

MUNICIPAL PLANNING IN
MIDDLE SIZE MICHIGAN CITIES AND
THE STATE MUNICIPAL PLANNING ACT

Thesis for the Degree of M. U. P.
MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY
RAYMOND CASE GUERNSEY
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ABSTRACT

MUNICIPAL PLANNING IN MIDDLE SIZE MICHIGAN CITIES AND THE STATE MUNICIPAL PLANNING ACT

By

Raymond Case Guernsey

This research has as its subject an analysis of the Michigan Municipal Planning Commission Act and its impact upon the state of contemporary municipal planning practice in Michigan. The study involves the history and review of contemporary comprehensive city planning legislation in the United States and a review of the history and status of Michigan's municipal planning enabling legislation. The research then focuses on general standards that are now being employed in the practice of municipal planning in the United States. The final parts of the research includes an examination of contemporary municipal planning in eleven (11) Michigan cities in the lower peninsula. The conclusion of this work identifies certain Michigan contemporary municipal planning enabling legislation needs.

An attempt has been made to analyze the intent of the state municipal planning legislation and evaluate how well the goals of that legislation are achieved in today's practice of municipal planning. Individual cities are examined to determine the adequacy of state legislation in the past, the present, and finally what it should be in the future.

The research methodology included a survey of planning staffs in the eleven (11) cities, the activities of the planning functions in these same municipalities and participant observation by the author of more than ten years working as the director of planning for a Michigan city of 130,000 persons. The interviews were conducted in the summer of 1972.

History has shown that municipal planning legislation has not kept pace with today's municipal planning needs. It is also clear that municipal planning is in a state of flux and evolution--partly brought about by the fast rate of technological change and growth of the state and nation. A movement towards state control of certain land use decisions is evident. This movement is spurred by inadequacies in the function of municipal planning today. Michigan's Municipal Planning Act evolved in the late 1920's and is based upon a 1928 model planning act.

The most important deficiencies of this enabling statute is that it: permits a proliferation of independent advisory bodies; does not consider planning as a necessary part of contemporary city administration; does not consider adequately the environment; or social or economic community planning needs; and does not clarify zoning and other "tools" of planning implementation.

This research revealed that the trends in the larger Michigan cities indicate increasing structural blight, a loss of population--mostly upper and middle income persons, a declining tax base in many communities, and an increase in social "problems." The municipalities were also found to have generally ineffective planning functions because

of limitations on their organization, their responsibilities, and because they are not organized so as to best relate the public interest to growth and/or the change that is taking place. Chapter IV and V of this research document these findings and note several approaches that Michigan can utilize to meet municipal planning needs.

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Raymond Case Guernsey

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CHAPTER I

CONTEMPORARY COMPREHENSIVE CITY PLANNING LEGISLATION
IN THE UNITED STATES--AN OVERVIEW

Contemporary comprehensive city
planning in the United States

To obtain an overview of contemporary comprehensive city planning in the United States, it is helpful to first scan the current state of the art and science of city planning that is in common practice. Next a look at the history of the development of planning legislation provides a good understanding of how the present system of statutes has evolved. For clarity, the definitions of the basic products and functions of city planning, as used in this research, are included. The overview concludes with a look at the significant trends in contemporary planning legislation that are evolving on the national scene.

Contemporary city planning in the United States has its roots deep in the western culture and architectural planning of four centuries of continuous urban development. The nation's earlier century of colonization and settlement was closely related to traditional European patterns. The later times have witnessed the modification and change of these patterns to the evolving contemporary North American scene.¹

¹John W. Reys, The Making of Urban America (Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1965), p. 1.

Contemporary life, particularly in the United States, has been dominated and distressed by the revolutionary effect of exponential technological change rates since the nineteen forties (1940's).² These and other life-affecting alterations are bringing a change in planning activities as a result of efforts to improve the traditional planning process. With these changes has come a great deal of confusion concerning the role of the city planning function in government, the activities that should be included, and the nature of planning priorities.

