in the future. The Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission (ORRRC), in its report to the President and Congress in 1962, presented projections to the year 2000, which indicated an average work week of 30.7 hours in industry, 3.9 weeks of paid

12 Ibid, p. 120.

13 This statement was made in an editorial commenting on the "Leisure Trends and Industrial Concerns", Parks and Recreation, Volume 6, Number 5, May, 1971, p. 26.

TOTAL

Male

Female

Exec/Prof

Other

White Col.

Other

White Col.

Other

TOTAL

0



DATE

Statistical
Center

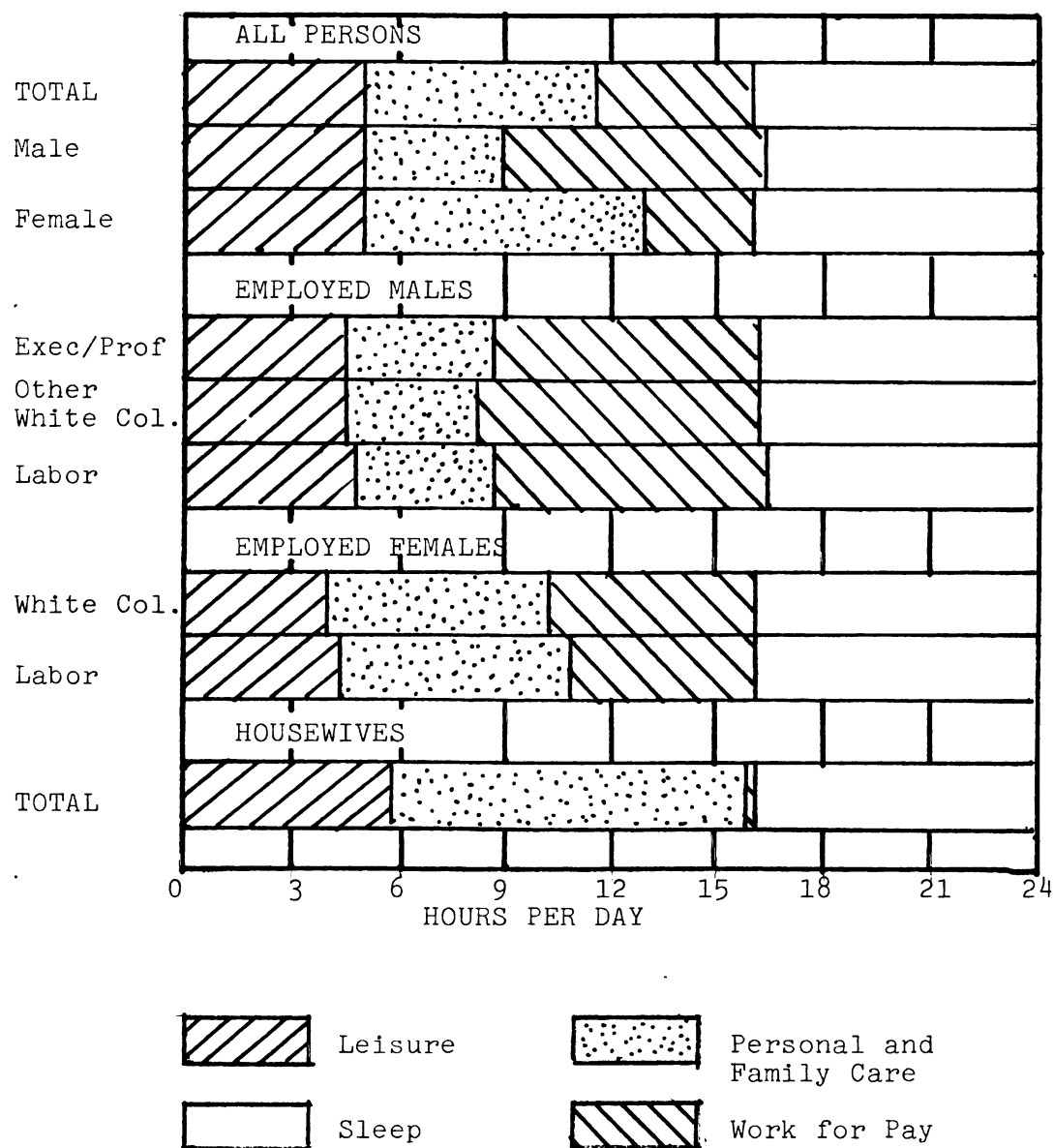


Figure 1.

Daily Use of Time by Sex and Occupation, 1966¹⁴

¹⁴ Statistical Policy Division, Social Indicators, U.S. Office of Management and Budget, Washington D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1973, p. 219.

vacation, 1

free time 1

sites a 100

found that

if these 11

demand that

only be the

not en

early indi

for example

the. One

is free time

1

2

3 Outdoor
Recreational
Development

4 Helen &
Paul

vacation, 10.1 paid holidays, adding up to 406 more hours of free time each year than workers now get.¹⁵ Helen B. Shaffer cites a California Department of Water Resources Study that found that:

The average worker in 1958 had 2,653 hours of leisure out of 8,760 hours in a year; 1,300 hours on weekends, 1,080 on weekdays, and 263 on holidays and vacations. By the year 2010, the workers leisure hours are expected to increase to 3,621, a gain of 618 hours.¹⁶

If these predictions for the future have any validity, the demand that we presently are experiencing for recreation may only be the tip of the iceberg.

Not everyone agrees that decreases in work time necessarily indicates an increase in leisure time. Helen Shaffer, for example, disagrees with the idea of increased leisure time. She cites a number of what she calls modern devourers of free time as:

1. Long distances traveled in heavy traffic to and from work and shopping centers;
2. The time and effort spent shopping in the super market, in contrast to telephoning an order to the corner grocery for delivery at home;

15 Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission, Outdoor Recreation In America, Report No. 1, Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1962.

16 Helen B. Shaffer, "Leisure in the Great Society", Editorial Research Reports, June 4, 1963, p. 75.

Factors

in avail

few hour

Factors

extent t

unclear

there ar

And

as not

society.

Added to

also the

17 1812

18 1812

3. Frequent moving from one house or one city to another;
4. The extra work falling on the husband when the wife works outside the home.¹⁷

Factors such as these, she concludes, reduces the difference in available leisure time between 1850 and 1960 to only a few hours. There can be little disagreement that such factors do represent time consuming activities. However, the extent to which they put a dent in available leisure time is unclear and undocumented. Most evidence indicates that there are substantial increases in available leisure time.

Another important factor is that increased leisure time has not been monopolized by the more affluent segments of society. As Gold points out:

In times past, leisure was the luxury of a few; today it is the privilege of many as Americans move towards a leisure-oriented life style.¹⁸

Added to the expansion of groups with access to leisure is also the fact that more Americans are becoming affluent.

17 Ibid, p. 77.

18 Gold, Op. Cit., p. 27.

This tends

as indicated

Increased

coupled with

allowing for

served to

be seen in

leisure

majority of

in a catalog

created, and

this means

to examine

of Herbert

Inc., 1

This tends to create a double-barreled impact on recreation, as indicated by Herbert Gans:

While the hours available for leisure activities are thus increasing slowly, I suspect that the aspirations and expectations for that period are rising much more sharply. Not only are various kinds of leisure behavior and recreation facilities broadening, but as incomes increase, more people than ever are able to participate in them. For example, a generation ago, boating and golf were upper income group sports; today almost everyone of middle income who is not afraid of the water or too lazy to walk the fairways can participate in both.¹⁹

Increased affluence by a large segment of American society, coupled with the increase in available leisure time, while allowing people more opportunity for recreation, has also served to increase the number of participants. And, as will be seen later on, the impact has been substantial.

Leisure is the time framework within which the vast majority of recreation occurs. And, with technology serving as a catalyst, the amount of available leisure time has increased, and will continue to increase in the future. What this means, or how it has affected recreation per se, will be examined next.

¹⁹ Herbert Gans, People and Plans, New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1968, p. 113.

Recreation

The to
to restore
physical
to invest
the time
relation

Thus, many
to enable
very few
definitely
sociology

to Max Ma
York:
to 101d,

Recreation

The term recreation comes from the Latin work recreatio, to restore or refresh; "To restore to a good or normal physical condition from a state of weakness or exhaustion; to invest with fresh vigor or strength."²⁰ In essence, it is the time when one "recreates" himself to begin a new, or, in relation to daily endeavors it means:

.....a renewal or preparation for the continuance of routine and necessary work.²¹

Thus, recreation is an activity that renews the individual to enable oneself to pursue the functions or activity necessary for his existence. For purposes of this thesis, the definition of recreation as defined by the Dictionary of Sociology will be used, and is defined as follows:

Recreation is any activity pursued during leisure, either individual or collective, that is free and pleasurable, having its own immediate appeal, not impelled by a delayed reward beyond itself or by any immediate necessity. A recreational activity may be engaged in during any age period of the individual, the particular action being determined by the

²⁰ Max Kaplan, Leisure In America: A Social Inquiry, New York: John Wiley and Sons, Incorporated, 1960, p. 19.

²¹ Ibid, p. 19.

This def

leisure.

that lei

means a

activity

and lei

"any", or

as the n

activity

will be

various

from

consider

either a

recreat

social

activity

tiona

those

and, in

to drink

time element, the condition and attitude of the person, and the environmental situation.²²

This definition makes recreation almost synonymous with leisure. Again, however, the distinction must be made in that leisure is time, and recreation is an activity that occurs within leisure time. Broadly speaking, it is any activity, either individual or collective, pursued during ones leisure time. It is important to emphasize the word "any", for the concept of recreation needs to be understood as the need to recreate oneself through whatever type of activity that is desired. The significance of this emphasis will become clearer further into this thesis, when the various aspects of urban recreation activities are discussed.

Presently, the types of activities that are normally considered under the umbrella of recreation are very limited, either by ignorance or design. The traditional view of recreation emphasizes outdoor, physical activities such as baseball, tennis, camping, boating and the like. Those activities encompass only part of recreation. True recreational activities, and especially within urban areas, are those activities which help in the recreating of an individual. Thus, in this sense, we can speak of such varied activities as drinking beer in a pub, or playing a pinball machine as

²² Neumeyer, Op. Cit., p. 17.

addressed

necessary,

the record

The

creating

in

tion. This

only of the

the observe

1
2
3
4

In fact, the

Report by

a Federal

that in the

al parks wh

local traf

George
New York

Outdoor
Recreati

recreation, if the purpose of such activities are to help refresh the individual. This important distinction will be addressed more explicitly in subsequent chapters, but it is necessary, at this point, to understand what is meant by true recreational activity.

The desire for the pursuit of recreation has been increasing rapidly in America. When we add to this our increase in leisure time, we are experiencing a substantial recreation boom. This increase in recreational opportunities is matched only by the desire of Americans to have such opportunities. One observer, George Butler, dramatizes this when he states:

The desire for recreational opportunities is so widespread that the American people, even during a depression and a world war, spent several billion dollars annually for them.²³

In fact, the demand was becoming so great that in 1962, a report by the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission, a Federally appointed Commission, indicated how absurd it was that in the middle of one of America's most beautiful National parks was a traffic light, which was the result of colossal traffic jams.²⁴

²³ George D. Butler, Introduction to Community Recreation, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967, p. 13.

²⁴ Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission, Outdoor Recreation In America, 1962.

recreation

21

time spent
in 1960 to
give a true
recreation.

By far
the visit to
this area to
comm. With
created by

3. Marion
Baltimore

What is the magnitude of recreational activity in America? Table 1 shows the amount of time spent on outdoor recreation between 1900 and 1970.

Table 1.

Time Spent on Outdoor Recreation, 1900-1970²⁵
(Million Man Hours)

1900	300
1910	650
1920	2,100
1930	5,300
1940	7,850
1950	12,200
1960	21,012
1970	50,000

Time spent on recreation increased from 300 million man hours in 1900 to nearly 50 billion man hours in 1970. Table 2 gives a breakdown of a specific year, 1960, into selected recreation activities.

By far the most actively pursued form of recreation is the visit to outdoor parks and recreation areas. It is in this area that we are witnessing the greatest recreation boom. With the increase in available time and the mobility created by the automobile, the opportunity and desire to

²⁵ Marion Clawson, Economics of Outdoor Recreation, Baltimore: John Hopkins Press, 1966, p. 25.

[illegible]

100-100000

1950

1950

11. 11. 53

25.

Project

13

11

10

Table 2.

Estimate of Leisure Time Spent in Selected
Recreation Activities - 1960²⁶
(Million Man-Hours)

Travel for pleasure	5,330
Visits to public outdoor recreation areas ^a	11,047
Fishing in all areas	1,500
Hunting in all areas	1,125
Boating of all kinds	600
Bowling	660
Organized sports	600
Horse riding	150

a. National, State, County and Municipal parks, national forests, federal wildlife refuges, Corps of Engineers and TVA reservoirs.

pursue outdoor recreation of all types is increasing rapidly. Many people predict that in the future we will experience even greater increases in participation of outdoor recreation. One expert, Marion Clawson, tends to use conservative projections, but even his indicates the potential magnitude of the increase in participation. He states that:

If the amount of leisure time devoted to outdoor recreation were to increase from between 3 and 4 percent in 1960 to 8 or 10 percent by 2000.....this would amount to 99-1,100 billion hours in outdoor recreation then, or 40 to 50 times the total time spent this way in 1960.²⁷

²⁶ Clawson, Op. Cit., p. 24.

²⁷ Ibid, p. 26

the number

factors as

participate

than were

A more

will help t

Figure 2 (a)

four reasons

cent of the

average tin

those activ

are picked

sports even

and swimming.

instances,

and watchi

tion activi

developing a

ant, betwe

note that t

a particip

activities

tures by t

Inform

nation act

It is impor

.

This conservative estimate could easily fall short if such factors as a latent population group which has yet to participate will, or more rapid increases in leisure time than were originally predicted occur.

A more detailed look at outdoor recreation activities will help to indicate the magnitude of participation. Figure 2 shows the level of participation in selected outdoor recreation activities for 1970, indicating the percent of the total population that participated, and the average time spent in each activity per participant. Those activities with the largest number of participants are picnicking, walking for pleasure, attending outdoor sports events or concerts, playing outdoor games or sports, and swimming. These activities are pursued, in some instances, by forty percent of the population. Excluding bird watching, which has the least amount of participants, such activities as walking, outdoor games and sports, and bicycling enjoy the greatest number of days per participant, between 30 and 40 days each. It is interesting to note that those activities that enjoy both a large amount of participants and days of participation are also those activities that require very little in the way of expenditures by the participant.

Information related to participation in indoor recreation activities is generally not available. Consequently, it is impossible to make comparisons. The small amount of information that is available does indicate that an

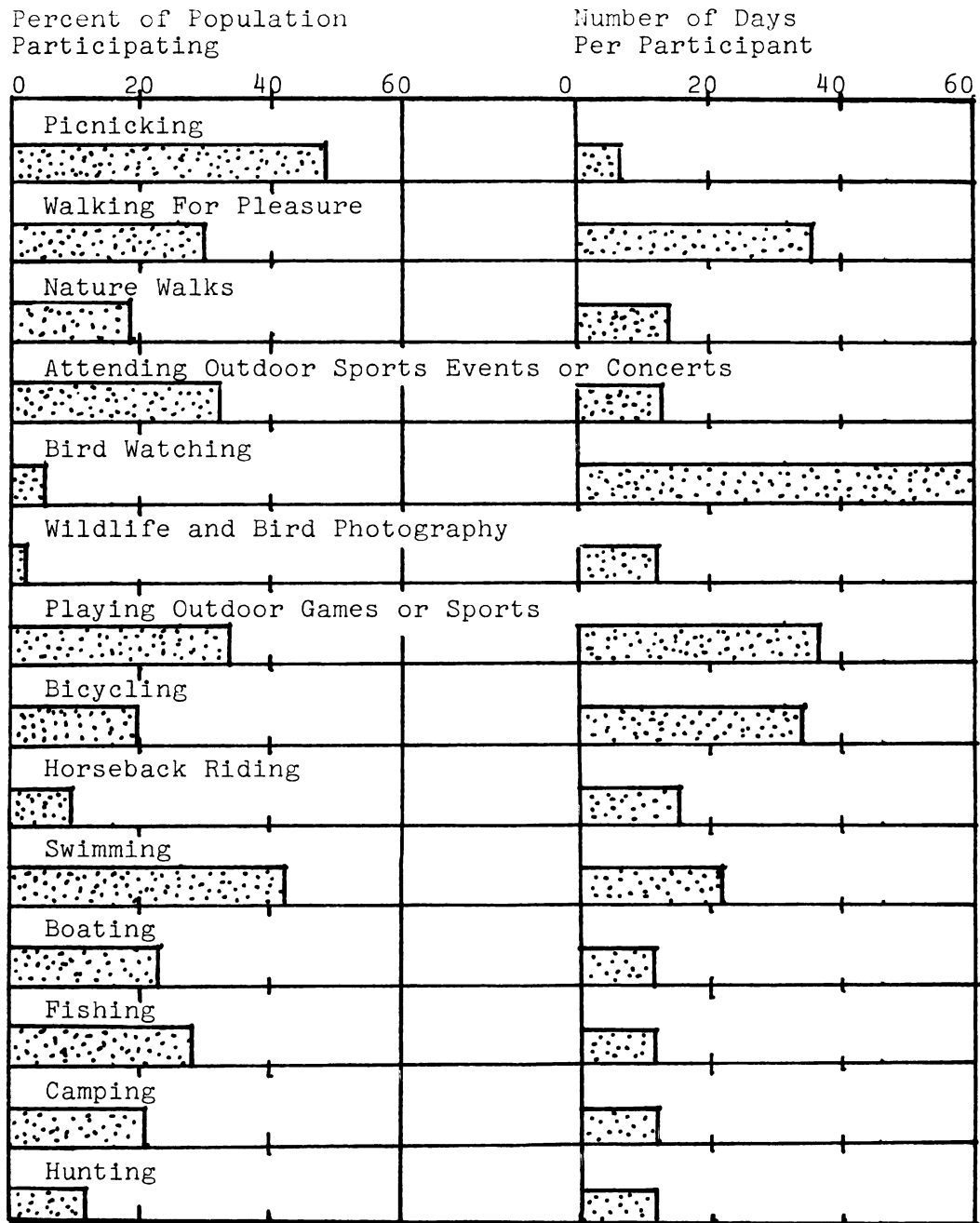


Figure 2.

Participation In Outdoor Recreation by Activity, 1970²⁸

²⁸ Social Indicators, Op. Cit., p. 219.

increased

area 12



number 1

regular

1972.

viewing

1.2 hour

increase in participation is being experienced in this area as well. For example, Figure 3 shows the average

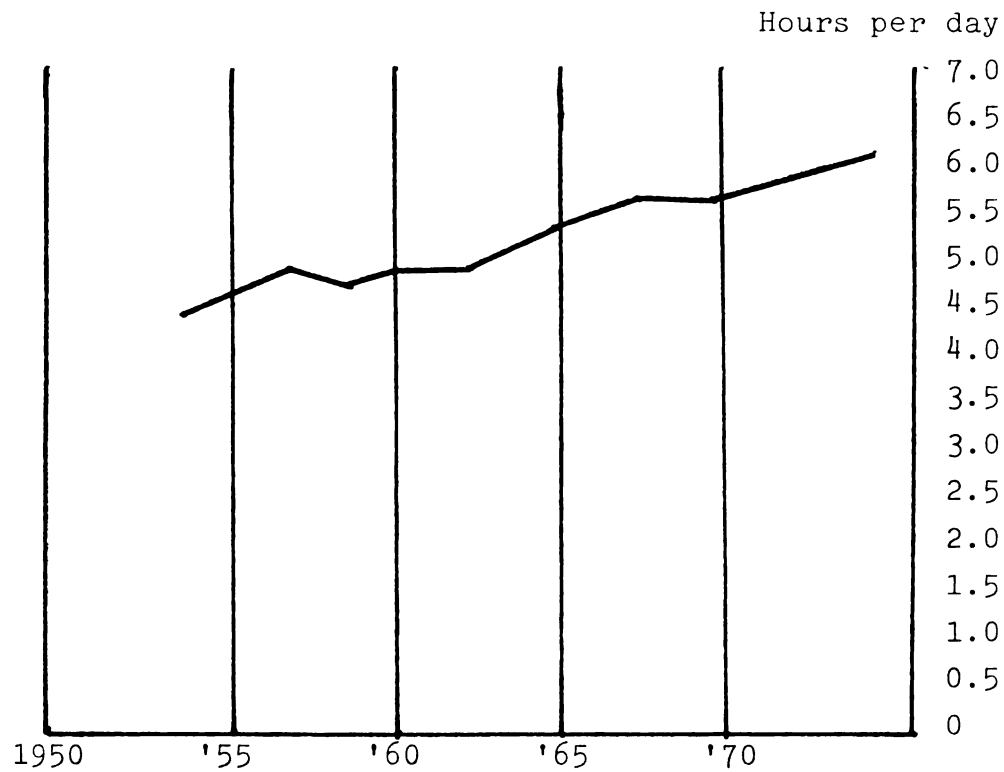


Figure 3.

Television Viewing by Households, 1954-1972²⁹

number of hours of television viewing - by far the most popular indoor recreational activity - between 1950 and 1972. By this graph, it can be seen that the average viewing time increased from 4.8 hours per day in 1950 to 6.2 hours per day in 1972. A few obvious qualifications

²⁹ Ibid, p. 221

to this art

the amount

it does in

definite in

Another

recreation

Table 3 in

recreation

Personal

Type of

Total

Books and

Magazines

Non-lunar

Wheel and

boats,

Radio and

musical

Radio and

Flowers,

Amusement

Motion

Legitim

of non

Spectat

clubs and

Commercial

Fair-mutual

Other

Gold, of
Statistics
Government

to this are the increase in population and the increase in the amount of households with television sets. Nonetheless, it does indicate that, while sketchy as it is, there is a definite increase in indoor recreation activities too.

Another way to view the increase in participation of recreation is to examine expenditures for recreation. Table 3 indicates the personal consumption expenditures for recreation in 1969. As the Table indicates, over 36 billion

Table 3.

Personal Consumption Expenditures for Recreation, 1969³⁰
(in millions)

Type of Product or Service	1969
Total recreation expenditures	\$36,305
Books and maps	3,226
Magazines, newspapers and sheet music	3,778
Non-durable toys and sports supplies	5,213
Wheel goods, durable toys, sports equipment, boats, and pleasure aircraft	4,219
Radio and T.V. receivers, records and musical instruments	8,085
Radio and Television repair	1,266
Flowers, seed, and potted plants	1,361
Admissions to specified spectator amusements	2,260
Motion picture theatres	1,097
Legitimate theatre and opera, and entertainments of non-profit institutions (except athletics)	679
Spectator sports	487
Clubs and Fraternal organizations	1,108
Commercial participant amusements	1,719
Pari-mutual net receipts	952
Other	3,118

³⁰ Gold, Op. Cit., p. 32. The original source is the Statistical Abstract, U.S. Department of Commerce, U.S. Government Printing Office, 1970. Table 317, p. 200.

dollars was

Fish and W

28 million

days, open

For one 210

penditure

Reuter and

6 million

states that

the total

year, 32

The of

recreation

turned a re

scription.

future, and

be increased

Summary

The of

ship between

activity to

indicated

11 Jan M.
Reserve

12 Richard
Paras a
1971, p

dollars was spent in 1969. Another source, the U.S. Fish and Wildlife Service estimates that in 1965, nearly 28 million persons 12 years and older fished three or more days, spending almost 3 billion dollars on this sport. For one singular expenditure - transportation - the expenditure figures are staggering. For example, Dan Bechter estimates that National Park visitors spend over 6 billion dollars a year on travel.³¹ Richard Kraus estimates that for all transportation related to recreation, the total expenditure is nearly 80 billion dollars a year.³²

The expenditures for recreation, as well as overall recreation participation, are enormous. What has been termed a recreation boom is certainly an appropriate description. Present trends indicate that, in the foreseeable future, participation, and consequently expenditures, will be increasing.