Schon has commented:

Planning is a profession in transformation. The settled technologies associated with city and regional planning have come to seem increasingly inadequate. Roles currently associated with planning require skills, techniques, and theory of a different order.

There is increasing dissatisfaction, for example, with our inability to integrate physical and social planning. Urban renewal and public housing have failed because they are unable to anticipate or confront the social consequences of certain changes in the physical environment. And the most recent nationwide effort to link physical and social planning, the Model Cities program, demonstrated our inability to formulate sensibly and in detail the relationship between physical and social change. Most Model Cities plans are inventories of "programs" without a framework of theory to connect physical to social change or one program to another.

The long-standing dissociation of planning from "implementation," in which the planner sees himself as producer of a planning product to be handed on to others for action, separates planning from political and interpersonal skills. Planners become, then, servants or victims rather than shapers of the political process.

There is a rising level of discussion about forecasting or designing "alternative futures," particularly with respect to technology and its consequences. But we do not have effective ways of forecasting and planning for events twenty-to-thirty years hence. Most planning

²Robert Propt, The Office-A Facility Based on Change (Elmhurst, Illinois: The Business Press, 1968), p. 12.

is short-term and crisis oriented. We have not, however, learned to deal with crisis in a way that would improve our processes and tools for anticipating and working toward longer term futures.

Most planning reflects the departmentalization of health, welfare, housing and the like. But the issues about which we are coming to care the most--issues of environmental management, for example, or of social and economic inequity--resist departmentalized solutions.³

Others have commented that the art and science of city planning has been enlarged to consider the role of art, spirit, science and technology.⁴ In addition, uncertainty exists over relationships between the planning environment and identity roles in it for citizens, politicians and planners.⁵ An indication of this changing nature of the practice of planning can be gained by comparing the Definition of Planning and Related Professions, listed in the American Institute of Planners (known as A.I.P.) membership roster for 1962-1963,⁶ with the Areas of Concentration, contained in the A.I.P. roster for 1970.⁷ Both comparisons are concerned with membership qualifications. The 1962-1963 A.I.P. membership roster listed the following:

Employment by or consulting services to a governmental comprehensive planning agency.

³Donald A. Schon, "Comments on Educating Planners," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Vol. XXXVI, No. 4 (Baltimore, Maryland: Port City Press, 1970), p. 220.

⁴William R. Ewald, Jr., Environment for Man (Bloomington, Indiana: Indiana University Press, 1967), p. 4.

⁵Walter K. Johnson, "Review Forum," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Vol. XXXV, No. 4 (Baltimore, Maryland: Port City Press, 1969), p. 285.

⁶American Institute of Planners, Membership Roster 1962-63 (Washington, D.C.: 917 Fifteenth Street, N.W., 1962), pp. 6-7.

⁷American Institute of Planners, Roster - 1970 (Washington, D.C.: 917 Fifteenth Street, N.W., Washington, D.C., 1970), p. 11.

Professional instruction in a recognized planning school.

Employment by or consulting services to a governmental or private agency in connection with comprehensive planning analysis or design, concerning the location, character and extent of major public improvements or private developments in relation to overall community development.

Research of a character that relates directly to the above types of planning activity.

Similar work with civic or educational bodies.

The 1970 roster described the parameters of planning as the A.I.P. interpreted them in at that time:

- Administration for planning and development
- Comprehensive physical planning
- Resource development
- Social planning
- Transportation planning
- Urban design
- Research methodology
- Economic planning
- Environmental sciences planning
- Renewal planning
- Planning law
- Programming and budgeting.

In relatively short time it can be seen that the practice of community planning has changed in the officialdom of the planning profession. Clearly, its scope, role and concepts are expanding. The major directions that will be receiving the attention of the practice of city planning in the future are beginning to emerge. Does Michigan's city planning enabling statutes provide the direction, flexibility and authorization essential for city planning to effectively help correct our urban problems? This concern and the nature and trend of these directions will be examined in the body of this thesis.