Summary

The focus of this chapter is to indicate the relationship between leisure and recreation. Recreation is an activity that occurs within available leisure time. Also indicated is the fact that available leisure time is

31 Dan M. Bechter, "Outdoor Recreation", The Federal Reserve - Kansas City, November, 1970.

32 Richard Kraus, "The Economics of Leisure Today", Parks and Recreation, Volume VI, Number 8, August, 1971, p. 61.

increasing
being the
the demand
there is
if this, in
majority of
we will find
where the
will be
to meet this

increasing substantially. Consequently, with recreation being the principal use of leisure time, we also find the demand for recreation increasing to the extent that there is currently a recreation boom. The significance of this, in terms of urban recreation, is that with the majority of America's population living in urban areas, we will find that our urban areas will become the arena where the increase in demand for recreational opportunities will be realized. And just how adequately we are able to meet this demand will be the focus of future chapters.

For

activity

mineral

is this

that are

accelerated

What

these is

higher is

resource

such as

will not

reoccur

listed at

Higher I.

The

...

CHAPTER II

EXTERNAL IMPLICATIONS FOR RECREATION

Recreation is an area of enormous significance and activity within itself. By the same token, it is also vulnerable to conditions or factors external to it. It is this vulnerability, and a number of external conditions that are currently influencing recreation, that are accelerating the urban recreation crisis.

While numerous external factors could be identified, this thesis is primarily concerned with three areas: the need for higher density urbanization; the competition for scarce resources; and the current energy problem. Other factors, such as economic considerations or changing societal values, will not be discussed since their impact, or influence, is reoccurring and generally predictable. The three factors cited above will be examined in this chapter.

Higher Density Urbanization

The question of moving towards a higher density style of living than that which exists today is a question that most would consider a problem that either will not occur, or will not occur during their life time. It is the contention of this thesis, however, that current evidence indicates

the

evidence

denial

envision

...

rather

higher

do we

by each

than for

and the

our at

emerge

...

higher

and the

while

maintain

in the

...

tion

the by

reside

openness

lower

just the opposite. Through such factors as the costs of housing - particularly the detached single family home - and the costs and availability of land, it is becoming more evident that we are being forced to move towards higher density styles of living more rapidly than we may necessarily envision or desire.

The relationship between recreation and present urbanization trends is very critical. If the trend is towards a higher density, or a more compact style of living, then how do we plan for the recreation needs? Today's density standards, by comparison, are relatively low, and yet, much of our urban population lacks accessible recreation opportunities. And given the prospects for a more compact urban environment, our ability to deliver adequate recreational opportunities emerges as a critical question.

The basis upon which the prediction is made towards a higher density living style is the present housing market. And more specifically, the single family detached dwelling. While it may appear tangential to speak of single family housing in a topic on recreation, a strong relationship does, in fact, exist. This linkage requires some elaboration.

Generally speaking, the demand - or desire - for recreation is dependent upon, to a great extent, the need for and the availability of recreation opportunity. In low density residential areas, where there are larger lots and more openness, the need for many kinds of recreational outlets is lower when in comparison to higher density urban living such

in law

Exclusi

partie,

vincent

reactio

space

numero

to do

and det

need,

I

presen

a great

contains

notes

contains

altern

contains

since

A

this

has in

1963 an

created

11

10/10/63

10/10/63

as high rise apartments. This type of contract can be found in larger central cities versus the more spacious suburbs. Excluding cultural and social recreational desires, e.g., parties, barbecues, etc., a person in a higher density environment will often times feel a greater need for many recreational needs. This may entail the desire for more open space just to get a sense of fresh air, or a park to do numerous outdoor activities. A suburban dweller may be able to do these things in his own back yard. Thus, a more compact and denser form of living may indeed increase the desire, or need, for recreation outlets.

If the above hypothesis is true, then, by virtue of the present trends in housing, we will certainly be experiencing a greater demand for recreation within our urban areas. The housing condition is essentially the fact that single family homes are becoming too expensive to continue as the dominant housing form. Instead, we may have to adopt other housing alternatives - higher density in most cases - to meet future housing demand. This, in turn, will force upon us a more dense form of urban living.

A look at recent data will demonstrate the reasons for this. The price tag for new single family housing in America has increased substantially during the past decade. Between 1963 and 1969 the median sales price for new housing increased from \$18,000 to \$26,000.³³ When converted to square

33 Lynne B. Sogalyn and George Sternlieh, Zoning and Housing Costs, Rutgers University, the State University of New Jersey, 1972, p. 20.

app
prior
to \$15.35
When
startlin
lation, a
that pro
land in
deplate
is living
situation
of an av
As a res
real est
buyer ha
of the
here inc
this inc
Korda, e

2- Bill
Korda
3- Bill
Korda
1973
4- Bill
Korda
1973

footage of finished floor for new homes, including land, the price increased from \$13.20 per square foot in 1963 to \$15.35 per square foot in 1968.³⁴

When viewed in an urban market context, the results are startling. For example, The New York Regional Planning Association, a private regional planning group in New York, states that presently the lowest price for a new house on vacant land in the Region ranges from \$30,000 to \$45,000.³⁵ To deflate the argument that this is a result of New York's cost of living, Lansing, Michigan closely resembles the same situation. In Lansing, and the Tri-County area, the price of an average new home ranges between \$25,000 and \$45,000.³⁶ As a result, when considering the high mortgage rates and real estate taxes, bankers generally require that a home buyer have an annual income around half of the purchase price of the house. Thus, only families with \$15,000 a year or more income can actually afford new housing. In New York, this includes only 20 percent of the population, or in other words, excludes four out of five families.

34 Elliot Wilbur, Jr., Housing: Expectations and Realities, Washington, D.C: Arthur D. Little, Inc., 1971, p. 17.

35 William A. Caldwell, How To Save Urban America, New York Regional Planning Association, New York, New York, 1973, p. 21.

36 Tri-County Regional Planning Commission. Housing Market Analysis: Tri-County Region of Michigan. March 1973.

W.H.

housing

market

made to

form of

apartmen

lower in

would, c

compact

W.H.

family i

most imp

the price

able lan

construct

1969 and

1974, c

Just

ability

building

is rapid

role, the

in m

What this indicates is that the present market for new housing cannot meet the majority of market demand. If the market demand is to be met, or at the minimum, a response is made towards the greatest area of demand, a more inexpensive form of housing will be needed, i.e., townhouses, high rise apartments, etc., where the costs per unit are generally lower due to economies of land and construction costs. This would, of course, convert to either a higher density or more compact form of urban living.

What factors account for this increase in cost of single family housing? While numerous reasons can be cited, the most important factors are the rising costs of construction, the rising costs of, and the diminishing amounts of, buildable land. For example, Table 4 indicates the increase in construction costs for single family detached homes between 1969 and 1974. As this Table indicates, between 1973 and 1974, construction costs increased by over 12%.

Just as critical as construction costs are the availability and costs of buildable land. We cannot continue building on new land forever, and the land we do build upon is rapidly increasing in price. While it does sound incredible, there are signs that indicate a shortage of buildable land in many areas. As Richard Nelson points out:

An entirely new factor has within the last five years suddenly appeared on the American scene. For really the first

This is not
of vacant land
sale for development

Percent
1970

1969 to
1970 to
1971 to
1972 to
1973 to

quarters of the
the other part
the 2.3 billion
And of the
parks and

57 Richard
Orlando
p. 7.

58 Robert A.
public

59
Magazine,

time in our history, we are faced with the problem of land shortages.³⁷

This is not to say that the United States will be running out of vacant land. However, land that is suitable and desirable for development is finite. While it is true that three

Table 4.

Percentage Increase in Construction Costs Between
1969 and 1974 For New Single Family Homes³⁸

1969 to 1970	Up	2.3%
1970 to 1971	Up	7.8%
1971 to 1972	Up	3.3%
1972 to 1973	Up	11.0%
1973 to 1974	Up	12.1%

quarters of the American people live on only 1.5% of the land, the other 98.5% is not all buildable land. Nearly half of the 2.3 billion acres of American land is still farmland.³⁹ And of the remaining land, there are mountains, forests, parks and other land forms not desirable for urban use. Thus,

37 Richard L. Nelson, "Land Values in the United States", Urban Land Institute, Volume 28, Number 2, January, 1969, p. 7.

38 Robert H. Greg, Current Homesite Development Costs, Unpublished Annual Report, March 1, 1974, p. 4.

39 _____, "The New American Land Rush", Time Magazine, October 1, 1973, p. 86.

in a practical
that can, in

Where

around the
Minnesota
growth. It

prime agric
curtail prod
here. The

not experie
tan area,

assumption
other than

true that w
in agricult

equally con
less, every

being lost
Government

50,000 acres

ment, with a

agricultural

desirable an

rapidly.

The first

the land.

that in real

in a practical sense, there is a limit to the amount of land that can, or should, be used for the urban environment.

Where the problem is presently becoming acute is around the larger metropolitan areas. Some cities, such as Cincinnati, have physical boundaries that tend to limit growth. Others, such as St. Louis and Chicago, are invading prime agricultural lands to the extent where movements to curtail growth by strong land use controls are being considered. Medium size cities, such as Lansing, Michigan, while not experiencing the same problem as the large metropolitan areas, are also beginning to question the uncontrolled absorption of land that may be better suited for land uses other than those associated with urbanization. While it is true that with technological advances, less people are needed in agriculture to feed the American people. It is not equally convincing that less land will be needed. Nonetheless, every year vast amounts of prime agricultural land are being lost to urban development. As an example, state Government officials estimate that Michigan is losing up to 50,000 acres of undeveloped land each year to urban development, with a large percentage of the lost land being prime agricultural acreage. Given this condition then, land both desirable and suitable for development is diminishing rapidly.

The final factor deals with the rising costs of buildable land. A few argue that land prices are not really rising, that in reality, urbanization is now occurring in areas not

original

this may

first and

building

creasing

at a time

that the

was 3.7

the lot

of this

Year

1970
1971
1972
1973
1974

Price per

acre

per acre

Water
Main

1975

originally considered for development. In certain instances this may be true. However, convincing evidence supports the first argument. For example, a National Association of Home Builders study found that while lots have generally been increasing in size, the price of the lot has been increasing at a higher rate, as indicated in Table 5. The study found that the annual increase in lot size between 1950 and 1969 was 3.7 percent, while during that same period the cost of the lot increased 15 percent annually. An extreme example of this can be found in Orange County, California, where the

Table 5.

Changes in Cost and Size of Developed Lots⁴⁰

Year	Average Lot Size (sq. ft.)	Average value
1950	7,558	\$1,485
1960	8,932	2,808
1964	10,312	4,567
1969	12,839	6,183

price for an acre of land for a single family home increased from \$3,000 to \$30,000.⁴¹ Nationally, it is estimated that all parcels of land of all ages has increased from \$2,569

⁴⁰ National Association of Home Builders, NAHB Survey of Membership, 1969.

⁴¹ _____, "The Challenge of Rising Land Costs," The Urban Land Institute, Volume 72, June, 1968, Number 6.

In 1956

by increas

Not

are also

housing.

total co.

Heater

from 11

Type

Str

on

me

large

over

fire

As

already

2 Alle

101

101

101

101

101

101

in 1956 to \$3,924 in 1966.⁴² Hence, land costs are definitely increasing.

Not only are land costs increasing as a whole, but they are also becoming a larger percentage cost of the price of housing. Table 6 shows the land costs percentage of the total costs of a structure for 1949 and 1969. The table indicates that land as a percentage of the total cost increased from 11% in 1949 to 21% in 1969.

Table 6.

Home Building Cost, 1949 and 1969⁴³

Type of Cost	1949	1969
Structure	70%	56%
on site labor	33%	18%
materials	36%	38%
Land	11%	21%
Overhead and profit	15%	13%
Financing	5%	10%

As a consequence of rising housing costs, the market is already showing signs of responding to the need to develop

⁴² Allen A. Schmid, "Suburban Land Appreciation and Public Policy", Journal of the American Institute of Planners, No. 36, January, 1970, p. 38.

⁴³ The original source is the Bureau of Labor Statistics and National Homebuilders Economic Department, Congressional Record, October 29, 1969, p. E9113, as reprinted in the City of Lansing Community Renewal Program, Housing Market Analysis: Lansing, Michigan, October, 1972.

lower per unit cost housing styles. Using the Lansing area as an example, Table 7 indicates the number of new housing units by type between 1969 and 1970. Here we can see that,

Table 7.

Tri-County Region Housing Trends, 1960-1970⁴⁴

	1960	1970	Change Number	1960-70 Percent
Year Round Units:				
Single Family Homes	76,680	84,274	7,594	9.9
Duplex Units	5,923	7,689	1,766	29.8
Multi-Family Units	8,457	19,878	11,421	135.0
Mobile Homes	1,543	3,945	2,402	155.7
Total	92,603	115,786	23,183	325.0

excluding mobile homes, multi-family units increased by 135 percent, versus single family homes, which have increased by only 9.9 percent. Thus, it is becoming evident that there is a definite trend towards higher density living styles.

The evidence is clear that the present housing situation is requiring that a more clustered, or dense, form of urban living may have to be realized in the near future. This, in turn, is going to require an efficient

⁴⁴ Tri-County Regional Planning Commission, Housing Market Analysis: Tri-County Region of Michigan, March, 1973.

method of d
recreation :

The Corporation

The dec

Health procl

While it is

out the 20th

to experien

of urban re

money and 1

The 14

a critical

Such a situ

of establish

-5 Gold, 1

method of delivering recreational opportunities to meet the recreation demands of the population.

The Competition For Scarce Resources

The decade of the 70's is ushering in a new and difficult problem for our cities - a scarcity of resources. While it is true that the problem has been growing throughout the 20th Century, it is only now that we are beginning to experience the problem in any meaningful scale. In terms of urban recreation, the resources of greatest concern are money and land.

The question of the allocation of scarce resources is a critical one. States Seymour Gold:

In a society of competing needs and relatively scarce resources, the question of whom gets what, when, where and why are important and controversial.⁴⁵

Such a situation is requiring an evaluation of the process of establishing priorities, as well as to carefully

⁴⁵ Gold, Op. Cit., p. 11.

evaluate t

And as the
heavily up
the policy

Such ques
allocate

As re

the quest
reaction d
ty virtue
recreatio
means. I
which all
too often.

46 Claws
47 Ibid,

evaluate the use of each resource.

Competition for natural resources will almost certainly force a more careful evaluation of their value for different uses in the future than has been characteristic in the past.⁴⁶

And as the determination of allocation begins to weigh heavily upon the perceived or realized return or benefit, the policy issue becomes:

.....how far is the public willing to make resource allocations based upon comparative marginal returns or values?⁴⁷

Such questions become very critical when the decisions to allocate scarce resources need to be made.

As resource allocation relates to urban recreation, the question or issue is one of competition. Urban recreation differs greatly from other resource competitors by virtue of the fact that the benefits derived from urban recreation are not necessarily amenable to quantifiable means. It is difficult to measure the benefits upon which allocation decisions are normally made. Thus, all too often, resource allocation for urban recreation is

⁴⁶ Clawson and Knetsch, Op. Cit., p. 299.

⁴⁷ Ibid, p. 310.

en made

ires an

high of t

implicit

means -

of societ

ment of a

means-end

nificant

resources

ed as an

reaction

becomes

recreati

approach

recreati

un-used.

The

its area

43 Urban
Outer
Deve

often made after other, more readily measureable needs or desires are met.

Public policy on leisure and recreation.....remains on a catch-as-can basis, depending on left over resources, fiscal as well as physical, which are essentially organized for non-recreational purposes.⁴⁸

Much of the controversy stems from the qualitative value implicit in urban recreation. Urban recreation is a means - one of many - towards a quality of life desired by society. In other words, urban recreation is one element of a desirable quality of life. When viewed in a means-end relationship, urban recreation takes on a significant value, and ultimately, a justification for resources. Too often, however, urban recreation is viewed as an end in itself. Just the provision of urban recreation is considered the end product. This narrow view becomes translated into the attitude of delivering urban recreation services only when possible. The failure of this approach becomes manifested by the current state of urban recreation delivery - non-creative, ill-planned, and un-used.

The low status attitude towards urban recreation finds its greatest impact in the area of monetary resources. Local

⁴⁸ Urban Recreation, A Report Prepared for the Nationwide Outdoor Recreation Plan, Department of Housing and Urban Development, November, 1972, p. 1.

units of goods
available for
demand for

While almost
lending was
program a
Kraus:

Other products
because of
commanding
It has been

© Richard
Economic
Company
Kraus, C

units of government are experiencing an acute shortage of available monetary resources in the face of increasing demand for such resources:

While expenditure requirements for goods and services are increasing, many local jurisdictions do not have the resources to meet the rising costs, and even the more affluent local governments are able to finance their expenditures only by placing a heavier tax burden on resident property owners.⁴⁹

While almost every facet of urban government is experiencing vast increases in needed resources, social related programs are claiming the largest bite. States Richard Kraus:

.....the cost of welfare, slum clearance and low cost housing, education, law enforcement, and related programs has risen dramatically. As a single example, New York City's Budget in 1960 was \$2.2 billion. The mayors proposed "survival budget" for 1971-72 was \$9.1 billion.⁵⁰

Other problems, such as environmental pollution, are, because of their present significance and popularity, commanding larger shares of local resources. For example, it has been estimated that the total cost of cleaning all

49 Richard B. Clemmer, Paul K. Gatons, Arthur F. Schreiber, Economics of Urban Problems, Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1971, p. 128.

50 Kraus, Op. Cit., p. 62.

of the nations waterways will be over \$100 billion, and that a heavy share of this cost must be borne by the cities.⁵¹

With a greater demand being placed upon resources from so many other urban services, and with the rather low status placed upon urban recreation, many recreation programs are in a tenuous position, with many operating with serious deficiencies. One example is the City of Cleveland, whose park and recreation department experienced an 80 percent budget cut in the winter of 1970-71.²¹ Another element to the problem is the increase in demand for urban recreation, while at the same time, recreation departments are unable to receive increased funding.

In 1973, the Michigan Department of Natural Resources conducted a survey of all units of government within the State of Michigan, regarding various aspects of recreation activity. One of the questions involved the priority listing of the ten most pressing problems related to recreation. The results of this particular question are found in Table 8. For all levels of government surveyed - county, township, municipal and State - the report states that, "Although there is some variation, there is agreement among all of them that money to meet recreation needs is

51 Ibid, p. 63.

52 Ibid, p. 64.

Specific

1. Apathy
2. Fed. /
3. Panic
4. High
5. Income
6. Land
7. Need
8. No mar

Rank

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.
- 4.
- 5.
- 6.
- 7.
- 8.
- 9.
- 10.

the most

An

recreati

33 Which
Recep

34 1010

Table 8.

Ten Most Pressing Recreational Problems,
Michigan Governmental Units, 1973⁵³

Specific Problems Cited:

- | | |
|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| 1. Apathy, indifference | 9. No public programs |
| 2. Fed./State regulations | 10. Not enough aid |
| 3. Funds competition | 11. Not enough time |
| 4. High taxes | 12. Low funding priority |
| 5. Income limitations | 13. Other (not specified) |
| 6. Land use | 14. Poor public relations |
| 7. Need technical help | 15. Schools not involved |
| 8. No more land in area | 16. Vehicle use conflict |

Rank	County		Township		Municipal		State	
	Prob.	%	Prob.	%	Prob. &		Prob.	%
1.	4	18.37	4	20.75	4	21.33	4	20.79
2.	3	12.25	1	15.72	1	14.67	1	14.55
3.	6	12.25	5	11.32	3	12.00	5	10.16
4.	12	12.25	6	10.69	5	10.67	3	8.31
5.	7	10.20	7	6.92	8	8.00	8	6.24
6.	1	10.20	8	5.03	7	4.44	7	6.00
7.	13	6.12	16	4.40	14	3.56	6	5.77
8.	2	4.08	10	4.40	12	3.56	16	3.93
9.	14	4.08	14	2.52	13	3.11	10	3.93
10.	5	4.08	11	2.52	15	2.22	14	3.23

the most pressing problem of them all.⁵⁴

An examination of the sources of financing for urban recreation helps to indicate why the problem is so acute.

⁵³ Michigan Department of Natural Resources, Michigan Recreation Plan - 1974, State of Michigan, 1974, p. 125.

⁵⁴ Ibid, p. 130.

le 9

for rear

Unit of
Government

County
Township
Municipal

0-2500
2500-5000
5000-10,000
10,000-25,000
25,000-50,000
50,000-100,000
100,000-250,000

P.C. = P

Revenue

are: (a

making

(See a

exhibit

this in

33 101

Table 9 indicates the per capita and percentage expenditures for recreation by unit's of government in Michigan by

Table 9.
Revenue Sources By Levels Of Government
For Michigan 1972-1974⁵⁵

Unit of Government	General Fund		Grants		Revenue Sharing		Special Millage		Other (Fees, Etc.)	
	P.C.	%	P.C.	%	P.C.	%	P.C.	%	P.C.	%
County	.25	20	.54	43	.06	5	.29	23	.11	9
Township	1.58	59	.32	12	.12	5	.11	5	.50	19
Municipal	5.80	79	.31	4	.35	5	.30	4	.61	8
0-2500	1.74	35	1.56	31	.39	8	.11	2	1.23	25
2500-5000	3.41	43	1.35	17	.07	0	.18	2	2.86	36
5000-10,000	10.73	72	1.08	7	.60	4	.84	6	1.65	11
10-25,000	4.56	71	.64	10	.40	6	.22	3	.60	9
25-50,000	4.49	53	.67	8	.78	9	.11	1	2.40	28
50-100,000	16.77	85	.22	1	.85	4	1.22	6	.62	3
100-250,000	5.01	87	.08	1	.43	7	0	0	.32	5

P.C. = Per Capita

revenue source for 1973. The five revenue sources identified are: (a) general fund tax dollars; (b) Grants; (c) revenue sharing funds; (d) special millage; (e) and other sources (fees and charges). As the Table indicates, municipalities exhibit a preponderant reliance upon general fund revenues. This indicates a situation where local recreation must compete

⁵⁵ Ibid, p. 130.

with other
amount of
At a
monetary
turned on
1973, on
sharing re
comes from
out that:

Instead,
revenue a

36 Com
on
Tre
37 181

with other municipal program priorities for the limited amount of revenue available from the general fund pot.