Contemporary comprehensive city planning, as used in this research, has been ably defined by Chapin as:

. . . a means for systematically anticipating and achieving adjustment in the physical environment of a city consistent with social and economic trends and sound principles of civic design. It involves a continuing process of deriving, organizing and presenting a broad and comprehensive program for urban development and renewal. It is designed to fulfill local objectives of social, economic and physical well-beings considering both immediate needs and those of the foreseeable future. It examines the economic and physical characteristics both as an independent entity and as a component of a whole cluster of urban centers in a given region; and it attempts to design a physical environment which brings these elements into the soundest and most harmonious plan for the development and renewal of the urban area as a whole.⁸

The effectuation of comprehensive city planning that is implied in the above definition has, unfortunately, in practice been more of an ideal rather than of common practice. The reasons for disparity need to be examined. But it is necessary to pursue this subject later and to continue this overview to establish a context necessary for understanding the analysis and findings of this research.

There are a variety of tools and practices utilized in the conduct of city planning. Foremost, and the principle manifesto of comprehensive city planning, has been the Comprehensive Plan or General Plan. This plan is an official document created under the authority of state and local legislation and adopted by a local governmental planning commission to guide decisions for the physical development of the community. Kent defines the General Plan as:

. . . the official statement of a municipal legislative body which sets forth its major policies concerning desirable future physical development; the published general-plan document must include a single, unified general physical design for the community, and it must attempt to clarify the relationships between physical-

⁸F. Stuart Chapin, Jr., Urban Land Use Planning (2nd ed., Urbana, Illinois: University of Illinois Press, 1965), p. vi.

development policies and social and economic goals."⁹ Notable is Kent's insistence on the General Plan being adopted by the legislative body. In practice, the legislative bodies required adoption of the Comprehensive Plan is only embodied in approximately one-third of the nation's state enabling statutes.¹⁰

Examining the uses of the master plan as envisioned by the enabling statutes it is found, as Harr finds, that:

. . . An analysis of the planning enabling laws discloses a dichotomy in the ends sought to be achieved through a master plan: one is largely didactic and deals with the virtues of planning; another--and quite distinct--portion moves away from speculation and is concerned with directing the application of human energies in land development. Recognition of this split may lead to understanding the difficulties of making any practical application of the pure theory of the master plan. Again, it may help reshape the enabling acts to emphasize the processes by which the master plan manages to get itself realized.

The larger share of the typical enabling act concerns itself with the making of plans. The uses to society of this mechanism are envisioned as six broad types: (1) a source of information; (2) a program for correction; (3) an estimate of the future; (4) an indicator of goals; (5) a technique for coordination; and (6) a device for stimulating public interest and responsibility . . .

. . . A second set of functions allotted to the plan by most of the planning enabling laws deals with the plan's effects upon local legislative controls of land use. It is this second broad group of uses of the plan which concerns the interest groups affected by planning. These uses seem to divide into five broad types: (1) a prophesy of public reaction; (2) a tool for the planning commission in making reports; (3) a guide to effectuating procedures and measures; (4) an ordinance regulating the use of land; and (5) a guard against the arbitrary.¹¹

⁹T. J. Kent, Jr., The Urban General Plan (San Francisco, California: Chandler Publishing Company, 1964), p. 18.

¹⁰Beverly J. Pooley, Planning and Zoning in the United States (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Legislative Research Center, University of Michigan, 1961), p. 19.

¹¹Charles M. Haar, The Master Plan: An Impermanent Constitution, Law and Contemporary Problems, Vol. 20 (Durnham, North Carolina: Duke University, 1955), pp. 355-356.

The use of the master plan obviously requires other planning tools in the conduct of the planning process. The most noteworthy of the tools are: (1) land subdivision controls; (2) land use zoning; (3) capital improvement budgeting; (4) urban renewal plans and programs; (5) architectural and historic plans; (6) policies, plans and goal objective statements; and (7) socio-economic measures such as: education, economic, and housing programs and/or plans.