At one time, revenue sharing was considered a great new monetary resource for recreation. However, this has not turned out to be the case. Table 9 indicates that during 1973, only 5% of recreation expenditures came from revenue sharing resources. One major factor cited for this occurring comes from a U.S. Treasury Department Report which points out that:

Many jurisdiction officials felt that they should treat general revenue sharing entitlements as "windfall" money because the program may terminate at the end of its current five-year authorization. Officials seem reluctant to use revenue sharing money to fund operating programs which must be financed after 1977.⁵⁶

Instead, the report goes on to state two major uses of the revenue as:

1 Most governments visited (i.e., large cities and large urban counties) are using funds in part to forestall tax increases.

2 Revenue sharing generally enabled local governments to prevent cuts in sources.⁵⁷

56 Compliance Division, Office of Revenue Sharing. Report on Compliance Visits, May-June, 1973, U.S. Department of Treasury, Sept. 1973, p. 33.

57 Ibid, P. vii.

So, in
not been
murine
sharing
all new

Also
problem
difficulty
marketab
tion. W
for deve
tion mus
urban la
can be m

Through t
by societ

Gold,

So, in effect, sources other than general revenue funds have not been utilized to any great extent for recreation. For municipalities in Michigan during 1973, grants, revenue sharing, special millage and fees accounted for only 21% of all revenue sources.

Along with the competition for fiscal resources is the problem of land resources. This problem entails the difficulty involved in allocating expensive, often times highly marketable, urban land to a non-economic use such as recreation. Within the urban centers there is much competition for developed and undeveloped land by many uses, and recreation must also find itself in competition. The taking of urban land for recreation use eliminates it for a use which can be more economically justifiable.

The provision of parks and open space in densely populated urban areas cannot be economically justified on a benefit cost with other public or private goods and services.⁵⁸

Through the characterization of recreation as a "merit want" by society, we have been able to support such taking of land

⁵⁸ Gold, Op. Cit., p. 41.

for recre
such land
recreation
The
effect of
a long t
and econ
find it
resources

The Energy

Gen
upon re
consump
which m
in recre
absorbe
situati
impact
energy

The
America

59 A "M
deem
not
ment
Gator

for recreation uses.⁵⁹ Nonetheless, the competition for such land is still considerable, and in many instances, recreations bid for some land have not been successful.

The competition for scarce resources is having a profound effect on recreation today, and, should continue to do so for a long time to come. With the growing social, environmental, and economic needs of our cities, recreation is going to find it even more difficult in the short run to acquire the resources needed to meet recreation demand.

The Energy Problem

Certain external forces will have a definite impact upon recreation. For example, there are periodic shifts in consumptive values of society - typically called "fads" - which may require a temporary, and sometimes permanent, shift in recreation needs or demand. Such impacts can normally be absorbed by the recreation system. However, other external situations may exist that create a more serious and lasting impact on recreation. A current example of this is the energy problem.

The present energy problem now being experienced in America is going to have, and is already having a tremendous

59 A "merit want" is defined as a good or service that is deemed desirable by society, but the private market cannot supply the demand adequately, thus justifying government intervention. Another example is Housing. Glemmer, Gatons, and Schrieber, Economics of Urban Problems, 1971.

impact u

require

A m

the aut

With a

has the

effect

of our

recreat

necessa

dence

divid

The Ho

a ser

that

upon

to

to

impact upon recreation. The impact is substantial enough to require some mention in this thesis.

A major portion of America's recreation is dependent on the automobile, which is also the prime user of fossil fuel. With a dwindling supply and availability of gasoline, which has the additional consequence of higher gasoline prices, the effect is going to be less travel by automobile. The history of our allocation of recreation resources has been to create recreational opportunities away from our urban centers, thus necessitating a dependence upon the automobile. This dependence on the automobile is expressed by U.S. Representative Divid R. Obey, who states that:

Outdoor recreation is.....the victim of the inefficient use of energy by our transportation system. Eighty-six percent of the travel in this country has been by private automobile while only 4 percent has been by trains and buses combined.⁶⁰

The National Park Service states that parks will experience a severe impact due to the fact that over 90% of the park visitation is private automobile.⁶¹ The emphasis placed upon automobile usage for recreation has created a situation

60 Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, Outdoor Recreation Action, Department of the Interior, Report 31, Spring, 1974, p. 5.

61 Ibid, p. 23.

of prece

The

spelled

Arthur

that:

61	101
62	101
63	101

of precarious vulnerability.

The overall effects of the energy problem are succinctly spelled out by the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation:

The energy crisis - replete with reduced fuel allocations, Sunday gasoline station closures, a 55 mph limit, and publicity about higher prices and a possible recession - is affecting recreation patterns and the recreation/resort industry.

It will take longer, cost more, and be uncertain for people to travel to recreation destinations. This situation should result in (1) a decrease in recreation at distant parks, recreation areas and resorts, and (2) an increase in use of parks and attractive close to where people live. Higher unemployment, temporary layoffs, year round day light savings time and possible four-day school and work weeks resulting from the energy crisis will further increase discretionary leisure time and use of close-in park areas.⁶²

Arthur Webster, a U.S. Transportation Official agrees, in that:

Large cars, cottages and long-distance or European vacations will become a thing of the past with people resorting to more home entertainment and long-distance communication.⁶³

61 Ibid, p. 23.

62 Ibid, p. 18.

63 Reprinted from the State News, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, April, 1974, p. 14.

Thus, to
are going
using the
This will
many are
adequate
overtaxed
is most

The
difficult
given fact
are going
need to

Summary

Rec
quest for
external

64 Ray
Cited
Reps

Thus, the immediate impact for recreation will be that people are going to have to recreate closer to home. This means using the facilities within and around our urban centers. This will create a critical problem by the very fact that many urban recreation opportunities and facilities are inadequate to meet such a demand. Many facilities are already overtaxed, and the prospects for a heavy increase in demand is most certainly frightening to local recreation officials.

The level of impact, and the needed response to it, are difficult to assess at this time. Nonetheless, it is a given fact that more and better recreational opportunities are going to be needed in our urban areas, and that planners need to be preparing for this now. States one planner:

Many problems will emerge as a result of the energy crisis, but perhaps there will be some benefits too. For recreation leaders throughout the country, this is a time of re-assessment, a time for defining new goals.⁶⁴

Summary

Recreation, by virtue of its value of supporting man's quest for a quality of life, finds itself dependent upon many external variables. Presently, such factors as urbanization,

⁶⁴ Ray Agnew, "Meeting the Challenge of Nearby Recreation," Outdoor Recreation Action, Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, Report 31, Spring, 1974, p. 36.

searching

ing rec

addition

to requ

deliver

scarcity of resources, and the energy problem are all impacting recreation. As a result, they are making a substantial addition to the urban recreational crisis, and are serving to require planners to re-evaluate present urban recreation delivery mechanisms to better meet urban recreation demands.

CHAPTER III

THE GOVERNMENT RESPONSE TO RECREATION

In the previous two chapters, the discussion has focused on activities that have a definite influence on urban recreation. These factors, however, primarily serve as an influence on the supplier, that is, they serve to measure the amounts of recreational opportunities that need to be provided. These factors are essential in any analysis of urban recreation. To complete the analysis, however, it is also necessary to examine the supplier.

In this case, the analysis of the suppliers of recreation will be focused upon government. While it is true that the private sector also supplies recreational opportunities, such an analysis would be impossible to undertake in this thesis. As a result, the investigation will be confined to the recreational opportunities supplied by the Federal, State, and Local governments.

It is essential that an analysis of governments response to recreational needs be presented, for much of the present urban recreation crisis can be attributed to governmental policy. What should become evident as a result of this analysis is the imbalance of government towards rural outdoor recreation, and the neglect of the needs of the urban

residents

recreatio

that are

satisfy t

est need

have

recent.

Thus, the

has helped

As to

responses

initiated

present r

each leve

5 Butler

residents. The present emphasis is on the allocation of recreation resources towards outdoor recreation activities that are located away from urban areas, while neglecting to satisfy the day-to-day recreational needs of those in greatest need - the urban dweller.

Government response to recreation has been relatively recent. George Butler states:

Until late in the nineteenth century, Federal, State, and Local governments considered recreation primarily a private concern and with few exceptions spent no tax funds for recreation. A striking change in attitude during the last half century, however, has resulted in extensive recreation developments under government auspices. Recreation is now considered a major concern of Federal, State, and Local governments, which, through a variety of agencies, are contributing to the recreational use of peoples leisure.⁶⁵

Thus, the history is not a long one, but certainly one which has helped to generate our present urban recreation problem.

As the three levels of government initiated their responses to meeting the growing recreation demand, they also initiated what is considered to be a major reason for the present recreation dilemma. From practically the beginning, each level carved out its own area of influence, and

⁶⁵ Butler, Op. Cit., p. 37.

preferred

clusive

As

stayed w

overlap.

66 Charl
Admin
1953,

preferred not to work together as a unified whole. This exclusive "turf" approach is still found today:

Professionals have diligently tried to do this by defining the areas of responsibility in each governmental level by imposing limits of area, limits of function, limits of finance, by pleadings, and by coercion, but without complete success especially in the borderline "areas of gray" between any two levels of government.⁶⁶

As a result, each level of government has primarily stayed within their own sphere of activity, with very little overlap. As a result:

.....villages and cities do supply the hourly and daily recreation needs; counties do aim their services at the half-day or day long visitor recognizing his desire for more space than the city park; the states do entice the weekender, the vacationer, the tourist, all with more native scenery and some of the State's unique features; and the Federal Government practically ignoring the demand for neighborhood facilities, concentrates on the magnitude and glories of this wonderful country of ours. In other words, the city provides the smaller areas for active play, the more man made replicas of nature, the artistic and cultural achievements of man, the entertainment local of an urban existence. The county suggest the delights

66 Charles E. Doell, Elements of Park and Recreation Administration, Minneapolis: Burgess Publishing Company, 1963, p. 88.

of a more native environment, at the same time supplementing the effort of the lesser and weaker portions of the metropolis in their effort to provide local forms of recreation. The State enlargens the horizon; it ignores the neighborhoods, focuses attention on nature, provides facilities for unorganized recreation in a native or simulated native environment, but not without attention to accessibility of population centers. Only the widest expanses of the absolutely superlative in nature are worthy of Federal concern -- but with a newly oriented focus on an enlarged concept of responsibility.⁶⁷

This lack of cooperation has resulted in an over abundance in Federal recreation areas, with a local urban recreation system that is lacking in nearly every essential resource. As Table 10 indicates, the Federal Government recreation acreage is 266,719,900 versus the local recreation acreage of 1,629,100. In terms of actual location, Table 11 shows that by far the vast majority of recreation land that is under the jurisdiction of the Federal and State Governments are located in non-metropolitan areas. This situation has occurred over the years in spite of the fact that the greatest need for recreational opportunities are within the urban areas.

The type and extent of recreation supplied by each level of government will be the focus of the following

⁶⁷ Ibid, p. 89.

Table 10.
Public Outdoor Recreation Acreage by Type of Area and
Administering Jurisdiction, 1972-68
(In thousands of acres)

Table 10.

Public Outdoor Recreation Acreage by Type of Area and
Administering Jurisdiction, 1972⁶⁸
(In Thousands of Acres)

Administering Jurisdiction	Reg., Comm. and Neigh. Parks and					Hist. & Cult. Areas	Natural Areas	Other
	Total	Rec. Areas	Forest Areas	Fish & Game Areas				
Federal	266,719.9	19,106.8	160,165.1	32,789.9	1,310.8	28,094.8	25,252.5	
State	41,794.5	4,412.4	19,058.2	15,771.4	49.4	1,432.2	1,070.9	
County	8,131.5	1,298.8	4,407.9	1,406.7	11.3	1,338.2	28.6	
City	1,629.1	697.4	383.2	209.6	7.5	232.0	99.4	
Township	631.4	74.0	495.5	38.3	0.9	21.8	0.9	
Park and Recreation Districts and Regional Council	336.1	166.9	9.9	45.0	2.0	94.1	18.2	
Total	319,242.5	25,756.3	184,159.8	50,260.9	1,381.9	31,213.1	26,470.5	

⁶⁸ Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, Nationwide Outdoor Recreation Plan, U.S. Department of
The Interior, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, December, 1973, p. 87.

Federal
 State
 County
 Municipal
 Total
 Percent

sections. The
 role in the

The Federal

The Fedic
 been to promo
 Government, e
 water agencies
 of all types
 function of F
 operation of
 titles for p

6 Urban Rec
 7 Clawson a

Table 11

Public Recreation Areas, By location and
Level of Government, 1965⁶⁹
(Millions of Acres)

	<u>Metropolitan</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Non-</u> <u>Metropolitan</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>Total</u>
Federal	36.0	8	410.7	92	446.7
State	4.3	11	35.4	89	39.7
County	.7	23	2.3	77	3.0
Municipal	1.4	70	.6	—	2.0
Total	<u>42.4</u>	<u>—</u>	<u>449.0</u>	<u>—</u>	<u>491.3</u>
Percent	9%		91%		100%

sections. This will be followed by an analysis of their role in the present urban recreation crisis.

The Federal Response

The Federal response to recreation demand has largely been to promote non-urban types of recreation. The Federal Government, encompassing a number of different land and water agencies, administers 84 percent of the total acreage of all types of non-urban public recreation areas.⁷⁰ The function of Federal recreation is primarily of three types: operation of Federally owned properties that contain facilities for public use; provision of funds or advisory

⁶⁹ Urban Recreation Forum, Op. Cit., p. 37.

⁷⁰ Clawson and Knetsch, Op. Cit., p. 183.

service
conduct
employee
hospital
the var
function
of each

Th.
essenti
Interior

Ad
Age

Ad
National
Forest
Bureau
and
Bureau
Bureau
Departme
Army,
Corps
Tennessee

71 Butle
72 Natio

services to States and other governmental units on request; conduct of programs and operation of facilities for Federal employees, the Armed Forces, and personnel in Federal hospitals and other institutions.⁷¹ To help simplify the various types of programs, rather than explain each function separately, the discussion will focus on the role of each Federal agency.

The recreational effort of the Federal Government is essentially found in three departments: The Department of the Interior; the Department of Agriculture; and the Department

Table 12.

Acreage of Federal Lands in the United States, for Agencies Administering Lands for Recreation Use, 1972⁷²

Agency	Acres
National Park Service	24,560,635
Forest Service	187,074,194
Bureau of Sport Fisheries and Wildlife	27,990,458
Bureau of Land Management	473,994,848
Bureau of Reclamation	7,584,737
Department of Defense:	
Army, Navy, and Air Force	22,955,783
Corps of Engineers	10,612,013
Tennessee Valley Authority	910,687
Total	755,683,355

⁷¹ Butler, Op. Cit., p. 37.

⁷² Nationwide Outdoor Recreation Plan, Op. Cit., p. 85.

of Housing and Urban Development. Together, they manage almost 756 million acres of land, as indicated in Table 12. Other Federal agencies are also involved in recreation, but their scope and level of involvement is very minimal and will not reveal anything of significance. Therefore, emphasis will be placed on the three previously mentioned departments.

Located within the Department of Interior are four public land managing agencies which provide recreation. The National Park Service, however, is the only Interior land managing agency with a direct recreation mission. A fifth agency, the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, while managing no land of its own, provides recreation opportunities through grants and other indirect forms of assistance to local governments.

The National Park Service administers more than 275 natural, recreational, and historical areas totaling about 30 million acres.⁷³ This land has been set aside by Congress or Executive action for preservation and public use. Facilities include tent, cabin, lodge, and hotel accommodations; bridal and hiking trails; boat docks; museums and picnic facilities.⁷⁴ While incumbent within these areas is the provision of recreation, another important, and co-equal goal

73 The Urban Recreation Forum, Urban Recreation, Department of Housing and Urban Development, November 8, 1972, p. 38.

74 Butler, Op. Cit., p. 38.

is the protection of our resources. In addition, the majority of these parks lie beyond major urban areas.

The Bureau of Sports Fisheries and Wildlife is mandated the mission of the conservation of wildlife and their natural habitat compatible with recreation activities such as bird watching, nature study, photography, hunting, fishing. Other related recreational uses are allowed provided such use does not damage the natural habitat.

The Bureau of Land Management manages over 450 million acres of public land.⁷⁵ Originally, these lands were considered only for their consumptive products such as minerals, forage, and timber or as potential agriculture lands to be held for disposal. Little of this land was actually used for recreational purposes of any type until 1964, with the passage of the Multiple Use Act, allowing the Bureau to manage the land for recreational resources. This opened a new frontier in terms of additional non-urban recreation lands:

The grazing districts, O and C lands, and other public land under the administration of the Bureau of Land Management have not had large scale recreation use in the past, but they may become more important for recreation in the future. The Multiple Use Act of 1964 and the creation of the Public Land Law Review Commission almost surely presage programs to make

75 Urban Recreation Forum, Op. Cit., p. 39.

these land more generally available to outdoor recreation use.⁷⁶

They still, however, lack a specific charter to provide recreation services, and thus, are not able to provide the amount of recreational opportunity that they are capable of.

The Bureau of Reclamation, in administering and managing reservoirs, has opened them up to such activities as fishing, boating, picnicking, swimming, hiking, and other recreational activities. However, instead of developing and administering the recreation resources of its area, the Bureau will normally transfer them over to another Federal Agency.

The Bureau of Outdoor Recreation is responsible for administering the Land and Water Conservation Act of 1965, which was established to ensure the availability and accessibility of outdoor recreation resources to all Americans. The Act appropriates funds for three activities; (1) planning; (2) acquisition of land, waters, or interests in land or waters; and (3) development.⁷⁷ Forty percent of the fund is set aside for Federal purposes, and the other 60 percent is allocated to the States. The state allotments can be

76 Clawson and Knetsch, Op. Cit., p. 188.

77 Hearings Before the Subcommittee on National Parks and Recreation of the Committee on Insular Affairs - House of Representatives, 90th Congress, Second Session, February 6, 7, 21, and March 4, 1968.

filtered down to the local units of Governments on a 50-50 matching basis. The catch is that only projects involving land acquisition and facility development for outdoor recreation can be assisted under the fund program.

Within the Department of Agricultural, there are two agencies directly involved in recreation; The Soil Conservation Service and the Forest Service. The Soil Conservation Service assists localities in flood prevention and watershed protection. The programs provide for the construction of reservoirs with recreation or fish and wildlife enhancement as the primary purpose.

The Forest Service, under the Multiple Use-Sustained Yield Act, manages national forests for a variety of purposes including range, timber production, watershed, and fish and wildlife, as well as outdoor recreation. The Forest Service manages 187 million acres of land, upon which are located 6,800 camp and picnic grounds and over 206 privately owned and operated ski areas.⁷⁸ The recreation objectives of the Forest Service are to:

Provide the facilities and services needed by the people to enjoy the healthful outdoor recreation opportunities available in

⁷⁸ Urban Recreation Forum, Op. Cit., p. 45.

the national forests and to keep all public use areas in safe and sanitary conditions.⁷⁹

Activities such as camping, picnicking, skiing, riding, mountain climbing, hunting, fishing, and other activities, appropriate to the forest environment are located here.

One of the more well known programs, the open space land program, is administered through the Department of Housing and Urban Development. This program was established under the Housing Act of 1961, and broadly extended in the 1965 and 1970 Housing and Urban Development Acts. Presently, the program has been terminated, but it is a significant enough program to be mentioned here.

Basically, the program provided a direct 50 percent matching grant to local communities for acquiring and developing land. Since 1962, over 1000 local units of government were assisted in acquiring approximately 348,000 acres of urban open space with grants totaling \$442 million. As the following indicates, Table 13, 23.5 percent of the grants were for cities under 50,000 population and 76.5 percent for cities over 50,000 population. In addition, Title IV of the 1970 Housing and Urban Development Act included historic preservation under the open space program.

79 Butler, Op. Cit., p. 39.

Table 13.

Department of Housing and Urban Development
 Open Space Program⁸⁰
 1962-1971
 (dollars in thousands)

Population Size	Projects		Grants		Acres	
	No.	%	Amt.	%	No.	%
4,999 and under	349	10.0	\$ 18,546	4.2	21,632	6.2
5,000 to 9,999	316	9.1	17,254	3.9	12,372	3.5
10,000 to 24,999	550	5.8	32,711	7.4	20,103	5.8
25,000 to 49,999	<u>447</u>	<u>12.9</u>	<u>35,157</u>	<u>8.0</u>	<u>17,069</u>	<u>4.9</u>
Total small communities....	1,662	47.8	\$103,662	23.5	71,172	20.4
50,000 to 99,999	403	11.6	39,253	8.9	26,645	7.7
100,000 to 249,999	459	13.2	65,016	14.7	59,413	17.1
250,000 to 499,999	383	11.0	64,261	14.5	41,265	11.8
500,000 to 999,999	362	10.3	89,317	20.2	55,789	16.0
1,000,000 and over	<u>205</u>	<u>5.9</u>	<u>80,377</u>	<u>18.2</u>	<u>93,970</u>	<u>27.0</u>
Total large communities....	1,912	52.2	\$338,224	76.5	277,032	79.6
TOTAL.....	3,474	100.0	\$441,886	100.0	348,258	100.0

The State Response

The state response to recreation needs is still primarily rural oriented, with the goal the protection of resources and the aquisition of land in rural areas. Even so, the states role in recreation is cited as a crucial one. States the

80 Urban Recreation Forum, Op. Cit., p. 41.

Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission:

In a national effort to improve outdoor recreation opportunities, State governments should play the pivotal role. They are more advantageously situated than either local units or the Federal Government to deal with many current recreation problems. States have direct experience in shaping programs to meet varying conditions and particular needs of their citizens. And they have the necessary authority. They.....are responsible for guiding and assisting all the political subdivisions within the States.⁸¹

Generally speaking, the States have entered into the market of supplying recreation on a large scale basis. For example, State park and recreation agencies are now spending about a half billion dollars annually, nearly 500 percent more than ten years earlier.⁸² With the advent of the Land and Water Conservation Fund in 1965, each State has designated an agency responsible for Statewide recreation planning. As a result of this funding, State park acreage has increased by 75 percent.⁸³ However, the vast majority of this increase has been in rural recreation and resource protection.

81 Ibid, p. 43.

82 Ibid, p. 44.

83 Ibid, p. 45.

Michigan represents an example of State recreation resources that are primarily rural in orientation. As Table 14 indicates, of the over 4,400,000 acres of recreation

Table 14

Michigan Recreation Lands, 1973⁸⁴

Resource by Jurisdiction	Total Acres	Total by level of Government
National Forests	2,692,296	
National Parks	170,538	
National Wildlife Refuges	111,384	
Federal Total		2,974,218
State Forests	3,770,056	
State Game Areas	262,935	
State Parks		
Class I	1,520	
Class II	19,314	
Class III	78,444	
Class IV	53,901	
Class V	64,023	
Class VI	969	
State Park Total	218,171	
State Water Access Sites	30,910	
State Total		4,282,072
County	33,532	
Township	8,562	
Municipal	65,821	
Regional	18,600	
Local Total		120,515
Grand Total Public Recreation Lands		7,382,805

84 Michigan Recreation Plan - 1974, Op. Cit., p. 120.

land in Michigan, the State has jurisdiction of almost 4,300,000 acres, all of which are State parks, forest, or game areas. Only 120,000 acres are devoted to a more local use.

The State perceives their role not as a supplier of recreation to urban areas, but rather, to develop natural and recreational areas accessible to urban areas.