An additional and important implementation function, vital in the planning process, is the planning agency. An administrative function, the planning department is part of local government, usually a line-staff agency that retains professional planning staff. Administratively and technically responsible for the city's planning effort, today's planning agencies organizationally have been shifting toward the function of aiding the chief executive and toward the development of strategy and guidance of the total community development function--quite often formalized and known as community development departments.

The principle functions of the planning agency are generally understood to include: the making and maintaining of the master plan; helping to establish community objectives; provide consultation; and to educate the public concerning planning and to coordinate and administer functions which lead to implementation of the community's development objectives. A trend toward including socio-economic programs, as a part of normal agency functions, is clearly detectable.

Dennis O'Harrow has appropriately concluded that:

Planning strives hard to be a science, but it will always remain fundamentally an art. Which is to say that while techniques are

important and constant improvement desirable, the personal skill of the planner--of the artist--is paramount. What he does is not nearly as crucial as how he does it.¹²

Review of city planning legislation - state and national

Further understanding of the activity and legislative relationships of contemporary comprehensive city planning can be gained if it is conceptually linked to the national hierarchical government structure. City planning is placed at the lower (local) level of four broad government levels consisting of national, state, district, and local governments. Within each of these levels of government, comprehensive planning should function as a horizontal process and should interlink policy, coordinative, and integrated functional planning processes in a vertical manner. The three lower levels of these relationships are portrayed in Figure 1.

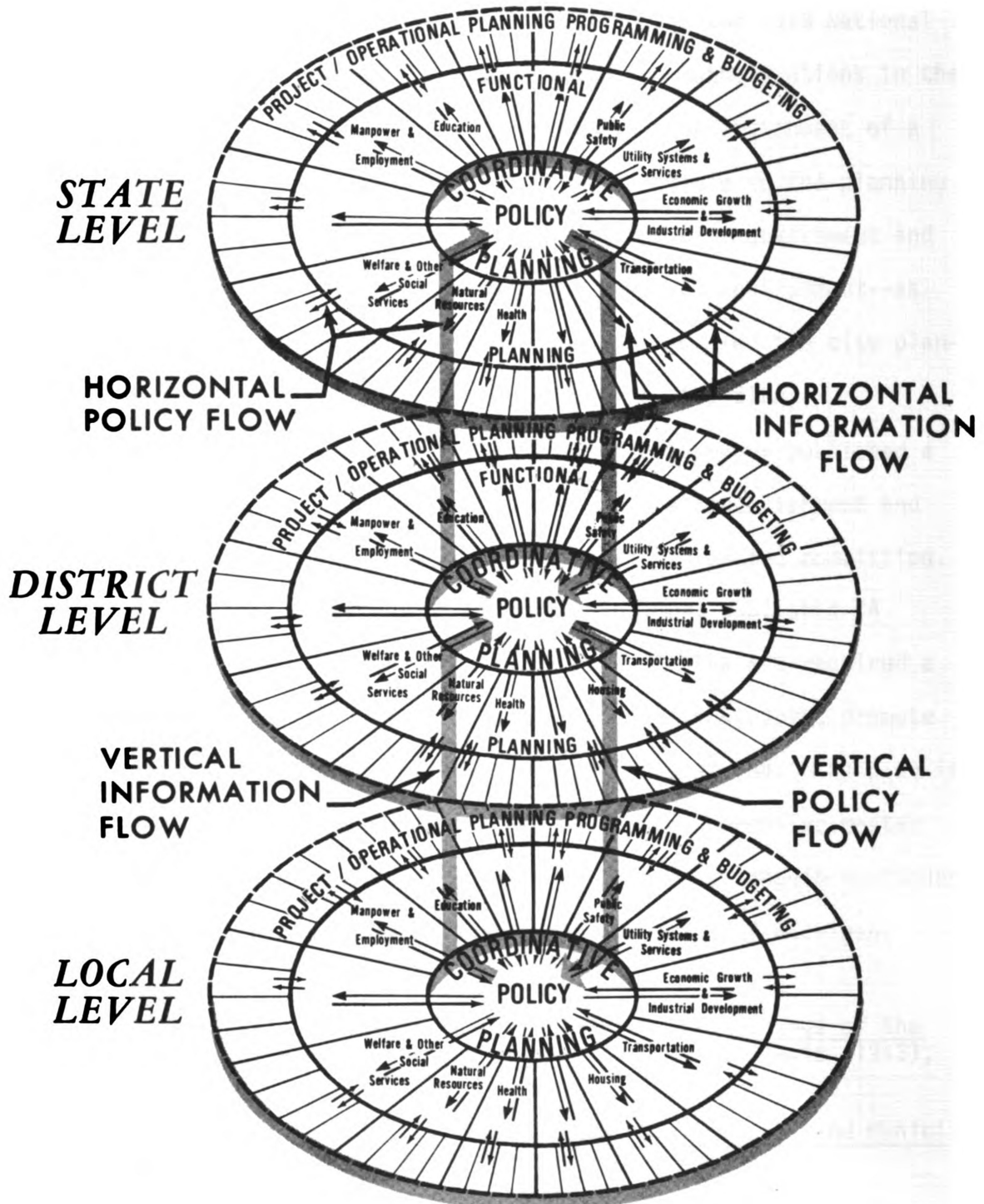
Historically, the first legislation permitting the establishment of a city planning commission was enacted in 1907 by the Connecticut legislature through an amendment to the Hartford City Charter.¹³ Some states followed Connecticut's lead. In 1913 the Massachusetts legislature formulated legislation requiring all cities of over 10,000 population to create official planning boards.¹⁴ The legislation of