Many of the State parks and related areas possess features of scenic, scientific, historical, archeological, and other recreational interest of statewide significance. However, many of the other State park and recreation areas have been selected primarily for their proximity to concentrations of population, and they have been developed largely to meet the need for non-urban recreation.⁸⁵

Consequently, very little in the way of State funds or resources are given to local areas for recreation needs.

The Local Response

Local units of government have been supplying recreation for only 100 years. Initially, the recreation movement started with playgrounds in Boston during the latter part of the 19th Century, became more elaborate with the Central Park schemes in the early 1900's, and resulted in the present urban recreation system which delivers a variety of recreation services and programs.

⁸⁵ Clawson and Knetsch, Op. Cit., p. 46.

A rough estimate of the magnitude of urban recreation systems is indicated by a National Recreation and Parks Administration survey conducted in 1970. The results show 1,119 local agencies managing 30,509 areas totaling 486,400 acres and 22,500 centers for indoor facilities.⁸⁶ The study also revealed that in 1960, cities spent nearly 5 percent of their budgets, or \$551 million, for recreational purposes. In 1970, the figure was still 5 percent, but the dollar amount was \$1.3 billion, an increase of 240 percent. Per capita expenditures reveal similar increases. Table 15 shows the per capita expenditures for eleven selected cities for 1960, 1965, 1968, and 1970. In 1970, per capita expenditures ranged from \$4.98 in San Antonio to \$17.78 in Peoria. Between 1960 and 1970 the average per capita expenditure increased from \$5.63 to \$10.96, nearly 100 percent.

Coinciding with the increase in recreational expenditures is the increase in facilities and recreational opportunities being offered to the local resident. Clawson indicates that between 1925 and 1960 the acreage of parks increased by nearly three fold.⁸⁷ Facilities located in these areas have also increased, For example, softball diamonds have increased nearly ten times; baseball diamonds more than quadrupled; golf courses and bathing beaches more

86 Urban Recreation Forum, Op. Cit., p. 46.

87 Clawson and Knetsch, Op. Cit., p. 196.

Table 15

Per Capita Expenditures for Parks and Recreation In 11
Selected Cities, 1960-1970⁸⁸

City	1960	1965	1968	1970
New York	\$4.22	\$6.48	\$6.19	\$6.92
Los Angeles	4.78	5.67	4.77	8.72
Chicago	7.57	8.97	11.72	13.79
San Antonio	1.72	2.56	2.83	4.98
St. Louis	4.82	5.57	5.85	8.44
Atlanta	3.67	4.76	9.11	9.85
Minneapolis	7.14	6.17	9.09	14.70
Nashville	5.09	4.50	4.52	5.95
Oakland	8.59	9.87	13.21	16.73
Dayton	5.70	7.15	8.90	12.73
Peoria	8.63	10.63	14.69	17.68
11 City Average	5.63	6.58	8.26	10.96

than tripled, and tennis courts have more than doubled.⁸⁹
Thus, the involvement and investment in recreation by local
units of government is substantial.

By far the most popular recreation use offered by
local agencies is the playground. The NRPA survey reveals
that in 1970 there were 7,999 summer playgrounds alone.⁹⁰
The popularity of the playground rests with the diversity

88 National Recreation and Park Association, "Local Agency
Survey", Parks and Recreation, Volume VI, Number 8,
August, 1971, p. 21.

89 Urban Recreation Forum, Op. Cit., p. 46.

90 Ibid, p. 46.

of activities normally found within their boundaries. Beyond the playground, cities now offer a variety of recreational opportunities in the form of bike trails, soccer fields, shuffle boards, swimming pools, and many other activities. It is mainly here, at the local level, where such a variety of activities is offered.

Local recreation agencies find themselves being the main agency for delivering recreational opportunities to the largest number of people. Federal and State recreation areas, while serving a large user population, are utilized mainly on weekends or during vacations. On the other hand, local recreation areas are needed by urban residents for use on a day-to-day basis, thus requiring more extensive facilities, and more of them. On other words, cities are the largest supplier of recreational opportunities in both usage and expenditures.

The Impact Of Government On Urban Recreation

It is now obvious, by the information presented in this chapter, that all levels of government are substantially involved in providing recreational opportunities. Thus, when aggregate recreation supply is considered, it can be said that all levels of government are working towards the goal of providing a variety of recreational opportunities. When examining specific needs, however, particularly those of an urban population, one finds this effort falling woefully short.

As urban residents are allotted more leisure time, and the urban environment becomes more congested and intolerable, planners find that the greatest need for some kind of recreational outlet to be within the urban areas. States Elinor Guggenheimer:

The urban dweller is, in our era, so often the victim of frustration, of traffic congestion on the streets and pedestrian congestion in stores and office buildings, of noise and air pollution and of tension and delay. Activities that provide pleasure and contentment and that are recreative of the human spirit are especially important to him.⁹¹

The accessibility to daily recreational opportunities becomes essential in an otherwise crowded and hurried environment. Historically, and this still continues today, the primary agent for the provision of urban recreation has been the local units of government, who are finding themselves lacking in the ability to meet this challenge. The fact that the Federal and State governments have not involved themselves with supplementing local governments for purposes of recreation has greatly added to the current urban recreation crisis.

91 Elinor C. Guggenheimer, Planning For Parks and Recreation Needs In Urban Areas, New York: Twayne Publishers, Inc., 1969, p. 26

The Federal Government has, within its command, vast monetary and technical resources capable of making a substantial impact on the recreation needs of the urban dweller. The fact that they do not is a policy long held by the Federal bureaucrats. In the late 1950's, when the Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission was established by the Federal Government, the indication of an explicit policy of hands off towards urban recreation was first revealed:

.....critical analysis of the legislation establishing the Commission and the Commissions studies and published reports reveal a very limited emphasis on urban parks, and primary emphasis on resource oriented parks and uses. This was not the fault of the Commission, but of Congress for passing a law which mandated, "Outdoor recreation resources shall not mean nor include recreation facilities, programs, and opportunities usually associated with urban development such as playgrounds, stadia, golf courses, city parks and zoos". In essence, Congress stated that information about the recreation problems and potentials of the cities was not needed; this is one cause of the problems characteristic of urban recreation today.⁹²

Thus, at a critical time in America, when cities were growing quite rapidly, and recreation needs were increasing substantially, Congress turned its back and allocated

92 Gold, Op. Cit., p. 24.

sorely needed resources to other areas. States Gold:

By calculation, or by oversight, Congress can be held responsible for creating this turning point in the quality and quantity of urban recreation facilities.⁹³

The effect of Congress diverting recreation funds to rural outdoor recreation use has been to create an imbalance in terms of recreation resource allocation. In other words, there is a definite bias towards recreation that is to be used by the urban population by escaping from the city. There is an implicit push for people to seek out recreation in distant places:

The Federal government has assumed a major role in acquiring and developing outdoor recreation resources through a system of national parks and forests.... To date, Federal funds have focused mainly on supporting the development of recreational facilities rather than recreational programs. For the most part these recreational benefits have been available primarily in non-urban areas.⁹⁴

Such escape types of recreational opportunities, which are normally used on weekends and vacations due to their

93 Ibid, p. 25.

94 Urban Recreation Forum, Op. Cit., p. 32.

distance from the cities, do very little to aid the urban dwellers in their need for day-to-day recreational escapes.

Much criticism has been leveled at the Federal government for this policy, including the Citizens Advisory Committee on Environmental Quality (CACEQ), which stated that:

The bulk of Federal monies for recreation are still for park and recreation projects outside city limits. There have been some reasons for this emphasis: the land is much cheaper, and, it can be argued, in many cases it does serve the people of the city. The fact remains however, that the most important recreation for people is their everyday recreation. The needs are now particularly acute in the central city, and, it is in the center of the city, not somewhere else, that they must be met.⁹⁵

The CACEQ goes on to say that:

We urge a substantial reordering of priorities for Federal aid to recreation. Not enough money is being made available; too little of what is available is reaching the urban areas that need it the most - and what little does reach them is of secondary importance.⁹⁶

Thus, the Federal resources for recreation (money and technical manpower) that could be used to make a significant

95 Citizens Advisory Committee on Environmental Quality, Annual Report to the President and the Council on Environmental Quality, Washington, D.C., 1972, p. 23.

96 Ibid, p. 22.

impact on urban recreation, are not. Consequently, urban areas must utilize their own overtaxed resources to supply urban recreation.

Another potential aid for local recreation is the States. However, they too follow the policies adhered to by the Federal government:

The states largely have followed the recreation policy of the Federal government. Their focus upon acquisition of cheaper rural land removed from urban populations has resulted in an imbalanced distribution of recreation benefits for most urban people.⁹⁷

The states have primarily allocated recreation resources for parks and natural areas in the rural sections of the States, which again, require urban residents to travel great distances to reach them. While states are in the advantageous position, due largely to their more direct link with local units of government, to offer direct assistance to urban areas for recreation, they too have chosen not to do so.

Consequently, through the policies of the States and the Federal government not to supplement local units of government in the provision of urban recreational opportunities, the cities have had to, for the most part, go it alone. And the cities, in terms of fiscal resources, are

⁹⁷ Urban Recreation Forum, Op. Cit., p. 45.

the least capable to do so. With the rising costs and demands of local services, and the already overtaxed revenue generators available to local governments (the property tax), the resources needed to supply such services are being spread very thin. On the other hand, the states and the Federal government have a much better capability to generate resources, i.e., the income tax, needed to support such services as urban recreation. Unfortunately, they have decided not to do so.

Thus, we find the situation of local units of government having to bear the burden of providing urban recreation opportunities, which, at this point, is not sufficient to meet the demand. At the same time, the States and the Federal governments, which have the ability of greatly increasing the capability of local units to provide urban recreation, are adhering to a policy of allocating their resources to rural outdoor recreation instead. Hence, we find present governmental policies greatly contributing to the present urban recreation crisis.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY: THE URBAN RECREATION CRISIS

The three previous chapters have served to indicate those factors that are creating an urban recreation crisis. The term "crisis" here is meant to reflect the seriousness of the problem, and that, unless positive measures are taken to alleviate the present condition, the situation will become very grave. The dictionary defines crisis as the "turning point", or "a decisive or critical moment". For urban recreation, this is most certainly the situation. We must either make the decision now to reinvest our resources towards providing the opportunity to recreate oneself within the urban environment, or stand to lose one fundamental aspect of our quality of life. And, faced with the prospect of a more highly sophisticated, congested, and fast paced society, this we cannot afford to do.

Each chapter dealt with various factors individually. This chapter will attempt to put the urban recreation situation into perspective by combining the various aspects of the problem into a complete picture.

The majority of Americans now reside within the urban centers. At the same time, the majority of working Americans also work within an urban area. The critical question of

of this thesis concerns the urban dwellers activity during non-working hours. A percentage of this time, it can be assumed, will be spent on some form of recreation activity. To the working person, it is essential:

No human being can survive without activities that represent some change in pace from that portion of his life that is characterized as work, obligation, or duty.⁹⁸

And this need becomes most acute in the urban environment, due largely to its seemingly impersonal and congested character.

Historically, recreation was to be acquired through individual initiative, which meant it was up to the individual to find whatever it was that one desired to do for recreation. This was provided either by government, who, not by design necessarily, had vast open space reserves which could be enjoyed by those who desired it, or it was furnished by the private sector in the form of amusement or entertainment. It wasn't until the early part of the twentieth century that government seriously entered the service of providing recreation. This was due primarily to the recreation needs created by the growing industrialized cities.

Throughout this century, the provision of recreational opportunities was a function of the increases in population.

⁹⁸ Guggenheimer, Op. Cit., p. 27.

This, however, was often times difficult, and normally, supply has not maintained pace with demand. Today, however, additional problems are being added to the recreation problem that now elevates the problem to a crisis situation.

First of all, no longer are recreation units confronted with the singular problem of increasing demand due to normal population increase. There now exists the situation whereby the individual is experiencing an increase in available recreation time. Thus, demand is now increasing by two functions - population and increasing individual recreation opportunity. The effect is to have existing recreational facilities overcrowded that much longer. This will make it even more difficult to provide an adequate supply of recreation opportunities.

Secondly, this increase in available recreation time afforded to an increasing urban population will, in the future, take place in a much higher density living environment. Consequently, there will be larger clusters of people desiring additional recreation opportunities.

At a time when cities are experiencing this rise in recreation demand, the resources available to meet this demand are becoming more difficult to find. Cities are currently experiencing a fiscal crisis as well, in terms of monetary resources, and those resources made available for urban recreation are not always adequate. In addition, the urban areas are becoming developed to the extent that converting urban land to recreation use is very costly in terms

of benefits lost to the city, i.e., income generated from revenue producing uses. In effect, then, cities are slowly losing ground in a battle which is essential to win.

Adding to the already complex problems facing cities, there now enters the serious problem of energy shortages. With very little hope for a short term solution, cities are now confronted with the addition of weekend vacationers upon the urban recreation scene. That is, with the lower supplies of gasoline, and its higher price, those individuals who would normally migrate from the city to far away recreation spots are now finding it necessary to fulfill their recreation needs closer to home.

Excluding the energy issue, the problems identified in this thesis have been occurring over a period of time. Hence, these are not startling facts discovered overnight. In other words, government officials had some idea that these problems either were occurring, or very likely to occur in the future. Nonetheless, government policies have done little to alleviate, or mitigate the problems. Both the states and the Federal government have adopted a hands-off policy regarding urban recreation needs, thus leaving the problem to the cities. Unfortunately, the cities are not capable of handling the problem alone. And even the cities have, on occasions, neglected to fulfill this responsibility by relegating recreation to a lower priority item for scarce city resources. Then means-end relationship of recreation is often times not fully understood. In essence then, even

the local government response to the urban recreation problem has not been serious enough to adequately address the problems, and in a very real sense, have actually added to the problem.

In view of the problems facing urban recreation, the serious problem of meeting the recreational needs of the urban population needs to be addressed. Identifying the steps that are necessary, and the creation of a policy necessary to circumvent this situation is the focus of the second half of this thesis.

PART II

CREATING AN URBAN RECREATION POLICY

INTRODUCTION

The dilemma that confronts the provision of recreational opportunities to urban dwellers is not unsolvable. While the present situation is certainly serious, there are avenues that recreation planners can follow which can serve to turn around the present trend of decreasing recreation opportunities. One approach or alternative to solving the present dilemma of urban recreation is the focus of this section.

The subsequent chapters of this thesis will describe a proposal for reducing, or eliminating, the crisis situation presently being experienced by both the suppliers and users of urban recreation services. The proposal itself will deal with the conceptual, or policy level. However, those conditions identified, will be addressed throughout this section. The intent of this proposal is not to develop a specific plan, but instead, to develop the policy framework needed to develop such a plan.

To devise a framework for urban recreation planning, a number of specific factors need to be addressed such as: the planning scale, urban recreation demand, and contemporary recreation planning processes. The result of this analysis will be a policy for a proposed urban recreation planning

system. The importance of each element needs to be discussed.

The question of scale, in this case the jurisdictional level for which planning should occur, is very critical. The issue is which jurisdictional level, local or metropolitan, has both the resources and the delivery capability needed to provide adequate recreational opportunities to urban areas. In addition, should the process be designed for each local unit of government, or should it incorporate an entire metropolitan area? Which level delivers the best opportunities with the greatest efficacy?. These questions will be addressed in Chapter V.

Chapter VI will discuss the relationship of population composition to recreation demand. A recreation system that is designed for an urban area needs to be highly sensitive to the diverse population that must be planned for.

Present planning approaches designed to meet urban recreation needs will be the focus of Chapter VII. Included in this discussion will be an analysis and critique of the use of recreation standards, open space planning, and planning methodologies.

Based upon the discussions of the previous chapters, Chapter VIII will include and focus upon the policy being set forth in this thesis. The proposed policy will suggest three areas of critical importance. First, there is a need to re-emphasize the neighborhood as the basic unit of planning, the most important level for meeting the

day-to-day needs of the urban resident. Secondly, there is a proposal to create a metropolitan recreational opportunity system, which would reduce travel to distant areas for outdoor recreation. And finally, there is a need to encourage better coordination between the public and private recreation systems.

CHAPTER V

METROPOLITAN RECREATION PLANNING

An important consideration regarding urban recreation is the level or scale of planning needed to deliver recreational opportunities to the urban population. It is the contention of this thesis that the most desirable level for delivering urban recreation opportunities, in terms of the most efficient use of the public recreation dollar and in reaching the greatest number of people, is at the metropolitan scale. A primary consideration, then, is the development of recreation plans for a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (SMSA), rather than for a single local unit of government. It is important that the needs of any given local unit of government be addressed, but within the context of a "metropolitan" plan. The two major reasons for advocating recreation planning at the metropolitan level are efficiency and location of the population. The following discussion addresses both of these points.

Location Of The Population

Population location bears a direct relationship to the need for metropolitan wide recreation planning. This relationship is based upon two important considerations:

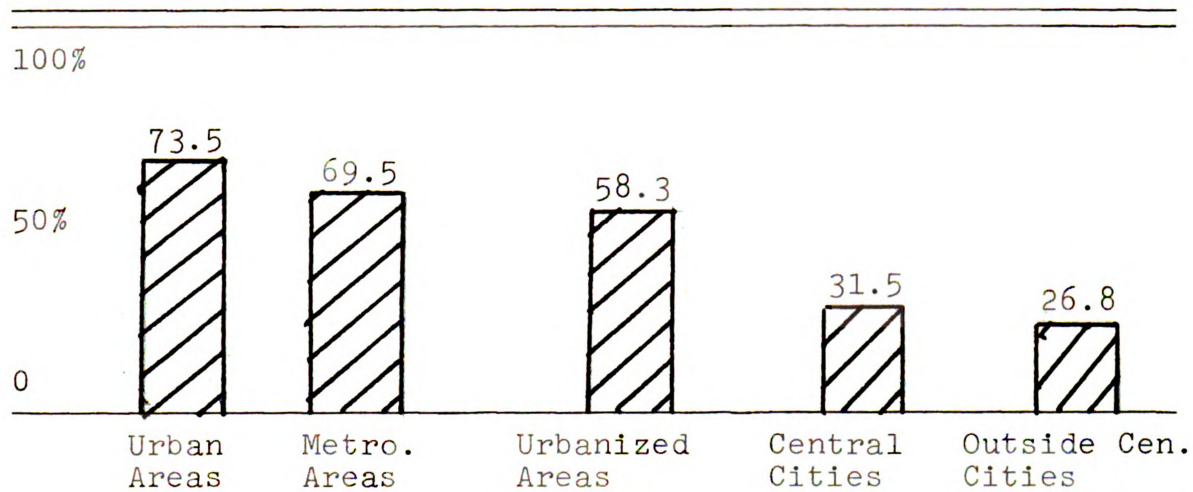


Figure 4.

Distribution of U.S. by Residence Population, 1970⁹⁹

1. The majority of the U.S. population is located within the SMSA's, and 2. the location of the population within the SMSA's. The consequence of both necessitates a move towards a higher planning scale than the individual local unit of government.

For nearly the last one hundred years, the population trend in America has been one of people moving to urbanized areas. We are truly becoming an urbanized society. Figure 4 indicates the population distribution by residence in the United States in 1970. According to the 1970 Census, nearly 74 percent of the population live in urban areas, which is defined as incorporated areas consisting

⁹⁹ Urban Recreation Forum, Op. Cit., p. 5.

of 2,500 or more population. More importantly, the census indicates that nearly 70 percent of the population live in metropolitan areas, which are the 247 SMSA's. Therefore, when speaking of areas of greatest recreation need, i.e., population numbers equating recreation demand, the metropolitan areas of the country become an important area of concern.

The need to focus on metropolitan areas is also supported by indications of population residences in the future.

Most Americans live in relatively few large metropolitan areas, which keep getting larger. By 1980, 54 percent of the Nations population will live in urban areas with a million population. Fully 71 percent of all Americans will live in 125 metropolitan complexes whose population exceed 250,000. Recreational opportunity will be most deficient in those populated areas where the supply of open space is diminishing rapidly while competing demands for it are increasing sharply.¹⁰⁰

The greatest area of demand is presently in the metropolitan areas. In the future, this demand is going to increase even more. Thus, for adequacy of recreation opportunity, now and in the future, the area of greatest concern is in the metropolitan areas.

¹⁰⁰ Ibid, p. 5.

The need for recreation planning at the metropolitan scale is also evidenced by the location of the population within the SMSA's. Within metropolitan areas there is an unequal distribution of recreational opportunities. By virtue of an individuals location within an SMSA, it may indicate the types of recreational opportunities available, or unavailable, to the resident. States an ORRRC report on Chicago:

The difference in the socio-economic character of these people in the City of Chicago as against that of those in the suburbs, in the relative accessibility and the availability of outdoor recreation opportunities and facilities, are two of the most striking factors. A higher portion of the people in the city have less mobility and below median incomes; the city has much higher net residential density with less per capita public or quasi-public open space; a greater variety of urban type recreation opportunities exist in the city. Place of residence thus has a most important influence on outdoor recreation practices and interests.¹⁰¹

The distribution of recreational opportunities within a metropolitan area points to the need to develop a uniform process of ensuring adequate opportunities to all. For example, a number of communities within an SMSA may have

¹⁰¹ Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission, Outdoor Recreation For America: The Future of Outdoor Recreation in Metropolitan Regions of the United States, Report 21, Volume 1, Washington D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1962, p. 10.

an over abundance of baseball diamonds or tennis courts, with many going unused, while another community within the same SMSA may have relatively fewer of such facilities, and are overcrowded and deteriorating. Or, certain sections of the SMSA may be the location of restaurants and pubs, and requires that the majority of users reach these points by automobile, or for those who cannot drive. Thus, the metropolitan areas tend to have a structure whereby recreation opportunities are unevenly distributed throughout the population. One possible way to alleviate this problem is to elevate recreation planning to a metropolitan level.

Efficiency

The second factor pointing to a metropolitan scale of recreation planning is the efficacy of this approach. The present form of delivering recreation opportunities is highly inefficient in the sense that there are too many units of government in metropolitan areas attempting to deliver the same services from unequal resource bases. Consequently, the more affluent areas have an over abundance of opportunities, while the less affluent areas, such as the central cities, have less. The discussion of this section will focus on the inefficiency of present recreation systems due to the fragmentation of metropolitan areas, and the prospect for an economy of scale through the consolidation of such services into a metropolitan system.

The fragmentation of local units of government within a metropolitan area erodes their ability to adequately meet the demand for public services. Harris Hordon, an urban economist, suggests that:

The excessive political fragmentation that characterizes most metropolitan areas is the fundamental cause of metropolitan area governments inability to provide an adequate supply, in both quantitative and qualitative terms, of local public sector facilities and services.¹⁰²

Rather than see a consolidation of governmental units to gain access to those resources now being competed for, we still find areas around central cities forming their own political entity to create and creating increased competition. Such communities also tend to be small, and thus, unless they encompass a very wealthy population, find it difficult, in many cases, to supply the needed services. States the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations of the U. S. House of Representatives:

Within metropolitan areas, many important issues of public policy can no longer be handled by local communities acting alone; their small areas of

¹⁰² Harris E. Hordon, Introduction To Urban Economics: Analysis and Policy, New York: Meredith Corporation, 1973, p. 219.

jurisdiction are inadequate for either administering area wide services or resolving area wide problems.¹⁰³

Nonetheless, political subdivisions continue to appear around the central cities. And, as Hordon points out:

As a consequence of the separation or division of political jurisdictions between central cities and suburbs, the growth of suburban areas caused a marked deterioration in central city fiscal capacity.¹⁰⁴

But this does not pertain to central city - suburb comparisons. States Raymond Vernon:

In many areas there are great discrepancies in the capacities of local governmental jurisdictions to provide needed governmental services.¹⁰⁵

Vernon is referring to the competition between suburban communities, with many being more affluent than others.