¹²International City Managers Association, Principles and Practice of Urban Planning (Washington, D.C., 1968), preface.

¹³Mel Scott, American City Planning Since 1890 (Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1969), p. 80.

¹⁴International City Managers Association, Principles and Practice of Urban Planning, p. 22.

Figure 1. Planning Process Linkages--Vertical and Horizontal.



the states permitted a poliferation of independent "citizen planning bodies." They soon proved to be uncoordinated and insufficient to properly provide for the function of city planning. A model state enabling act was therefore drafted and submitted at the 1913 National Conference on City Planning.¹⁵ Notable among the authorizations in the act were the provisions which: (1) permitted the establishment of a city planning department and its staffing, responsible to the planning commission; (2) authorized consultation to advise city government and private companies on matters concerning the physical environment--as related to the city plan; and (3) empowered and required the city planning commission to accept responsibility for the city plan.

Three years later the National Municipal League published a Model City Charter¹⁶ containing provisions for the establishment and function--as a part of city government--of a city planning commission.

The U. S. Department of Commerce, in 1924, published "A Standard State Zoning Enabling Act (S.Z.E.A.)."¹⁷ The Act required a zoning plan, designed to lessen congestion on public streets, promote public health, safety and general welfare, to be prepared. The plan is not, however, clearly related by statute to the comprehensive master plan. A great deal of confusion concerning this relationship continues to this day, on a national level and within the State of Michigan.

¹⁵National Conference on City Planning, Proceedings of the Fifth National Conference on City Planning (Chicago, Illinois, 1913), p. 248.

¹⁶National Municipal League, A Model City Charter and Municipal Home Rule (Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, 1916), p. 51.

¹⁷U. S. Department of Commerce, Advisory Committee on City Planning and Zoning, A Standard State Zoning Enabling Act (Washington, D.C., 1924).