103 Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, "Metropolitan Needs and Government Performance," Political Power and the Urban Crisis, edited by Alan Shank, Boston: Holbrook Press, Inc., 1969, p. 6.

104 Hordon, Op. Cit., p. 221.

105 Raymond Vernon, "The Myth and Reality of our Urban Problems," City and Suburb, edited by Benjamin Chinitz, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1964, p. 114.

One consequence of the fragmentation of local units of government is the point of view which advocates the creation of metropolitan units of government. The result would be the consolidation of suburbs and central cities into a single unit of government having jurisdiction over the entire metropolitan government structure, however, there does exist the potential for some services, such as recreation, to be both planned for and implemented at the metropolitan level through intergovernmental cooperation. Such an approach may be one way to reduce the effects that fragmentation has on many urban services.

For recreation, the effect of this fragmentation has been to force local units of governments to compete, and plan, for resources. In other words, instead of planning for people, they are emphasizing the acquisition and planning for resources.

Urban park and recreation planning is still more resource oriented than people oriented. The planning function normally is fragmented among a number of governments within a metropolitan area. Further, the planning function within each unit of government often is scattered among several agencies. Comprehensive planning for recreation services that are meaningful to the metropolitan community is frustrated in this environment.¹⁰⁶

¹⁰⁶ Urban Recreation Forum, Op. Cit., p. 35.

To make urban recreation planning more meaningful, and equally efficient, will require that a planning system be developed to overcome the fragmentation that presently exists. To do so will necessitate a recreation system that is both planned for, and implemented at the metropolitan level.

The following discussion will focus on specific rationale for placing the provision of urban recreation services and opportunities at the metropolitan level. As a result of changing to a metropolitan wide emphasis, the planning and implementation requirements become very important. The planning considerations will be covered extensively in Chapter VIII. Implementing metropolitan recreation plans will not be addressed specifically in the thesis since this relates to planning implementation in general, which is beyond the limited scope of this thesis. For purposes of this thesis, it will be sufficient to say that a metropolitan planning agency, such as that being proposed in this thesis, would have the same implementation powers as a large municipal recreation planning agency. In addition, many of the specific policy recommendations in Chapter VIII point to, or imply, implementation powers necessary to carry out a metropolitan wide plan.

A consolidation of the local recreation planning functions into a single metropolitan wide function is desirable both in terms of efficiency and cost. The former was just discussed, and the latter, "costs" of providing government services will be discussed here.

The "Cost" factor of urban services can be more appropriately described as an "economy of scale", that is, attempting to find the scale of service that reaches the greatest cost efficiency. In addition, economies of scale connotes specialization, that is, reaching the most cost efficient level of service through specialization. Examples of this situation can be identified in many areas where there are metropolitan transportation authorities or metropolitan water treatment systems. Thus, precedence does exist.

Many urban economists suggest that there is a large potential for numerous economies of scale services in metropolitan areas. Vernon points out that:

The advent of the metropolitan age and the concomittant development of modern urban culture are creating new demands for many government services and increasing standards of other services. Many of the emergent needs can be supplied only by new governmental agencies designated to operate on a metropolitan scale.¹⁰⁷

When considering a much broader resource base that can be utilized, this view, as expressed by Vernon, does hold a lot of merit.

One of the major problems fostering a hesitance on the part of local units of government to consolidate their services is the strong desire to remain independent, and to retain

¹⁰⁷ Vernon, Op. Cit., p. 114.

control over their own resources. And yet the fact of the matter is, local units of governments are becoming more and more dependent on each other. They are, in effect, one single urban entity. This view is supported by the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, which points out that:

Underlying many metropolitan problems is the failure of government to come to grips with the growing interdependence of people and communities within metropolitan areas. As urban settlement spreads across lines of local jurisdictions, the cities and suburbs together come to comprise a single integrated area for living and working.¹⁰⁸

What essentially exists are artificial boundaries that attempt to foster a local identity within a much larger whole. Regardless of the fact that people within a metropolitan area perform a majority of their activities throughout the metropolitan area, many still consider themselves as citizens only of their own particular community. As Vernon suggests:

In the modern metropolitan community, a family may reside in one jurisdiction, earn its living in one or more others, send their children to school in another,

108 Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, Op. Cit., p. 10.

and shop and seek recreation in still others. But to a considerable extent, the American local financial system still reflects the presumption that these various activities are concentrated in one jurisdiction.¹⁰⁹

Thus, the view of the isolated community is still widely held.

In holding an isolated viewpoint of the community, many local units of government have difficulty realizing the effects (either positive or negative) that one unit may have on the other through their actions. These effects result from either acting, or failing to act, on a problem or service.

The effect of local action (or inaction) that spread into other communities have come to be known as "spillovers". They are very common in metropolitan affairs and often consist of indirect effects.¹¹⁰

These spillovers, or effects, can be very insignificant or they can be substantial. One example is air pollution. Should one local unit decide to embark upon a massive air pollution control program, other local units adjacent to this particular unit would benefit from the action. On the other hand, should one local unit decide to place a land

¹⁰⁹ Vernon, Op. Cit., p. 115.

¹¹⁰ Advisory Commission On Intergovernmental Relations, Op. Cit., p. 12.

fill site next to a residential area of the adjacent local units, this would obviously create an adverse effect on the adjacent community.

The same problem or situation is true for recreation. Some communities may have a high demand for recreational opportunities due to a large youth population, and thus, may expend large resources to meet this demand. An adjacent community, on the other hand, may have a lesser demand, and thus consider it sufficient to meet a minimal demand, and decide that the excess, or additional demand may be supplied by the community which has a larger supply or recreational resources. Thus, there is an unequal burden of resource allocation placed upon many local units of governments.

The concept of elevating the planning of recreational opportunities to a metropolitan level may enhance the opportunity of eliminating the present unequal delivery of urban recreational opportunities by drawing upon a much broader revenue base and a system that allocates resources more evenly. Thus, those areas with the greatest need but in addition having a deficient resource base would then be able to receive the badly needed resources based upon a more equitable distribution system.

Another added potential advantage through consolidation is an economy of scale for recreation planning. This holds

the most promise in the larger metropolitan areas. States

Harry W. Richardson:

.....large units have certain advantages. They minimize area spillovers in costs and benefits that can distort budget decisions. They usually have superior revenue raising powers. Some public actions, such as measures to control air pollution, have to be undertaken on an area wide basis or not at all.¹¹¹

The larger metropolitan areas already have the mechanisms for generating the needed revenue and the need client group size for the implementation of an economy of scale operation in recreation. All metropolitan areas utilize a property tax, and a metropolitan wide recreational planning unit could tax this source for revenue, only on a metropolitan wide basis. The tax incidence in this case would be every individual property owner within the defined metropolitan area. To have an economy of scale operation, there must also be a large enough market, or client group, to sustain an efficient and economical delivery of service. The vast majority of metropolitan areas do have such a market size. Thus, with an already existant revenue source, and a sizeable market area, there exists a persuasive argument that an economy of scale

¹¹¹ Harry W. Richardson, Urban Economics, England: Renquin Books Limited, 1971, p. 150.

could be attained in the metropolitan delivery of urban recreational opportunities.

On the operational side of recreation services, an economy of scale may be realized through the avoidance of duplication of services, by the consolidation of a specialized labor pool, and through the allowance of a wider choice of alternatives related to resource allocation. Duplication will often occur when adjacent communities embark upon providing recreation services and opportunities that are all-inclusive, and yet, unnecessary. For example, Community A, with a population of 10,000, may provide an extensive area for land intensive sports such as soccer and football, and additional areas for hiking and camping. Community B, with a population of 60,000 and directly adjacent to Community A, may be providing an identical recreation area. Under a metropolitan planning system such duplication may be avoided through the provision of one area for both communities. Another area where duplication may be avoided is in the maintenance of recreation areas. Maintenance equipment of the many planning jurisdictions could be consolidated and the amount of needed equipment consequently reduced, as well as centralizing all maintenance repair facilities. A more thorough analysis would more than likely indicate other areas where duplication could be avoided.

A consolidation of the existing recreation planning manpower, i.e., planners, administrators, program people,

and maintenance employees may also be realized through a metropolitan planning system. The benefits of consolidation would entail the elimination of unnecessary or duplicated manpower, a better distribution of existing staff over a much larger jurisdiction, and a centralized administration.

In terms of resource allocation, a metropolitan planning system has the potential for creating a situation whereby more flexibility and a greater range of alternatives for allocation may exist. For example, Community A may determine that a needed recreation service or opportunity is a large passive recreation area to include such activities as hiking, camping, a zoo, and other land intensive recreation activities. In the Community, however, there may be little vacant land, or inexpensive land available to develop such a project. Consequently, in order to carry out such a plan, the Community may have to spend large amounts of its resources purchasing expensive urban land. On the other hand, an adjacent community, Community B, may be less developed and have large tracts of land available at lower prices. Under a metropolitan system, there would exist the flexibility whereby the project could be developed in Community B at a lower cost while still remaining in proximity to the proposed client population. Such flexibility would be extremely beneficial to urban recreation systems, which are constantly forced to work within the parameter of scarce resources.

To make a blanket conclusion that an economy of scale will, in fact, exist if applied to the provision of urban recreation services and opportunities would be erroneous. However, evidence such as that just presented does indicate that an economy of scale may exist if the planning and implementation of urban recreation services and opportunities is conducted at the metropolitan level. It is the contention of this thesis that the argument just presented is valid, and represents a major policy recommendation to be considered throughout the remaining chapters of this thesis.

Summary

It is proposed that the level of urban recreation planning should be at the metropolitan level, where the service of delivering urban recreational opportunities can reach the greatest number of people, while at the same time being more equitable and cost efficient.

Thus, it is proposed that urban recreational opportunities be both planned for and implemented through a planning unit located at the metropolitan level.

The need to focus on the metropolitan level is supported by the the fact that the majority of the American population resides in SMSA's, and will continue this trend in the future. Additionally, within the SMSA's there is a definite discrepancy in available recreational opportunities, and a metropolitan planning function could serve to alleviate the inequities that exist through a

better distribution system.

A metropolitan level planning unit will also enhance cost efficiency. Presently, the many urban areas are fragmented, and must rely on an unequal resource base for the supply of services. A metro wide system would utilize one resource base, thus eliminating resource discrepancies of the numerous local jurisdictions. In addition, there is evidence to indicate that an economy of scale may exist for urban recreation planning based upon a single resource base, and an optimum market or client group size.

CHAPTER VI

URBAN RECREATION DEMAND

The United States is a composite of many different populations. The population is a mixture of many cultures and lifestyles, each with their own desires and needs, which, together, make up what is called the great "American Society". Where this diversity realizes its greatest expression is in the urban areas.

The metropolitan areas of the United States are truly a mixture of extremely diverse population groups. Economically, there is the upper class, the middle class, and the lower class. Ethnically, there are the Italians, Polish, Blacks, Ukranians, Asians, and many others. There are the Catholics, the Reformed, and the Jewish. There are the establishment people and those of the so-called "counter culture". There are males and females, the young and old, with the only limitation to this list being ones lack of imagination. The significance of this heterogeneous population is that each group, while having a consensus on many general needs and wants, may express diverse and often times opposing needs and desires as they relate to recreation. It is essential that any planning process take into account these different expressions of

recreation demand, in order to more adequately meet the recreational needs of an urban population.

This chapter will focus on a number of specific and different recreational needs of an urban population. Traditional approaches to recreation planning have, to a large extent, reflected a so called "straw man" approach, whereby a generalized concept of recreation is developed and implemented for a city wide population. The effect has been one of delivering a recreation package that may be strongly desired by one population group, while strongly rejected by others. To more adequately plan for the recreation of an urban population, the planning process needs to recognize individual population group demands in addition to those of a total urban society. When having to work with scarce resources, it becomes imperative that for a recreation plan to be effective, it must satisfy the greatest number of recreation demands as possible. The diversity of population groups that make an urban society, and consequently, what planners need to consider when developing an urban recreation plan, will be the subject of the ensuing discussion.

The Urban Client Group

Before the planner develops plans designed to address the recreation demand of an urban population, he must first define the urban population. More specifically, just what are the characteristics of those for whom he is planning? It often times appears to be a general consensus among

urban recreation planners that the urban population has standardized recreation needs and desires. There are baseball diamonds in neighborhoods that have a high percentage of youth, and there are baseball diamonds in neighborhoods that are predominately elderly in population. This type of recreation planning gives the impression that those who are doing the planning either believe that cities have a homogeneous population, or they do not know very much about the population they are planning for.

When viewing the characteristics of a city, a great diversity of population groups exist within the city boundaries. When elevating recreation planning to a metropolitan wide level, there is an even greater number of diverse client groups. The differences between a central city and the suburban ring are a good example of this condition.

Most of the families, the elderly and the disabled receiving public assistance live in the central city. Most central city residents are tenants; most suburban residents are homeowners. There is a greater percentage of children living in the suburbs. There is a greater percentage of old people living in central cities. Central cities, particularly the "inner city", are generally more densely populated and have much less underdeveloped open space than suburban communities. The rate of ownership of private automobiles among households in the central cities is half that of the suburbs.¹¹²

112 Urban Recreation Forum, Op. Cit., p. 20.

These differences have serious ramifications for planning recreational opportunities within a metropolitan area. The particular type of recreational opportunity that is to be encouraged and developed must be based upon the needs and desires of those that are designated to be the client group. The lack of sensitivity to the specific client group will often times result in a serious lack of use of that recreational service. David Gray points out that:

A park that is designed only as a physical environment without regard to the needs and wishes of the potential park society is not apt to attract heavy use.¹¹³

The necessity to plan for the particular needs and desires of the designated client group cannot be emphasized enough. To ignore it may ultimately lead to failure. To be sensitive to those client groups represents one positive step towards eliminating the present urban recreation dilemma.

The Diversity of Urban Demand for Recreation

Urban recreation demand, that is, the expressed recreation needs of an urban population, is very complex:

It is a Baltimore grandmother sitting on the high white stone steps of her home watching the neighborhood street scene.

113. David Gray, "The Un-hostile Park", Parks and Recreation, Volume V, Number 2, February, 1970, p. 61.

It is a Sunday family outing in Golden State Park. It is an evening church social in Buttermilk Bottom, Atlanta; a rock concert in Robert F. Kennedy Memorial Stadium; and a crowded school playground in a Westchester County, New York suburb.¹¹⁴

Thus, what is desired by an urban population varies from group to group, and individual to individual.

The individual recreation needs are difficult to define, let alone plan for. To attempt to plan at this level is a misuse of resources. On the other hand, planning for population groups or clusters is not only feasible, but also desirable. Various group recreation needs can be readily identified. Particular groups have particular recreational requirements. These groups can be classified by such variables as sex, age, income, ethnic background, education and other various possibilities. Even by one's intuitive sense, it may become apparent that these groups have recreational desires unique to their own group. For the most part, however, recreation planners appear to have paid only lip service to these differences. As a consequence, today there exists the situation that is aptly summed up by Gold, who says:

Most neighborhood parks are a tragic monument to these differences because

¹¹⁴ Urban Recreation Forum, Op. Cit., p. 19.

they usually reflect the objectives, values, and conditioning of the suppliers or decision makers instead of the users.¹¹⁵

By ignoring these differences, the stereotypical recreation system emerges which often times falls short of meeting the numerous specific needs of an urban community.

There is such a diversity of population, it is not possible to cite them all. Instead, the focus will be on specific examples of population differences within an urban area, and how these differences are manifested into different recreational needs.

a. Income Groups

The amount of income that one receives has been identified as a definite factor regarding certain needs or desires for recreation. Income influences such factors as location (where one lives and accessibility to recreation opportunities) and the amount of time and financial resources that can be expended for recreation. Thus, if a breakdown is made of income groups into three categories - lower, middle and upper - there will be varying differences in their location, and available time and money expended for recreation.

Lower income groups are typically at the lower scale in terms of having opportunities for recreation. Generally, lower income groups are located in the most recreational

¹¹⁵ Seymour Gold, "Non-Use of Neighborhood Parks", Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Number 38, November, 1972, p. 375.

deficient areas of the metropolitan area, and have few resources that can be directed towards recreation. States Guggenheimer:

The residents of low income neighborhoods and communities do not have the resources either to travel to, or pay for, the many leisure time activities which are enjoyed by middle-income and upper income groups. Families on public assistance do not own automobiles, nor do their budgets provide the funds to pay for transportation to recreation facilities outside the neighborhood.¹¹⁶

Special attention needs to be paid to the specific needs of lower income groups. In this case, recreational opportunity alone may not be enough. Added to this may be transportation opportunities (public transportation) and even recreation subsidies (free use of fee type activities such as zoos or museums). The desired recreational opportunities may differ as well. Instead of camping, they may require more structured or programmed activities, particularly for the young, where in many cases both parents have to work.

Lower income groups are generally located in densely populated areas of the city where open space or breathing room tends to be in short supply. In these areas yards are usually much smaller than in the more affluent areas, and which requires more additional play area opportunities for

¹¹⁶ Guggenheimer, Op. Cit., p. 37.

children and families.

Middle-income groups in contrast to the lower income groups, have more available resources for recreation. By virtue of their higher level of income, they have the opportunity to spend more time and income for recreation, and are able to seek out forms of recreation that lower-income groups are unable to participate in or acquire. For example, middle-income groups tend to socialize more at pubs and restaurants because they have the means to do so. In addition, they are able to participate in metropolitan wide recreation opportunities as a result of their higher mobility.

Middle-income groups do not feel the same pressures for certain types of recreation when compared to lower-income groups. Says Guggenheimer:

The need for facilities maybe somewhat different from that in the low-income neighborhoods. Most of the homes, particularly in the one and two family neighborhoods with relatively low densities, provide some living space for the family, some area for reading and study, and a backyard where small children can play and older people can sit.¹¹⁷

The environment that their income enables them to create or exist within will often times automatically supply many recreational desires. Hence, the type of opportunities that can be supplied by other sources, i.e., government or the

¹¹⁷ Ibid, p. 39.

private sector, will generally be different than those that need to be supplied to the lower-income groups.

Upper-income groups, having a far greater ability to expend resources for recreation, command an even different set of recreational opportunities, for their particular needs are substantially different than those of the other income groups:

The need of the upper-income group for an attractive environment is met through the tree planting and street beautification programs of a recreation administration. It is met, too, by the way in which the city preserves its landmarks, helps its culture institutions to increase and improve, and encourages the art and entertainment field.¹¹⁸

Their recreational needs are more culturally and status oriented. As Guggenheimer points out:

The theatre, concerts, opera, the museums, and special programs in the parks attract the wealthier families. Municipal efforts to encourage theatre and the arts, and to make access to performances relatively easy meet one of the major demands of upper-income groups.¹¹⁹

118 Ibid, p. 41.

119 Ibid, p. 41.

Because of their affluence, Guggenheimer goes on to say that:

Private clubs, restaurants, discotheques, night clubs, and first-run movie houses meet some of the leisure time needs of the residents of upper-income neighborhoods.¹²⁰

An example of the participation levels in four selected recreational activities by income level can be viewed in Figure 5. For each activity: social, water, and active

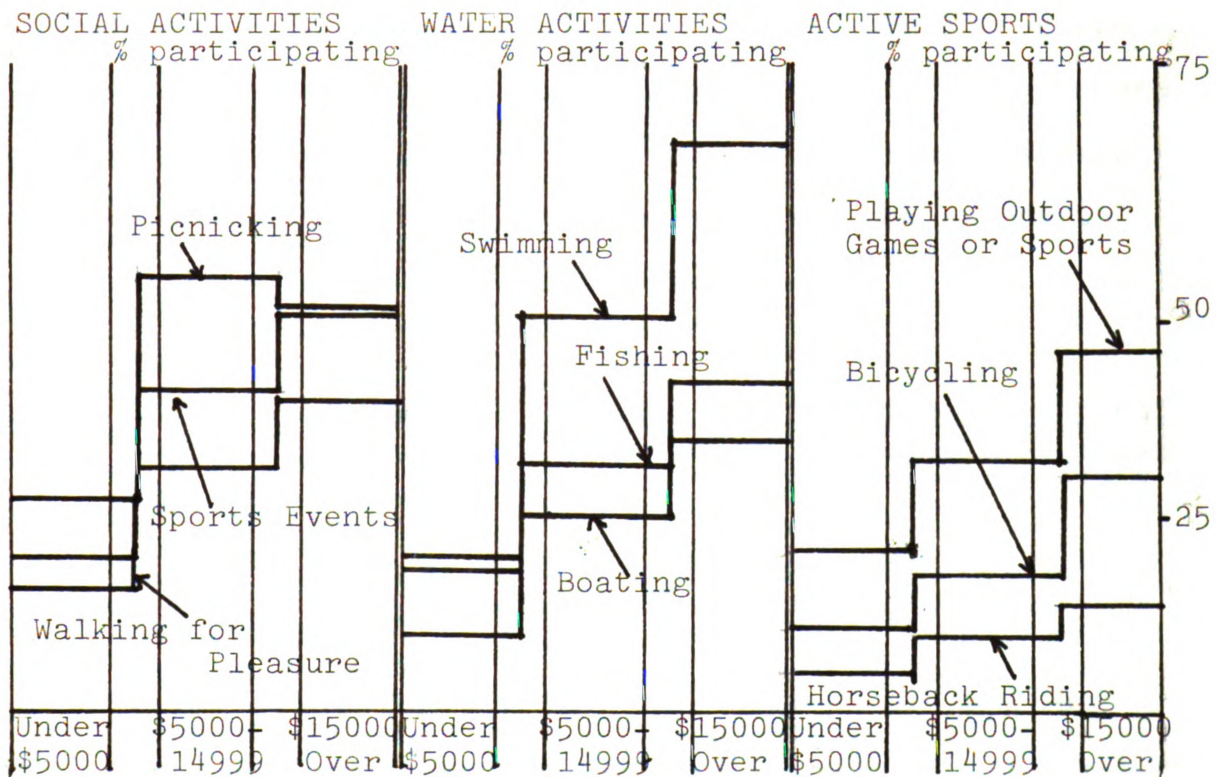


Figure 5.

Participation In Recreational Activities By Income¹²¹

¹²⁰ Ibid, p. 42.

¹²¹ Social Indicators, Op. Cit., p. 220.

sport activities, it can be seen that participation by the \$15,000 and over group was at least double that of the \$5,000 and under group, and in some instances, as in the case of boating, it was tripled. Thus, income does play a significant factor in terms of recreational opportunities of an urban population.

b. Other Socio-economic Characteristics

Excluding income, other socio-economic characteristics have a direct relationship to particular recreational desires or patterns. Of particular importance are such characteristics as: education and occupation, place of residence and region, sex, age, and race.¹²² Numerous studies have been conducted on these variables which indicate the extent to which such variables do effect recreation.¹²³

122 Gloria G. Woodward, A Critique and Appraisal of Current Recreation Planning: Methodologies as Applied to Inner City Areas, Unpublished Masters Thesis, Michigan State University, 1973, p. 146.

123 One such study was conducted by ORRRC which related 11 outdoor recreation activities with several socio-economic characteristics which included income, education and occupation, length of paid vacation, place of residence and region, sex, age, life cycle, and race. The study indicates the degree of variance of recreation activities as a result of such socio-economic characteristics. See: Woodward, Op. Cit., p.p. 146-149; Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission, Participation in Outdoor Recreation: Factors Affecting Demand Among American Adults, Study Report No. 20, Washington, D.C., 1962, p.p. 18-29; Chapter 2, "Outdoor Recreation in Relation to Socio-economic Characteristics".

An example of how a socio-economic variable affects recreation need can be shown through the variable race. Attending race are strong cultural conditions which influence behavior patterns. For recreation, these differential behavior patterns are quite evident. For example, black people have recreational desires that are quite different from their white counterpart. States Gloria Woodward:

Black people have notably different recreational behavior patterns than whites, partly as a result of ghetto living, but also as a result of recreation behavior developed in response to living patterns of a rural Southern background.¹²⁴

She goes on to say that:

For them, the street and the poolhall, the local drugstore or other neighborhood establishments meet their recreational desires more so than the middle class oriented facilities of public recreation.¹²⁵

Other differences can be noted, as Gold reports:

.....a striking contrast between the reported recreational involvements of Negro

124 Woodward, Op. Cit., p. 150.

125 Ibid, p. 151.

and white participants.....Negroes tend to dominate in certain sports, e.g., track, swimming, basketball. By comparison, Negroes participate at a much lower rate in.....tennis, golf, archery.....which have certain social class connotations.¹²⁶

Such differences in participation and expressed desire need to be taken into consideration.

b. Life Style

The particular life style of population groups have shown to be a significant factor regarding recreational preferences. Factors pertaining to life style would include such examples as type of residence, location of residence, outside interests, etc. To the extent that one adopts a specific life style will, to a great extent influence, or in some cases, define the types of recreation that will be desired.

A study was conducted by Hendricks on one specific example - type of residence - to see how it affected recreational preferences. For his study, he chose two residence types: families living in single family homes, and families living in apartments. Rather than elaborate on the mechanics of the study, presented here are some of the salient conclusions of the study. These findings are:

1. Apartment dwellers proved to be the most active in all of the leisure activities.

¹²⁶ Gold, Urban Recreation Planning, Op. Cit., p. 92.

2. Generally, the home dwellers are the most active in activities which involve contact with the outdoors in a fashion similar to that which would be encountered in a rural environment.

3. In such leisure pursuits as visiting State or National parks, hiking, fishing, and so on, the home dwellers are outstandingly more active than apartment dwellers.

4. A significantly greater proportion of apartment dwellers are active in urban forms of leisure than in the traditional rural oriented outdoor leisure activities. Similarly, more home residents are active in outdoor activities than in urban leisure.¹²⁷

The results of the study indicate that differing life styles represent different expressions of recreational preferences, and thus, certain population groups may not need identical recreation services and opportunities.

Summary

This thesis has touched on relatively few of the many variables that affect urban recreation preferences. Such variables as income, race, and life style are reflections of different population groups that exist within a metropolitan area. There are numerous other variables to

¹²⁷ Hendricks, Op. Cit., p. 29.

be considered beyond those that have already been mentioned. The significance of demonstrating these different recreation preferences is that to plan effectively for urban recreation, each, or at least most of these variables, and hence populations, must be recognized and addressed in the recreation plan.

CHAPTER VII

URBAN RECREATION PLANNING

The following chapter will discuss the methods and tools presently being used in planning for recreational services and opportunities. The discussion will center on an outline of present methods and a descriptive assessment of their techniques and applications. As such, this does not include the actual implementation, but rather, the affects of these methods and tools on the delivery of recreational opportunities. Most methodologies are similar in nature, with variations occuring generally for expediency or a chance for some creativity. Nonetheless, the results of these methods are generally the same. A descriptive approach to contempory recreation planning may indicate the reasons for this, as well as expose such shortcomings to a critical analysis.

Programatic concerns will not be discussed here. This is due largely to the fact that recreation programs are extremely varied in scope, size, length, and are fiscally and administratively scattered in nature.

Urban Recreation Planning

Planning for recreational opportunities can be characterized as a process that deviates little from the traditional

"planning process". Recreation planning is essentially the following characteristics:

1. Background descriptive data and evaluation of physical characteristics.
2. Population analysis.
3. Inventory of existing recreation areas and facilities.
4. Identification and analysis of the recreation tastes and preferences of the public.
5. Formulation of goals and objectives.
6. Application of principles and standards.¹²⁸

This is not necessarily the exact chronological order, for some activities may be done at the same time, and often times stages are left out. Nonetheless, this process can be used as a benchmark for discussing recreation planning methods. A discussion of each phase follows.

The background descriptive data and evaluation (sometimes called the survey and analysis stage) requires a systemic look at the community or area of concern for a basic understanding of what is there. Data are collected on such

¹²⁸ Woodward, Op. Cit., p. 61.

things as land use, special features, housing, natural resources, relationship to other communities, topography, economic base, and special problems. This gives the planner a good understanding of the area he or she is working with to aid in identifying needs and problems.

In any type of planning, an analysis of the population is always required. For recreation planning, an understanding of the people being planned for is critical. Doing a population analysis requires information on such characteristics as: (1) age, (2) sex, (3) education, (4) income level, (5) race or ethnic group, (6) population trends, (7) population density, (8) and labor force characteristics. This information reveals the various population groups as well as indicating, to some extent, some of the needs of the community.

An inventory of existing recreation facilities and areas basically indicates what presently exists to aid in the determination of the presumed gap between what there is now and what will be needed. This includes the types of facilities, their location, their physical condition, present use, and their present and future capability.

The process of identifying the tastes and preferences of the population is key to the plan development. Unfortunately, it is this stage that tends to be the most abused and the least used. It is truly difficult to assess and determine the needs of an urban population. Nonetheless, and this point was previously discussed, the most critical step

in devising a recreational opportunity plan is the identification of those needs. This enables the development of goals and objectives needed to direct the plan.

The formulation of goals and objectives serves to direct the effectiveness and the sensitivity of the plan to the desired end. The goals and objectives should be the result of the specific and general needs of the population, and how these needs are going to be met. This stage is extremely important, and is dependent upon the success of the previous stage of determining the needs and preferences of the population.

The final stage, the application of principles and standards represents the application of need to a predetermined set of decisions. That is, once the need of the population is determined, it is quantified and compared with fixed standards of a solution to that need. It is here where actual size, location, and scope of recreational services are determined. A further discussion of standards will occur later in this chapter.

The recreation planning process as defined above, deviates at one point from the traditional planning process. Gold defines the traditional planning process as incorporating five general stages:

1. Survey and analysis
2. Goal formulation

3. Development of alternatives

4. Implementation

5. Review and revision¹²⁹

The difference is evidenced by the third stage - the development of alternatives. This is due primarily to the use of standards, which limits the amount of discretion that can be used in devising recreation plans. Once a recreation need is determined and quantified, a fixed standard is automatically applicable, and thus, eliminates the process of developing creative alternatives. This is not to say that recreation planners must utilize these standards. However, standards are very expedient in a time consuming process, and are often times used in determining funding allocations from higher units of government.

The recreation planning process has changed very little over the years. Gold asserts that present recreation planning still follows the "traditional" approach of planning, rather than what he calls the "innovative" approach. Gold defines the traditional approach as having the following characteristics;

.....(1) quantity over quality, (2)
physical over social objectives, (3) form

¹²⁹ Gold, Op. Cit., p. 129.

over function, (4) exploitation over conservation of human and natural resources, and (5) the community rather than the individual.¹³⁰

The innovative approach, on the other hand, is defined by the following characteristics:

.....(1) quality over quantity, (2) social over physical and economic considerations, (3) function over form, (4) conservation over exploitation of human and natural resources, and (5) the individual over the community.¹³¹

Gold goes on to say that the innovative concepts are reflected in methods which generally focus on: (1) alternative or policy types of plans, (2) a continuous planning and review process, (3) a decentralized planning function, and (4) flexible planning units based on natural and human resources, activities, functions or relationships.¹³² The innovative approach towards planning evolved in the mid 1960's and is in the process of further testing in the 1970's.

The innovative approach has been attempted in many phases of planning. There is a proliferation of "policies plans" being generated in all levels of government and there are new methodologies being developed to emphasize this approach, such

130 Ibid, p. 129.

131 Ibid, p. 129.

132 Ibid, p. 129.

as the "Continuous City Planning Process" now being advocated by Melville Branch.¹³³ Recreation planning, on the other hand, has remained traditional in its view and application. The result often times leaves little to the imagination, and are non-creative at best.

Standards

Recreation standards are an essential tool of recreation planning and "no single concept or measure has had a more significant impact on the urban recreation experience than the recreation standard."¹³⁴ Recreation standards can be generally defined as:

A multitude of theories, principles, charts statistics and other evaluative or diagnostic means.....established for use in the recreation planning process which have become known as "standards". Such standards are used to describe the location, use and size of parks and other recreation areas.¹³⁵

The application of standards for recreation is widely accepted. It is because of its wide spread use and significance that a section of this chapter be devoted to standards.

133 Melville Branch, "Continuous City Planning", Journal of The American Institute of Planners, No. 39, April, 1973.

134 Gold, Op. Cit., p. 143.

135 Arthur H. Mittelstredt, Richard G. Ward, and Raymond F. Lowery, "An Appraisal of Recreation Standards," Parks and Recreation, Volume IV, Number 7, July 1969, p. 20.

a. Types of Recreation Standards

Operationally, recreation standards can be generally classified into six types:

1. Location standards: These standards indicate the location of a recreation area in relation to the size of the population or community.

2. Use standards: These indicate the type of use for a particular recreation area and the appropriate facility type.

3. Size standards: These standards indicate the minimum size of a recreation area or facility according to population size.

4. Facility requirement standards: These standards relate the minimum desirable facilities that need to be provided, and are usually measured in a facility to population ratio.

5. Facility standards for specific recreation areas: Standards in this classification indicate the types of activities and facilities that should be located within a particular recreational area type. For example, a playground may have certain minimum recreation uses or facilities.

6. Total community recreation acreage standards: Community standards are based upon a minimum acreage to population ratio for the community as a whole. Thus, a typical

standard may read 10 acres of recreation land per 1000 population.¹³⁶

An illustration of specific standards can be viewed in Table 16, which cites examples of location, use, and size standards.

Table 16.

Illustrations of Type of Standards¹³⁷

Existing Location Standards

Playfield - within $\frac{1}{2}$ -1 mile radius (National Recreation Assoc.)
 Playfield - within 1-1 $\frac{1}{2}$ mile radius (Detroit Planning Comm.)

Existing Use Standard

Playfield - one per four or five neighborhoods
 City Park - one per 40,000 population

Existing Size Standards

Playfield - 10-20 acres
 Metropolitan or City Park - 100-300 acres

or

All park total acreage - 1 acre per 100 persons

An illustration of the application of space standards is indicated in Table 17, which portrays existing space standards by government level and region. It can be seen in the table that there are apparent differences in the standard number. Such differences can normally be attributed to the variations in population size and population density of the community.

¹³⁶ Woodward, Op. Cit., p. 108.

¹³⁷ Mittlestredt, Ward, and Lowery, Op. Cit., p. 22.

Table 17

Illustrations of Space Standards by Government
Level and Region¹³⁸

Level	Region	Location	Space Standards(acres) ^a
Municipal	North	Ann Arbor, Michigan	10
	South	Dallas, Texas	10
	East	Pawtucket, Rhode Island	6
	West	Tacoma, Washington	10
County	North	Detroit Metro. Region	15
	South	Baltimore County, Md.	15
	East	Erie County, Pa.	10
	West	Santa Clara County, Calif.	15
State	North	State of Connecticut	50
	South	State of Virginia	45
	East	State of Pennsylvania	45
	West	State of Nebraska	40

a. Minimum gross standards/1000 population

A specific illustration of the application of recreation standards and the differences that occur between various recreation authorities can be seen on Table 18. As indicated by the Table, different standards are advocated by various organizations or individuals, and the selection of a standard for a given area is discretionary.

¹³⁸ Gold, Op. Cit., p. 161.

Table 18.

A Summary of Recommended Space Standards
For Neighborhood Playgrounds¹³⁹

Reference Source	Acres/Pop.	Maximum Service Radius (mile)	Minimum Size Acres	Maximum Pop. Served	Year Published
BOR	1/800	$\frac{1}{2}$	4	8,000	1964
NRPA	1/800	$\frac{1}{2}$	2.75	8,000	1967
Meyer	1/800	$\frac{1}{2}$	3-5	5,000	1964
Butler	1/800	$\frac{1}{2}$	3	7,000	1959
Nez	1.5/1000	$\frac{1}{2}$	4	variable	1961
Chapin	1/800	$\frac{1}{2}$	5	variable	1965
Duell	1/1000	$\frac{1}{2}$	6	8,000	1963
FSA	1/800	$\frac{1}{2}$	2.75	5,000	1955
ADHA	1/800	$\frac{1}{2}$	2.75	5,000	1948

b. The Value of Recreation Standards

The controversey over the merits of the use of standards in recreation planning has been occuring since the inception of standards around the turn of the century. The argument for the use of standards is aptly summed up by Doell:

.....let it be said concerning park classifications and corresponding standards that however inexact they may be, how general the need is for modifications in applying them, how subject they may be to criticism because of the unscientific way in which they have been compiled and the empirical experiences on which most reliance is placed, there is enough inherent

¹³⁹ Ibid, p. 162.

merit to them to justify a high place in the list of tools which are used in evaluating and planning a park recreation system. Classifications and schedules of standards are essential to the park administrator.¹⁴⁰

The advocates argue that something is needed to evaluate recreation programs and for designing recreation plans, and that presently, standards are all that we have.

Those who argue against it criticize standards for being too unrealistic in their application. States Stephen Smith:

The most serious criticism to be made of the space and facilities standards approach is that it is unrealistic, particularly in large cities today... in New York City, a 1967 study by the National Recreation and Park Association concluded that the city should have at least one 10-acre community park and one 8-acre athletic field for every 80,000 persons, as well as numerous other facilities. Apart from the projected cost of over a billion dollars, to achieve these standards in the crowded borough of Manhattan would mean that all buildings would have to be razed and the borough turned into one large park.¹⁴¹

Other criticisms are leveled at the fact that recreation planners use standards as a way to justify inadequately

¹⁴⁰ Doell, Op. Cit., p. 27.

¹⁴¹ Stephen L. Smith, Dimensions of Urban Recreation in 113 Selected Cities: An Exploratory Analysis, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Texas A & M, 1973, p. 23.

planned programs:

Many contemporary professional recreators tend to "hide behind" standards and defend their decisions by stating that the standard is the most satisfactory guide to follow because of the lack of anything better.¹⁴²

In terms of the application of standards, it is argued that they are too rigidly applied and do not have the flexibility to adopt to a diverse urban population:

For example, the commonly used acreage or population standard has been proven by many municipalities to be inapplicable because of varying local factors, primarily socio-economic, which have a direct influence on the amount and kind of recreation programs and areas which are necessary to meet local needs and interests. In other words, the acreage/population standard does not possess the degree of flexibility necessary to make its application valid in municipalities which possess vastly different physical, economic and social characteristics.¹⁴³

The substantiation for this argument can be found in a study conducted by Smith of recreation standards and applications in 113 cities. His results were that:

The traditional approach of an acreage-population ratio as a recreation and

¹⁴² Mittelstaedt, Ward, and Lowery, Op. Cit., p. 20.

¹⁴³ Ibid, p. 20.

park standard received little support from this empirical examination. The failure of so many cities to measure up to the standard of 10 acres per 1000 indicates some naivety in this approach.¹⁴⁴

At this critical juncture in recreation, standards also fail to aid in the decision making process of the allocation of scarce resources. States Gold:

Another discrepancy is the fact that supply usually creates demand, hence recreation standards have a self-fulfilling, if not self-exceeding, dimension which further complicates their effective use for recreation planning and resource allocation.¹⁴⁵

Currently, standards are general in nature, and hence, do not address themselves to resource problems of various size and types of local units of governments:

One other shortcoming of standards is their insensitivity to a planning units available or projected resources. Communities vary in their tax base and consequently in their ability to acquire land and meet these recreation standards.¹⁴⁶

Consequently, recreation standards take on little relevance in a community having critical resource problems.

¹⁴⁴ Smith, Op. Cit., p. 35.

¹⁴⁵ Gold, Op. Cit., p. 8.

¹⁴⁶ Mittelstaedt, Ward, and Lowery, Op. Cit., p. 22.

Another problem with standards are that they are not useful in measuring the effectiveness of a recreation system, an essential selling point of standard advocates. States Smith:

Standards fail to guide or to measure the effectiveness of a recreation system. They cannot cope with any change in needs, technology or tastes; and the evaluation of a city on two different standards may lead to contradictory conclusions. Examination of several variable relations to recreation can guide a researcher, planner, or governmental official in determining regions or city groups which may need special attention, but it is only indirect and unreliable. These standards can provide no clear answers, nor do they usually even lead to clear questions.¹⁴⁷

Standards have changed very little over the last twenty years, while our cities have. Thus, even those who adhere to the principle of using standards find it difficult to determine the relative increase or decrease in a cities ability to meet recreation demand.

The use of generalized standards can no longer be applicable to an urban area. The population is diverse and ever changing, and standards are not able to reflect this. What is needed instead are individualized goals or criteria that are determined by the client groups themselves. That

¹⁴⁷ Smith, Op. Cit., p. 55.

is, let those who are to receive the recreational opportunities set the standards for themselves, thus, in effect, making the standards be reflective of the goals and objectives of the people who are being planned for. As suggested by Kraus:

.....instead of attempting to apply uniform standards for the development of recreation and park resources throughout our cities, a highly differentiated approach must be adopted that takes into account both the needs and interests and the economic capability of residents in different districts or neighborhoods.¹⁴⁸

Or to be more aptly stated:

What is needed is a use standard which is based upon a subjective analysis of the environment utilizing qualitative criteria which is selected and designed to meet the needs and desires of the people.¹⁴⁹

A discussion of these individualized group or neighborhood standards will be discussed in the next chapter.

The use of standards for recreation planning finds much to be desired. There are many inherent problems in their use, and they are found to be lacking in sensitivity to the needs and desires of an urban population. Their

¹⁴⁸ Kraus, Op. Cit., p. 83.

¹⁴⁹ Mittelstaedt, Ward, Lowery, Op. Cit., p. 21.

continued use can only be rationalized through the fact that there is nothing better to use..

Location

The question of location of recreational opportunities is a difficult one to answer. It is easy for one to identify a park that is in a bad location, or point to a recreation area that is hardly ever used as a result of being located in the wrong place. However, it is difficult to suggest how it could have been located better, or where its optimum location should be. One of the fundamental problems associated with poor recreational opportunities is the fact that many recreational services and opportunities that are available are poorly located.

Poorly located recreational areas reduce the accessibility to it by the potential users, and consequently, creates a non-used recreation area. States Jane Jacobs:

The worst problem parks are located precisely where people do not pass by and likely never will. A city park in this fix, afflicted (for in some cases it is an affliction) with a good size terrain, is figuratively in the same position as a large store in a bad economic location.¹⁵⁰

This predicament is shared by many recreational areas of the cities.

¹⁵⁰ Jane Jacobs, The Death and Life of Great American Cities, New York: Vintage Books, 1961, p. 107.

What is a poorly located recreational area? First of all, it is a park that is not located near its users or client group, which is usually the most flagrant violation. States Clawson:

By definition, user-oriented... recreation areas must be close to their users ... The total area of land required for playgrounds and "rest parks" is relatively small; but unless the plots are located within the distance constraints, such areas are useless to those that need them.¹⁵¹

Another factor would be the inability to gain access to a recreation area because of certain physical constraints. An example of this would be a playground that is separated from the neighborhood by a major street or expressway. Thus, while the park may be physically located near the client group, for all practical purposes, it may as well be located on the other side of town.

Why do recreational areas end up in poor locations? The question is not easily answered. Many factors come in to play when making locational decisions. To begin with, there does not appear to exist a locational paradigm that can be used to determine proper locations. Instead, what are generally used are principles, or "rules of thumb".

¹⁵¹ Clawson and Knetsch, Op. Cit., p. 150.

Chapin, for example, suggests that:

Leisure time areas should be located in convenient proximity, by thoroughfare and transit, to living areas. Cultural activities and spectator sports, should be central and on sites adequate for their purposes, and major parks and large open spaces should be located so as to take advantage of natural or unusual features of the landscape and provide for a variety of outdoor recreational and other activities.¹⁵²

Such principles often times become subserviant to the political and economic realities of an urban area. That is, what may be locationally desirable may be politically unacceptable or economically unfeasible. Due to the costs of urban land, often times the location will be determined by the closest vacant or city owned land.

Often times what is considered politically expediant is also the most feasible economically. For an example, Edward Rolfe, in an analysis of the spatial distribution of neighborhood playgrounds in Lansing, Michigan, found that the distribution differed significantly from random and that over time the pattern seemed to be approaching and ideal-defined as the hexagonal pattern constructed by Christaller. He concluded that the technique indicated an underlying law

¹⁵² Chapin, Op. Cit., p. 372.

or tendency for politically determined park locations to approach the economic ideal.¹⁵³

In other words, while location plays a critical role in the success of a recreation system, the factors entering in a locational decision are often based upon other considerations. The answer to this problem can only be met through a more client group oriented planning process, which can reflect the most optimum location for recreational opportunities.

Open Space

Another significant tool that is worth mentioning is the "open space" program that has captured the hearts of many urbanists during the 1960's. At a time when city budgets were tight and were limiting their capacities to adequately deliver the needed recreation opportunities, the idea of preserving open land for recreational purposes became quite popular. This approach enabled the delivery of some recreational relief within an urban area, while at the same time being more economical than an extensive park and recreation program.

The open space program saw its beginning in Title VII of the Housing Act of 1961. The purpose of the act is

153 Edward Rolfe, "Analysis of the Spatial Distribution of Neighborhood Parks in Lansing: 1920-1960," Papers of the Michigan Academy of Science, Arts, and Letters, Volume 1, 1965, p. 479.

is stated in Section 701(b):

It is the purpose of this title to help curb urban sprawl and prevent the spread of urban blight and deterioration, to encourage development, and to help provide necessary recreational, conservation, and scenic areas by assisting state and local governments in taking prompt action to preserve open-space land which is essential to the proper long range development and welfare of the Nations urban areas, in accordance with plans for the allocation of such land for open space purposes.¹⁵⁴

The key was to emphasize preservation, but other applications can be noted:

The basic objective was to help save - not merely as an end in itself, but as a way of helping to shape future development as well.¹⁵⁵

In effect, the open space program had a multi-objective in the sense that it was to preserve valuable open space, provide an additional form of urban recreation, and serve as a mechanism to aid in directing or controlling development.

Over the last decade the open space program has become institutionalized within the local planning function. Open space has become an integral part of urban development. Its

154 Outdoor Recreation Resource Review Commission, Open Space Action, Study Report Number 15, Washington, D.C., 1962, p. 29.

155 Ibid, p. 2.

use has been found to serve a variety of purposes:

While open space is frequently associated with outdoor recreation, it also has come to have significance as a land reserve to introduce relief from what might otherwise become uninterrupted development.¹⁵⁶

Besides the amenities open space can provide, some functional uses were also realized:

Open space can provide beauty, privacy, and variety, moderate temperature; and create a sense of spaciousness and scale. It can protect a water supply; provide a noise and safety buffer zone around an airport; or substitute for development on unsuitable soils, in flood plains, or in earthquake zones.¹⁵⁷

Thus, open space provided an additional mechanism for creating a more liveable urban environment.

The use of open space for recreation purposes has had a mixed track record. There have been great successes and some very dismal failures. Between 1962 and 1971, there have been over 3,474 open space projects incorporating over 348,000 acres of land within urban communities (see Table 13, page 71). Included within the projects are successful park

¹⁵⁶ Gold, Op. Cit., p. 107.

¹⁵⁷ Council on Environmental Quality, Environmental Quality: The Fourth Annual Report of the Council On Environmental Policy, Washington, D.C., U.S. Government Printing Office, September, 1973.

areas with large urban centers, and spacious open space areas within high density developments. On the other hand, there has also been the creation of unused parks and crime ridden open areas.

One explanation for this mixed success lies in the different philosophies and applications of open space. On the one side, there are the advocates of "open space for open space sake", who feel that open land within an urban area serves as an end to itself. On the other side are those who adhere to the "use it or lose it" philosophy, where functional space is the motivating doctrine.

Those who view open space as an end have found their efforts to be wanting in many cases. Non-functional open space within urban areas has very often fallen prey to many urban ills. This prompts such criticisms as this from Gray:

Some Americans have a veneration for "open space," that is almost mystical in its reverence. Open space is not of itself a universal good. It is the uses that are made of the space that establish its character. Open space for what? For muggings? As a vacuum between buildings? Unused city parks become places for crime and vandalism, but if the use is heavy they provide their own surveillance.¹⁵⁸

158 Gray, Op. Cit., p. 61.

Jacobs echoes this sentiment by saying that:

All this takes money. But American cities today, under the illusion that open land is an automatic good and that quantity is equivalent to quality, are instead frittering away money on parks, playgrounds, and project land-oozes, too large, too frequent, too perfunctory, too ill-located, and hence, too dull or too inconvenient to be used.¹⁵⁹

In an urban area, where land is expensive and vacant land is scarce, it is difficult for many to accept the existence of non-functional open space.

For those who advocate that open space in an urban area must perform a specific function other than amenities fall under the criticism of being anti-urbanists, who view the city as an economic entity rather than a living environment. They are charged with the insensitivity to the needs of an urban population as it relates to the need for an area to escape to and enjoy the revitalizing effects of nature.

There are still others who question the use of open space on the grounds that the taking of land for open space represents a loss of revenues to the city, and that open space is usually a generator of crime. In terms of loss of

¹⁵⁹ Jacobs, Op. Cit., p. 111.

revenue, Gold argues that:

.....it more than offsets this loss of tax base by increasing the values of adjacent properties...To argue the point by suggesting that public open space represents tax revenue opportunities forgone is to negate the incremental increase in the adjacent and surrounding properties because of this space.¹⁶⁰

In terms of crime and vandalism, there is no question that it does occur in public open spaces. However:

There is no evidence that the frequency or magnitude of crime and vandalism is more concentrated in public open spaces than in any other portion of the urban area.¹⁶¹

There is little merit to the criticisms leveled at open space by those who would just as soon not see the urban landscape dotted with open areas. This does not mean, however, that open space is without its criticism.

A main criticism of open space is that it is not generally applied with any reason or rhyme. That is, open space planning is usually fragmentary and not part of an overall scheme or plan. Many open space programs are not integrated into the recreation system in the sense that each

¹⁶⁰ Gold, Op. Cit., p. 43.

¹⁶¹ Ibid, p. 43.

compliments the other. Open space funds come from the Federal Government, and hence, are viewed as a separate planning function from that of the city recreation plan.

The open space program can serve as a viable mechanism for supplementing an urban recreation program. It can serve as an additional tool for addressing the needs and desires of an urban population. To do so means to incorporate it into the urban recreation planning function, and to eliminate its status as a separate entity. The usefulness of this approach will be discussed in the next chapter.

Some Implications For Urban Recreation Planning

The addition of increased leisure time, the problems associated with scarce urban resources, the energy crisis, and other factors are serving to create serious problems for urban recreation. Another factor however, is that the present method of recreation planning is not capable of meeting the recreational needs that exist now, and will increase in the near future.

The inability of the present recreation system to meet the urban recreation demand is based upon their confinement to mainly physical outdoor recreation, that is very generally defined and generally applied across the urban population. The insistance on limiting themselves to certain outdoor activities, and their failure to deviate from these to compensate for different client group needs has resulted in a recreation system that, at best, only partially fulfills the recreation demand.

A good example of this can be found in the delivery of neighborhood parks. Neighborhood parks should be a focus for social interaction, urban beautification, and the provision of convenient opportunities for the meaningful use of leisure time.¹⁶² Instead, what is found is a case of widespread non-use of these parks. The relatively low use of neighborhood parks can be translated to the present recreation planning system.

Gold has identified three reasons for the non-use of neighborhood parks:

1. Those who do not use the park may have some significant physical, mental, or cultural differences from those who do;
2. The parks image and facilities do not coincide with the leisure preferences and satisfactions of the majority of potential users;
3. Some physical, environmental, or institutional restraints encourage non-use.¹⁶³

These factors reflect the fact that neighborhoods have unique expressions and needs, and a neighborhood park must reflect that. A neighborhood of predominately elderly citizens would, in many cases, not necessarily desire tennis

¹⁶² Gold, Op. Cit., p. 157.

¹⁶³ Seymour Gold, "The Non-Use of Neighborhood Parks", p. 337.

courts and baseball diamonds. And yet, this is what they will often times find. Elderly neighborhoods may desire an area for gardening and for social interaction. The present recreation system, however, will not normally account for this.

Another factor of non-use is that present recreation systems limit themselves to only certain outdoor recreational activities, which do not reflect the leisure needs of an urban society. Herbert Gans suggests that:

Perhaps the most fundamental reason for non-use is the fact that much of the leisure offered by public recreation is self-oriented, whereas the leisure that is preferred is largely fantasy oriented... The public recreation movement attempts to provide activities which encourage self improvement, self-expression or interaction while individual leisure preferences tend towards involvement of the person in vicarious role playing and various sorts of fantasy, that result in different orientations towards the self.¹⁶⁴

Gold supports this view, and concludes that:

Fantasy oriented recreation is often more exciting than self-oriented activities; and most young people, especially teenagers, seem to prefer challenge and excitement in their leisure.¹⁶⁵

164 Herbert Gans, "Recreation Planning for Leisure Behavior: A Goal Oriented Approach," Unpublished Phd Dissertation, University of Pennsylvania, 1957, p. 312.

165 Gold, "Non-Use of Neighborhood Parks," p. 373.

Such recreational desires as expressed by Gans and Gold are typically not found in urban recreation systems.

Other activities not addressed by recreation systems are those which are of a familiar and comfortable social context. A lack of these activities is directly related to social values, and a strong reluctance of cities to interfere. States Gold:

The Puritan Ethic which frowns on a public display of pleasure still runs strong in the American tradition. Evidence the relative lack of outdoor restaurants or drinking places, especially in public parks, and the reluctance of many Americans to use sidewalk cafes when compared to Europeans.¹⁶⁶

Such activities bring people together, foster friendship, and generate exciting things to do within an urban area.

The result of the present urban recreation planning system has been to limit the ability for the urban population to fulfill their recreational desires and needs. What is needed is a recreation policy that reflects their needs, and creates a more desirable urban environment. What this policy should be is the focus of the final chapter.

¹⁶⁶ Ibid, p. 374.

CHAPTER VIII

CREATING A POLICY FOR URBAN RECREATION OPPORTUNITIES

Up to this point, this thesis has focused upon the present problems confronting urban recreation. Also, there has been the identification of factors relevant to the understanding of the needs and complexities of delivering urban recreational opportunities. This final chapter now turns to ways in which local units of government can attempt to overcome these problems and difficulties through an urban recreation policy consistent with the needs and preferences of an urban population.

The discussion of a recreation policy focuses upon the conceptual rather than the programmatic elements of delivering recreational opportunities. That is, such elements as the level of desired activities, their location, and the needs they are intended to serve will be the primary focus, as opposed to specific costs, capital outlays, and various other programmatic concerns. The emphasis will be upon direction instead of operations. Thus, the scope will be general. However, it is through this general framework that the more detailed and specific actions can be developed and implemented.

The Policy Framework

A policy that is to guide and direct urban recreational opportunities must be sensitive to the requirements of an urban society. In view of the complexities and fragmentations of a highly urbanized area, it must be an integrated "system," that is, a unified metropolitan effort that is able to overcome the challenges and obstacles that are inherent in the metropolitan areas. A highly coordinated system is required to ensure that an equitable and efficient delivery is attained. Donald Brauer defines a system as:

.....a collection of related elements
working together to accomplish specific
 objectives.¹⁶⁷

With the present fragmentation of metropolitan recreation systems, it can be said that there is no recreation system that is working toward meeting all of the needs of an urban population.

A second element of a recreation policy is that it recognizes the necessity for recreation on a day-to-day basis, and that the ability to recreate in this fashion adds to the vitality of the individual and the community:

.....the task of recreation and parks is
 to help the urban areas of our nation

167 Donald G. Brauer, "Placing a Dollar Sign on Urban Parks," Parks and Recreation, Volume V, Number 11, Nov., 1970, p. 15.

continue to be places of culture, enjoyment, delight in the human and physical environment, centers of communication, the arts and sports - places where people of all ages and kinds come together for excitement and fun.¹⁶⁸

Supplying recreation as an end, with little thought or understanding of its use or function presents a situation where recreation needs are not met and the urban environment loses much of its quality of life. Thus, the creation of recreation opportunities must be based upon fulfilling a need of a population and of an environment.

To adequately address the needs and preferences of the present and future urban population, three areas of concern must be focused upon. These areas are:

1. The day-to-day needs of the individual and the neighborhood, where the greatest recreation need exists;
2. The overall needs of a metropolitan population, where more generalized recreation preferences, e.g., cultural activities and outdoor recreation, are located; and
3. The needs and preferences that can be served by the private sector.

A brief discussion of each is in order.

It is at the neighborhood level where the particular group or individualized recreation need is located. And it

¹⁶⁸ Kraus, Op. Cit., p. 83.

is here where the day-to-day recreation needs are expressed. At the end of the working day, and more particularly, the evening, individuals and groups have preference for a more localized, closer to home, recreational activity. The type of recreation preferred is dependent upon their own desires and characteristics. It becomes essential to recognize what these needs are and to make provisions for them.

As far as the metropolitan level is concerned, many general recreational needs and preferences can be abstracted out of the population. This, for example, would include such general recreational preferences as swimming, camping, hiking, nature trails, museums, and a number of other activities. It is at the metropolitan level where such activities can be provided, and be made accessible to the total urban population.

And finally, there is the private sector, which presently offers a variety of recreational opportunities. The private sector presents an enormous potential resource for the provision of new opportunities. Presently, however, there is very little cooperation between the public and private sectors which are involved in recreational types of activities. In the future, it is going to be desirable to foster a co-operative relationship between the two so that the greatest spectrum of recreational opportunities can be offered.

The following discussion will focus in more detail on each of the three specific areas of policy consideration. It is again important to note that the discussion will be of

a policy nature, and will deal more with the concepts rather than the operational considerations.

a. The Neighborhood Planning Unit

Planning for the neighborhood level will require an investigation of specific considerations. Such considerations include: definition of a neighborhood; neighborhood needs and preferences; measuring neighborhood needs and preferences; and converting these preferences into recreational opportunities.

1. The Neighborhood

There is very little agreement among planners and social scientists on what constitutes a neighborhood. The issue has been argued and debated for a long time with the only agreement being that there is no agreement. Planners often times will use physical characteristics to define a neighborhood, such as Chapin, who states that when defining a neighborhood one should:

.....aim to recognize the service area of
an elementary school...and the physical
barriers present such as railroads, thorough-
fares, watercourses, and large areas of
non-residential use.¹⁶⁹

Sociologists, on the other hand, would disagree. They are more likely to stress the symbolic and cultural aspects of

¹⁶⁹ Chapin, Op. Cit., p. 365.

a neighborhood. Susan Keller states that:

.....a sociological conception of neighborhood emphasizes the notion of shared activities, experiences, values, common loyalties and perspectives, and human networks that give an area a sense of continuity and persistence over time.¹⁷⁰

In terms of physical boundaries Keller adds that:

Spatial and physical attributes are necessary but not sufficient conditions for the existence of neighborhoods.¹⁷¹

Neither approach has proven sufficient when practiced in isolation. What is suggested then is a possible combination of both sets of criteria.

There is also a distinct difference between planners and residents over an appropriate set of criteria for delineating a neighborhood. Gold states that:

At one end of the scale is the planners idealistic concept of what a neighborhood is or ought to be. At the other end is the residents perception of what his living environment is or could be.¹⁷²

170 Susan Keller, The Urban Neighborhood, New York: Doubleday and Company, 1967, p. 49.

171 Ibid, p. 51.

172 Gold, "Urban Recreation Planning", p. 82.

Consequently, defining a system of neighborhoods results in differing ideas, criteria, and results.

No one method can be considered adequate for defining a neighborhood. For purposes of recreation, however, a combination of approaches can be used. Objectively, an initial search may begin by searching out physical characteristics and using resource materials such as census data and statistical data. Subjectively, boundaries can be sketched out based upon residents perception of what the neighborhood is or should be. By combining this information, there exists the potential for delineating practical and realistic neighborhoods. Thus, a policy for ascertaining neighborhood units should require the use of a combination of methods.

2. Neighborhood Needs and Preferences

Chapter VI discussed the element of urban need and preferences reflecting a multitude of differing population groups. At the neighborhood level is where the distinctions become the most manifest. The process of defining neighborhoods should result in delineating areas of population with like characteristics. For example, neighborhoods may be delineated which may be predominately ethnic in character (Italian); characterized by a particular age group with similar lifestyles (young married couples with one or no children); by strictly age (elderly); or by a large number of other characteristics. Applying similar recreational opportunities to each of these neighborhoods would hardly seem like a desirable way to plan.

In terms of urban recreation, this becomes a critical point. The recreation policy must be instilled with the mandate that its primary focus is to meet the particular needs of the varying groups through recognition of their existence, and to develop plans based upon their needs, not the suppliers perceived needs. In other words, base the recreation need upon those who would use it rather than on those who supply it.

Besides the differences in population groups, there is also a difference between the objectives of the decision makers, the suppliers, and the users. Table 19 summarizes these differences as developed by Gold. All too often neighborhood recreation areas are a reflection of the objectives of the suppliers rather than those of the potential users.

The desire to recreate usually means the quest for something different, exciting, challenging, or relief from the harsh urban environment. When the recreation that is provided does not reflect such objectives, the result is the lack of use by the population. Nanine Clay, when visiting various urban neighborhoods noted that in one:

There were people in doorways, people on sidewalks, young man lounging against parked cars, women leaning on windows, kids everywhere. In the middle of a block of high tenements a narrow playground was empty.¹⁷³

173 Nanine Clay, "Mini-parks: Diminishing Returns," Parks and Recreation, Volume VI, Number 1, January, 1971, p. 22.

Table 19

A Summary of the Goals and Objectives
Reference Groups¹⁷⁴

Reference Group	Expressed Goals or Objectives
Community decision makers	Pride and status Cohesion and social betterment Reduction in juvenile delinquency Increase in economic development Increase in public health and safety Beautification or aesthetics Increase in culture and education Community development
Suppliers of public recreation	Happiness or enjoyment Personal growth Physical and Mental health Personal safety and welfare Integrative sociability Citizenship and democratic values
Users of public recreation	Group interaction and socia- bility Relief from roles or surroundings Status, identity, recognition Competition and self-evaluation Variety, excitement, challenge

In another neighborhood she found:

.....nearby old men playing checkers with
a board on their knees, teenagers stood
around in groups, small kids were

¹⁷⁴ Gold, "Non-Use of Neighborhood Parks," p. 375.

underfoot. But the playlot across the street was unused.¹⁷⁵

This scene is too often characteristic of the neighborhood, particularly in the central city. The result is often times the use of other areas for recreation uses, such as streets.¹⁷⁶ Streets often become a source of excitement, and foster great competition over neighborhood playgrounds and recreation areas.¹⁷⁷ A recreation area that matches user preference and offers creativity will help to eliminate, or reduce, the necessity for seeking out other means of recreational expression.

3. Measuring Need and Preferences

One of the most fundamental concepts that this thesis has emphasized is the necessity for recreation opportunities to meet the needs and preferences of the client group. The question of how this can be accomplished needs to be answered. History has recorded many attempts to do this in the most expeditious, least expensive, and most accurate way. In the process there have been paradigms, computer programs, and a variety of other methods including the most popular - guessing. However, the results are usually inferences, educated

¹⁷⁵ Ibid, p. 23.

¹⁷⁶ Donald Appleyard and Mark Lintell, "The Environmental Quality of City Streets: The Residents Viewpoint", Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Number 38, March, 1972, p. 93.

¹⁷⁷ Gold, "Non-Use of Neighborhood Parks", p. 373.

guesses, or extrapolations, which can hardly be considered accurate. Regardless of the many sophisticated, and unsophisticated attempts, the only real way to determine the peoples needs and preferences is to ask them. Statistical data such as that from the census can supplement, but cannot take the place of getting out to the people;

In any attempt to define urban recreation needs, the population of these areas must be known and understood. Their racial, economic and demographic characteristics are vitally important in order to understand what needs might be. At best, this data can only serve as a generalized basis for assumptions. A true assessment of need can come only from the people themselves.¹⁷⁸

In other words, what is needed is a survey of the people, to receive from them what their needs and preferences are.

Once a neighborhood is defined, then a survey needs to be taken of the residents within the designated neighborhood area. Questions to be asked could include a listing of the types of recreational activities desired; at what time they would like these activities provided, and questions on their mobility and income (for reasons to be discussed later on). A survey of this type will indicate what the people want and

¹⁷⁸ Urban Recreation Forum, Op. Cit., p. 32.

what they will use.¹⁷⁹

Equally important is a survey of what exists. This will indicate the gap between supply and demand both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Gold offers additional survey techniques that may aid in determining the needs of the neighborhood:

1. Surveys to determine what people are not using public parks and why.

2. Photographic time-sequence analysis of both public recreational areas and streets to record use, problems and potentials.

3. Use of mobile play approaches to observe how and where it is moved and why.

4. Requesting a sample of the population to maintain time budgets, diaries which use simple but novel techniques, e.g., marking hours for given activities on IBM cards or units of money deposited in a personal home bank which reflects time accounts.

¹⁷⁹ A survey was conducted by the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation on urban recreation effectiveness. While it did not specifically address the need aspect, it does give an excellent example on how such a survey can be conducted. See: Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, How Effective Are Your Community Recreation Services, U.S. Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C., April, 1973.

5. Closing streets, opening rooftops, detouring pedestrian or vehicular traffic patterns to observe impacts on recreation use and non-use.¹⁸⁰

Thus, a variety of methods can be used to determine preferences of the neighborhood population.

Once the initial survey is made, and the appropriate recreational opportunities are provided, it is equally necessary to do follow-up surveys to determine any change in population status, and hence, recreational preferences:

A factor in maintaining the vitality of neighborhoods is the need for city officials to understand, predict, and accommodate the needs of neighborhoods as they undergo change.¹⁸¹

Change can occur quite rapidly in an urban neighborhood, thus, flexibility is essential to the recreation system.

If what experts tell us about accelerated change is true, both from an economic and social standpoint, our design must be flexible, otherwise we will be saddled with a structure that is obsolete because of inability to adapt to change.¹⁸²

180 Gold, Urban Recreation Planning, p. 214.

181 Environmental Protection Agency, Op. Cit., p. 34.

182 Felix K. Dhainin, "Planning a Neighborhood Park", Parks and Recreation, Volume VI, Number 9, September, 1969, p. 69.

What must be a fundamental process is a follow-up mechanism which enables the planners to recognize changes that are occurring within the neighborhood, so that an appropriate response can be made.

4. Converting the Need to Recreational Opportunities

Once the determination of the needs and preferences have been established, the process of delivering the recreational opportunities expressed can begin. This step involves two considerations: (1) matching the recreational opportunities with desired preferences; and (2) citizen participation.

Matching opportunities with preferences entails the process of determining what already exists, and then trying to fill the gap between what is already supplied and the additional opportunities that are preferred. The activities or preferences expressed by the neighborhood become the goals and objectives for recreational opportunities for that neighborhood:

Recreation planning at the neighborhood level is an incremental process for the determination of opportunities based on the expressed goals and objectives of residents. The allocation of public resources for recreation is a direct reflection of resident values.¹⁸³

¹⁸³ Gold, Op. Cit., p. 208.

Rather than using the traditional recreation standards, the goals and objectives as stated by the citizens become, in a general sense, the standards. If what is preferred is a corner lot, then that becomes the standard. In other words, the process is one of advocacy whereby the recreation system provides those recreational opportunities as expressed by the neighborhood.

For example, if an elderly neighborhood expressed the preference for gardening and social activities over the already built basketball court, then the basketball court should make way for an area for gardening. Also, if no recreation area exists to serve a neighborhood population, then the priority should be to create an area that includes the desired activities of the neighborhood.

The second important consideration is the involvement of the citizens of the neighborhood in the design and implementation process. It is one thing to survey the residents for their particular goals and objectives, and it is another to involve them in the whole process. The residents should also have a chance to become involved in the process of the creation of the plan based upon their goals and objectives, and, through a type of coordinating or advisory capacity, aid in the implementation of the plan. This will create the additional assurance that the desired recreational opportunities will, in fact, be provided. It will also serve to increase the responsiveness of the suppliers. States

Clarence Pendleton:

Encouraging community involvement provides the recreation profession with an excellent opportunity to set a precedent for client advocacy. The profession has the option of breaking with tradition to improve the quality of life or of maintaining the current unresponsive and irrelevant delivery system.¹⁸⁴

In effect, then, citizen participation involves a "two way street" whereby the residents are able to influence the suppliers, and the suppliers become more responsive to the residents.

b. The Metropolitan Recreation System

The day-to-day recreation needs are designed to be met at the neighborhood level. There are, however, additional recreational opportunities that need to be provided. Such opportunities include more land, extensive outdoor recreational preferences, as well as culturally significant activities. Such activities as camping, boating, swimming, hiking, museums, and libraries are to be considered here.

1. Outdoor Recreation

The term "outdoor recreation" is used to define activities that are traditionally associated with the need to travel a considerable distance in order to participate.¹⁸⁵

¹⁸⁴ Clarence M. Pendleton, Jr., "Community Involvement," Parks and Recreation, Volume V, Number 10, Oct., 1970, p. 40.

¹⁸⁵ Outdoor recreation should not be confused with such activities as baseball, tennis, and other sports which are considered outdoor participation activities.

Such activities include camping, hiking, canoeing and boating, swimming, and a variety of other outdoor leisure activities. Typically, in order to participate one has to travel a sizeable distance to rural state-parks and campgrounds and to National parks and forests. This represents two problems. First, people do not necessarily like to drive great distances for this activity, unless they are on vacation. And secondly, with the energy problem, it is going to be increasingly difficult for the average urban dweller to reach these activities. Consequently, it is going to be incumbent on the metropolitan areas to provide these activities closer to home.

What is envisioned is a metropolitan wide park system which can offer a variety of outdoor recreational opportunities. Large tracts of land should be appropriated, hopefully having some continuity to them. Some examples of what can be done have been with us for almost 75 years, such as Central Park in New York. Activities that can be provided may include:

1. Man-made lakes for such activities as canoeing, boating, swimming, and fishing.
2. Extensive trails for hiking and horseback riding.
3. Land which captures natural features to entice campers and hikers.

Essentially, what is being proposed is to bring these activities closer to where people live.

Currently, some prototypes of such an approach are being developed as a result of Federal Legislation in 1972.¹⁸⁶ One is the 23,000 acre Gateway National Recreation Area near New York City, and another being the 24,000 acre Golden Gate National Recreation Area near San Francisco.

A metropolitan recreation system of outdoor recreational opportunities should be planned in such a way that all residents of the metropolitan areas have access to it. To ensure that this happens, additional supplemental programs may be needed such as public transportation to these areas.

2. Cultural Opportunities

In conjunction with a metropolitan outdoor recreation system there should also be the provision of cultural activities designed to service the entire metropolitan area. These activities include public libraries, museums, botanic gardens, arboretums, opera, symphony, ballet, plays and art festivals.¹⁸⁷ Through the integration of these activities with the metropolitan park system, a diversity of activities can be provided which can offer excitement, creativity, and a change of environment. This would entail a co-operative arrangement with the private sector through provision of

¹⁸⁶ Environmental Protection Agency, Op. Cit., p. 232.

¹⁸⁷ Mel Scott, Partnership in the Arts, Berkely: University of California, 1968, p. iii.

land for these activities. Publicly owned activities would automatically be located in these areas.

Proposals for this concept have already surfaced. One such proposal suggested by Mel Scott envisions cultural art centers throughout the metropolitan area based upon a population formula.¹⁸⁸ Each site could include such activities as theatres, music halls, exhibition galleries and workshops, and libraries.

A multi-use metropolitan recreational system that provides the opportunity for outdoor recreational and cultural opportunities services the need of an urban population beyond their day-to-day recreation needs. This approach is feasible if recreation planning and financing is conducted at the metropolitan level. If not, it will then be left to the individual units of government to provide it, and, based upon their previous track record and their overall ability to provide such services, a system that adequately addresses the present and future needs probably will not occur.

c. The Private Sector

One source of recreational opportunities that is normally the least considered by planning agencies is the private sector. Given the amount of resources commanded by private recreation, this lack of concern is difficult to understand.

188 Mel Scott, Cultural Programs of California Municipalities, Berkely: Institute of Governmental Studies, California, April 6, 1963, p. 7.

The growth of private recreation is accelerating, and promises to create new and better recreational opportunities than we now have. Kraus points out that:

The entire field of commercial recreation development is expanding rapidly. Many national corporations are moving into the field of recreational development, and it seems probably that a major proportion of America's outdoor recreation resources will be run, in the near future, not by governmental agencies, but by commercial organizations that will provide elaborate and expensive complexes offering a variety of settings, activities, and accommodations.¹⁸⁹

States David McCraney:

Private recreation interests own a recreation estate equal in size to the governments, while private recreation operations receive more annual visitors than do public recreation facilities.¹⁹⁰

In light of the extensive recreation opportunities provided by the private sector, they should be viewed as a complementary source of recreation to be considered when developing a recreation plan.

¹⁸⁹ Kraus, "The Economics of Leisure Today", p. 65.

¹⁹⁰ David L. McCraney, "America's Private Recreation System", Outdoor Recreation Action, Report Number 29, Fall, 1973, p. 3.

1. Types of Private Recreation

There are essentially two types of private sector recreation: profit and non-profit.¹⁹¹ Private recreation businesses range in size from small family-operated cabin resorts to nationwide hotel chains and industrial giants, from office recreation to summer camps. Both types of private recreation will be briefly examined.

Profit: Profit oriented industries are essentially two types: those that cater to outdoor recreation experiences, and those that cater to the more culturistic and social types of activities. There are an estimated 132,000 profit oriented outdoor recreation enterprises in the United States, with approximately 37,000 of these businesses operating full time.¹⁹² These facilities control 30 million acres of land and receive more than 1.2 billion visits annually.¹⁹³ Examples of this activity are dude ranches, resorts, hunting and fishing guides, commercial campgrounds, private hunting reserves, ski areas, and golf courses.

The other profit operations, specifically those that cater to social, cultural, and participatory activities, are also an enormous market. Included in this category are restaurants, pubs, sports, and amusements. These recreational

191 Urban Recreation Forum, Op. Cit., p. 47.

192 McCraney, Op. Cit., p. 3.

193 Ibid, p. 4.

experiences, though costing money, provide an additional outlet for urban dwellers.

Non-Profit: There are over 1 million non-profit recreation enterprises in the U.S. which control over 467 million acres of land, and receive 800 million annual visits a year.¹⁹⁴ Included within this group are essentially four categories:

1. Civic, church, and youth groups - these include summer retreats, camps, and other related activities.

2. Trade and professional associations - these activities include trade shows, educational programs, and seminars.

3. Conservation and ecology groups - these groups are generally not large landowners, but do operate limited projects.

4. Large corporations and industries, including utilities - these organizations often times make all or part of their land holdings available for recreation.¹⁹⁵

Thus, when considering the private sector contribution to recreational opportunities, both profit and non-profit,

¹⁹⁴ Ibid, p. 5.

¹⁹⁵ Adapted from: (1) Urban Recreation Forum, Op. Cit., pp. 47-48, (2) McCraney, Op. Cit., pp. 2-7.

their activities are both extensive and diverse, and should be considered an integral element in urban recreation.

2. Integrating Public and Private Recreation Planning

The consideration of fostering a working relationship between the public and private suppliers of recreation is based upon two considerations; (1) as a result of scarce resources, public agencies will never be able to fully provide the recreational needs of an urban population; and (2) there are certain recreational opportunities that should be provided only by the private sector. Planners should not live under the illusion that the resources of a city are capable of delivering all needs and preferences of an urban population. Instead, the approach should be to supply as many recreational opportunities to as many people as possible with the scarce resources that are available. Likewise, it should be recognized that certain types of recreational activities such as pubs, cafes, bowling alleys, and theatres are better supplied through the private market place. The criteria used to determine what should be provided by the public sector versus private sector is usually centered on profit. States Gold:

Historically, the literature and practice tend to place most of the responsibility for outdoor recreation in the public sector where the facilities cannot or do not yield a profit. They tend to favor private initiative and responsibility

where outdoor recreation can be provided
as a commercial enterprise.¹⁹⁶

The appropriate way to deliver private recreational opportunities is through a cooperative effort with the private sector.

Private recreational opportunities should be considered at both the neighborhood and metropolitan level. At the neighborhood level, the citizen survey and its results can be used to determine what private recreation activities are preferred. The results can be used as a sort of market analysis to indicate to the private groups that a need and a market exists for their services. Incentives for encouraging private activities may be the leasing of land to the private activity by the city at a very low rate, or outright deed of the land. This combination of public services and private opportunities will create a truly exciting recreational environment.

The metropolitan level also affords a great opportunity for public and private joint ventures. Private recreation facilities should be encouraged to participate in the metropolitan wide recreation system. Gans sees this as a desirable park plan by emphasizing that they should:

.....offer natures hearty as well as some
of the conveniences usually associated with

196 Gold, Op. Cit., p. 34.

resorts and vacation areas. Ideally, they should offer a variety of outdoor recreation commercial entertainment, restaurants and cafes, museums and zoo facilities, as well as the features usually found in a park.¹⁹⁷

An example of an attempt to this is cited by Joseph Curtis, who discussed the Boston Recreation Departments attempt to foster a coordinative relationship with the private sector:

Relationships are being developed by the department with the Tussand Wax Museum, the Sock Theatre chain, the Sheraton Hotels, and several major tourist restaurants.¹⁹⁸

Curtis states that the approach that Boston is taking is quite different from most cities, which ignore the vast potential resources of the private sector:

Traditionally, the public recreation and park agency ignores the powerful forces for recreation as if they were somehow "different". By teaming up with these influential interests and assisting in the projection of the city as a community composite, the department can do much to attract visitors and to provide the spirit that a modern city so badly needs. In addition, commercial

197 Gans, Op. Cit., p. 133.

198 Joseph E. Curtis, "A City Gears for Austerity", Parks and Recreation, Volume VI, Number 3, March, 1971, p. 38.

recreation centers, such as bowling and ice skating, can assist public recreation programs at little, or no, added cost to the city.¹⁹⁹

The example that Boston is pursuing could set the example for the rest of the metropolitan areas of the country.

To this point, little has been done to foster an integrated approach to urban recreation planning between the public and private sector. As recreation demand increases, and local resources become harder to get, it should be an added element to a recreation policy that private recreation be utilized to its fullest extent.

Implications for Planning

The urban recreation policy that is proposed here expresses the need for a two leveled system - the neighborhood and the metropolitan area - combined with an attempt to coordinate activities with the private recreation system. Such a policy has definite implications for planning.

a. Planning Organization

The planning structure most suitable for the suggested policy is a metropolitan wide organization. Such an organization would be financed through the metropolitan wide tax

¹⁹⁹ Ibid, p. 38.

base to ensure:

1. An equitable revenue source; and
2. To ensure equitable distribution of resources.

Planning at the neighborhood level would be accomplished through teams assigned to particular neighborhoods. Having a revenue source that is generated on a metropolitan scale, it will serve as a device to protect low income neighborhoods from receiving an unequal share of recreation resources.

b. Citizen Participation

An essential element of this policy emphasizes the input of citizens in determining recreational opportunities to be provided. This is accomplished in two areas. First, the needs and preferences are to be determined by the citizens themselves, and not by the suppliers or decision makers, who often times have conflicting goals. And secondly, it requires the citizens to aid in the formulating of goals and objectives, plan design, and implementation.

The participation of citizens in the planning process is often times viewed as an unnecessary evil and time consuming process, which does more harm than good. This attitude may be the result of planner annoyance or citizen ignorance. Neither should be the case. Planners have to realize that they are planning with and for the people, not at them, and citizen ignorance is overcome through education, either by the planners or through some other means. This policy is

premised on citizen participation, and its overall effectiveness and its success in general is dependent on the ability of the planners and citizens to work together.

c. Cooperation with the Private Sector

It often times appears natural that the relationship between the public and private sector be one of adversary. It is true that often times the public sector must be a watchdog over the operations of private enterprise. Nevertheless, to counter the problems that exist in the urban areas, it is going to take a more cooperative effort between the two groups. It is a general precept of this policy that cooperation be fostered throughout the planning process. Not to do so threatens the ability of the cities to deliver adequate recreational opportunities.

Summary

To counter the problems confronting urban recreation, and the problems within recreation planning, this thesis has set forth a policy proposal designed to better address the needs and preferences of an urban population. The policy itself calls for a metropolitan planning agency which deals with two levels of recreation need - the neighborhood and the metropolitan area as a whole. Essential characteristics of the process are citizen input and coordination with the private recreation field. It is hoped that this policy

proposal can signal a change in present urban recreation planning, to ensure a better provision of urban recreation opportunities.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

To sum up, the evidence presented in this thesis has attempted to demonstrate that a number of factors are serving to hinder the ability of urban areas to provide adequate recreation opportunities. These factors include the increases in leisure time, the economic realities of a more densely populated style of urban living, the competition for scarce resources, the energy problem, and the lack of cooperation between the Federal, State and local units of government. The outcome of these factors has been one of an increasing demand for urban recreation on an already inadequate urban recreation system. While vast sums of badly needed resources are being spent by the States and the Federal government on rural outdoor recreation, little is going to the area of greatest need - the day-to-day recreation needs of the urban population.

At the local level, the present method of supplying recreational opportunities, that is, the urban recreation planning process, does not adequately serve the needs of a diverse urban population. Through such recreation planning tools as standards and open space, that recreation which is provided is generally too little, un-used, and poorly located. Part of the problem can be traced to a lack of

sensitivity or creativity on the part of planners. Another factor is the fragmentation of local units of governments in highly urbanized areas creating competition for unequal resources, resulting in inefficiencies and inequities as it relates to the provision of recreational opportunities. The combination of these conditions has resulted in what has been defined by this thesis as an "urban recreation crisis."

In order for the urban planners to combat this crisis, a new approach or direction is needed. In other words, a policy that directs itself towards circumventing the problem needs to be developed. A policy that is not only sensitive to the problems that now exist, but also one that has the ability to address the problems that most certainly will occur in the future. This thesis proposes a policy that attempts to do just that. Its foundation lies in a metropolitan planning organization that addresses the day-to-day needs of the urban dweller at the neighborhood level, as well as focusing upon a generalized recreation need that can be supplied through a metropolitan park system. To make this policy more effective, it must rely on the needs and preferences of the citizen as well as their participation in the overall process to ensure its sensitivity and relevancy to the recreational needs of an urban population.

Addressing the problem of recreational needs of an urban population is, however, only part of the solution. What is also needed is a commitment on the part of public officials of all levels of government to really become concerned with

the problems and needs of an urban population. Suggesting that what is needed is citizen input is nothing new, it has been suggested and advocated throughout planning history. Unfortunately, what is new, and what is indicated throughout this thesis, is the actual commitment to do what is needed to eliminate the problems of urban recreation. A commitment to allocate more resources for recreation, and a commitment to provide recreational opportunities based upon what is needed and preferred by the population who will use it. Recreation is a vital element in the quality of urban life. Recreation is not an end in itself, but a means to an end. That end being an environment that is enjoyed by those who inhabit it today, and those who will most certainly inhabit it tomorrow.

As evidenced by this thesis, a commitment has most assuredly been made to supply recreation that entices urban dwellers away from the city. This creates the image of the city as a place merely to tolerate during the week, and a place to avoid on the weekend. Fortunately, there are many who are not ready to give up the city. It still offers the excitement, creativity, and enjoyment that makes a city what it is and should be. But in order for our cities to continue as such, it will require people, money and the willingness to address the enormous amount of problems facing the cities. Recreation is but one element, but one which can hardly be ignored. A city that has little or poor recreational outlets may find itself sitting on a time bomb.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Books

- Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations,
"Metropolitan Needs and Government Performance",
Political Power and the Urban Crisis, edited by
Alan Shank, Boston: Holbrook Press, Incorporated, 1969.
- Birch, David L., The Economic Future of City and Suburb,
Committee for Economic Development, New York, 1970.
- Butler, George D., Introduction to Community Recreation,
New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1967.
- Caldwell, William A., How to Save Urban America, New York
Regional Plan Association, New York, 1973.
- Chapin, Stuart F., Urban Land Use Planning, Urbana:
University of Illinois Press, 1965.
- Clawson, Marion and Knetsch, Jack L., Economics of Outdoor
Recreation, Baltimore: John Hopkins Press, 1966.
- Clemmer, Richard B., Gatons, Paul K., and Schrieber, Arthur F.,
Economics of Urban Problems, Boston: Houghton Mifflin
Company, 1971.
- Cosgrove, Isabel and Jackson, Richard, The Geography of
Recreation and Leisure, 1972.
- Doell, Charles E., Elements of Park and Recreation Adminis-
tration, Minneapolis: Burgess Publishing Company, 1963.
- Gans, Herbert, People and Plans, New York: Basic Books,
Incorporated, 1968.
- Gans, Herbert, The Urban Villagers, New York: The MacMillan
Company, 1962.
- Gold, Seymour M., Urban Recreation Planning, Philadelphia:
Lea and Febriger, Incorporated, 1973.

- Guggenheimer, Elinor C., Planning for Parks and Recreation Needs in Urban Areas, New York: Twayne Publishers, Incorporated, 1969.
- Hirsh, Werner Z., Urban Economic Analysis, New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1973.
- Hordon, Harris E., Introduction to Urban Economics: Analysis and Policy, New York: Meredith Corporation, 1973.
- Jacobs, Jane, The Death and Life of Great American Cities, New York: Vintage Books, 1961.
- Kaplan, Max, Leisure in America: A Social Inquiry, New York: John Wiley and Sons, Incorporated, 1960.
- Keller, Susan, The Urban Neighborhood, New York: Doubleday and Company, 1967.
- Neumeyer, Martin H. and Esther S., Leisure and Recreation, New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1958.
- Reisman, David, The Lonely Crowd, New Haven: Yale University Press, 1950.
- Richardson, Harry W., Urban Economics, England: Penguin Books Limited, 1971.
- Scott, Mel, Cultural Programs of California Municipalities, Berkeley: Institute of Governmental Studies, University of California, 1963.
- Scott, Mel, Partnership in the Arts, Berkeley: Institute of Governmental Studies, University of California, 1968.
- Sogalyn, Lynne B., and Sternliech, George, Zoning and Housing Costs, Rutgers University, the State University of New Jersey, 1972.
- Suhm, Lawrence, "Cumulative Earned Leave: New Tool for Economic Planning", Social Policies for America in the 70's, edited by Robert Theobald, New York: Doubleday and Company, 1969.
- Vernon, Raymond, "The Myth and the Reality of Our Urban Problems", City and Suburb, edited by Benjmin Chinitz, New Jersey: Prentice-Hall, Incorporated, 1964.
- Wilbur, Elliot Jr., Housing: Expectations and Realities, Washington, D.C.: Arthur D. Little, Incorporated, 1971.

Periodicals

- Appleyard, Donald and Lintell, Mark, "The Environmental Quality of City Streets: The Residents Viewpoint", Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Number 38, March, 1972.
- Bechter, Dan M., "Outdoor Recreation", The Federal Reserve - Kansas City, November, 1970.
- Branch, Melville, "Continuous City Planning", Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Number 39, April, 1973.
- Brauer, Donald G., "Placing a Dollar Sign on Urban Parks", Parks and Recreation, Volume V, Number 11, November, 1970.
- Clay, Nanine, "Mini-parks: Diminishing Returns", Parks and Recreation, Volume VI, Number 1, January, 1971.
- Curtis, Joseph E., "A City Gears For Austerity", Parks and Recreation, Volume VI, Number 3, March, 1971.
- Dhainin, Felix K., "Planning a Neighborhood Park", Parks and Recreation, Volume IV, Number 9, September, 1969.
- Douglas, Paul, "The Administration and Leisure for Living", Bulletin of the American Recreation Society, Volume XLI, Number 3, April, 1960.
- Editorial, "Leisure Trends and Industrial Concerns", Parks and Recreation, Volume VI, Number 5, May, 1971.
- Gold, Seymour M., "Non-Use of Neighborhood Parks", Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Number 38, November, 1972.
- Gray, David, "The Un-Hostile Park", Parks and Recreation, Volume V, Number 2, February, 1970.
- Hendricks, Jon, "Leisure Participation As Influenced by Urban Residence Patterns", Sociology and Social Research, July, 1971.
- Kraus, Richard, "The Economics of Leisure Today", Parks and Recreation, Volume VI, Number 8, August, 1971.
- Lowery, Raymond F., Mittelstredt, Arthur H., and Ward, Richard G., "An Appraisal of Recreation Standards", Parks and Recreation, Volume IV, Number 7, July, 1969.

National Recreation and Park Association, "Local Agency Survey", Parks and Recreation, Volume VI, Number 8, August, 1971.

Nelson, Richard L., "Land Values in the United States", Urban Land Institute, Volume 28, Number 2, January, 1969.

Pendleton, Clarence Jr., "Community Involvement", Parks and Recreation, Volume V, Number 10, October, 1970.

Rolfe, Edward, "Analysis of the Spatial Distribution of Neighborhood Parks in Lansing: 1920-1960", Papers of the Michigan Academy of Science, Arts, and Letters, Volume 1, 1965.

Schmid, Allen A., "Suburban Land Appreciation and Public Policy", Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Number 36, January, 1970.

Shaffer, Helen B., "Leisure in the Great Society", Editorial Research Reports, June 4, 1963.

Voss, Justin, "The Definition of Leisure", Journal of Economic Issues, June, 1967.

_____, "The Challenge of Rising Land Costs", The Urban Land Institute, Volume 72, Number 6, June, 1968.

Reports

Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, Outdoor Recreation Action, Department of the Interior, Report 31, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, Spring, 1974.

Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, How Effective Are Your Community Recreation Services, U.S. Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, April, 1973.

Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, Outdoor Recreation Action, U.S. Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, Fall, 1973.

Citizen Advisory Committee on Environmental Quality, Annual Report to the President and the Council on Environmental Quality, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1972.

City of Lansing Community Renewal Program, Housing Market Analysis: Lansing, Michigan, Lansing Community Renewal Program, October, 1972.

Compliance Division, Office of Revenue Sharing, Report on Compliance Visits, May-June, 1973, U.S. Department of the Treasury, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, September, 1973.

Council on Environmental Quality, Environmental Quality: The Fourth Annual Report of the Council on Environmental Policy, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, September, 1973.

Hearings Before the Subcommittee on National Parks and Recreation of the Committee on Insular Affairs - House of Representatives, 90th Congress, Second Session, February 6, 7, 21, and March 4, 1968.

National Association of Home Builders, NAHB Survey of Membership, Washington, D.C.: National Association of Home Builders, 1969.

Office of Planning Services, Michigan Recreation Plan - 1975, Michigan Department of Natural Resources, 1974.

Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission, Outdoor Recreation in America, Report Number 1, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1962.

Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission, Open Space Action, Report Number 15, Washington D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1962.

Outdoor Recreation Resources Review Commission, Outdoor Recreation for America: The Future of Outdoor Recreation in Metropolitan Regions of the United States, Report Number 21, Volume 1, Washington D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1962.

Statistical Policy Division, Social Indicators, U.S. Office of Management and Budget, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Printing Office, 1973.

Tri-County Regional Planning Commission, Housing Market Analysis: Tri-County Region of Michigan, Lansing: Tri-County Regional Planning Commission, March, 1973.

Urban Recreation: A Report Prepared for the Nationwide Outdoor Recreation Plan, Department of Housing and Urban Development, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, November, 1972.

Urban Recreation Forum, Urban Recreation, U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development, Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, November, 1972.

Unpublished Materials

Greg, Robert H., Current Homesite Developed Costs, Unpublished Annual Report to Michigan Housing Developers, March 1, 1974.

Hewitt, Clinton N., A Study of Social Influences on Recreation Design, Unpublished Masters Thesis, Michigan State University, 1965.

Smith, Stephen L., Dimensions of Urban Recreation in 113 Selected Cities: An Exploration Analysis, Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation, Texas A & M, 1973.

Woodward, Gloria G., A Critique and Appraisal of Current Recreation Planning: Methodologies as Applied to Inner City Areas, Unpublished Masters Thesis, Michigan State University, 1973.

Articles

Webster, Arthur, State News, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, April, 1974.

_____, "The New American Land Rush", Time Magazine, October 1, 1972.

MICHIGAN STATE UNIV. LIBRARIES



31293100248891