These and similar reform actions all became a part of the evolving city, state, and legislative basis for city planning and led to the promulgation of the "Standard City Planning Enabling Act" (S.C.P.E.A.).¹⁸ This Act was distributed by Secretary of Commerce Herbert Hoover in 1928. The provisions of the Standard Act expanded upon previous legislation, and it was an attempt to provide a uniform approach to the role of city planning in the United States. In substance the Standard Act was constructed of five titles. The first title (title one) established the importance of the city planning commission and charged it with the preparation, maintenance and sole adoption of the master plan. The Standard Act further provided for mandatory referral to the planning commission of all public projects affecting the physical development of the city. Disapproval of the character, location, and extent of a proposed public improvement could be overridden only by a two-thirds vote of the legislative body or of the board of the agency proposing the improvement. Powers previously vested in a zoning commission were to be transferred to the planning commission.

The master plan was not concretely defined, but was to be drafted to include a zoning plan for both public and private land usage and plans for public streets, grounds, building sites, public works and utility constructions.

¹⁸U. S. Department of Commerce, Advisory Committee on City Planning and Zoning, A Standard City Planning Enabling Act (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1928).

Titles two, three, and four concerned land subdivision controls with extra territorial powers, reservation of future street right-of-ways, and outlined a permissive procedure for regional planning, respectively. Title five contained miscellaneous provisions.

Problems caused by the S.C.P.E.A. have been outlined by Kent as:

1. confusion between the zoning plan and the working-and-living areas section of the general plan;¹⁹
2. piecemeal adoption of the general plan;
3. lack of a specific definition of the essential physical elements to be dealt with in the general plan;
4. basic questions as to the scope of the general plan; and
5. distrust of the municipal legislative body.²⁰

Across the United States the criticism of the S.C.P.E.A. is intensifying. Recently the American Law Institute summarized the following problems of the S.C.P.E.A. and the S.Z.E.A.:

1. The attempt to guide development of land by prohibitions and restrictions, without using the power of public acquisition and disposition of land and the power of public spending to secure desired development, is likely to be an ineffective method of ordering land development.
2. The unrestricted grant of power to the smallest unit of local government (town, village, city) has produced a distortion in metropolitan growth and almost impotence in attack on regional problems such as pollution, inadequate supply of decent housing, proper management of the environment, transportation and the like.
3. The unrestricted grant of power to local governments has produced, in many cases, incompetent planning and, in many others,

¹⁹The General Plan as used here is the same as the master plan.

²⁰Kent, The Urban General Plan, p. 33.

an administrative process which runs counter to many concepts of fairness and orderly procedure.

4. The idea of a "static master plan" that is a map representing optimum civic design in its ultimate form has not only failed to guide land development because no legal significance was attached to that plan by S.Z.E.A. and S.C.P.E.A., but the idea is itself faulty because the forces of urban growth and decay are too dynamic to be ordered in such ridged fashion.
5. Ordinances enacted under existing laws by a host of small but growing urban communities at the periphery of a large metropolitan complex have been unable to deal effectively with large-scale development of viable new communities, "industrial parks," "residential subdivision," "regional shopping areas," may result from existing zoning districts but the relation of industry to housing of the work force and the relation of each to a whole complex of urban services such as schools, hospitals, day-care centers, neighborhood shopping areas, and the like, are often ignored; in part because the unit of government regulating development is too small to plan comprehensively for these services.²¹

In application, the S.C.P.E.A. has instigated and influenced reform reactions that carry into the present-affecting state and local legislation. This is particularly true in Michigan.

In the 1930's, while many states including Michigan, were adopting legislation based on the S.C.P.E.A., the great depression brought the accelerating expansion of planning to a halt. There was little concern for planning legislative needs when very little planning was being done.

The revival of activity and interest came about in the later 1930's and early 1940's as the result of activities of the National Planning Board and a few universities.²² The Board encouraged and

²¹The American Law Institute, A Model Land Development Code, Draft No. 2 (Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, 1970), pp. XIV-XV.

²²Edward M. Bassett, Model Laws for Planning Cities, Counties and States, Vol. VII, Harvard City Planning Studies, 1935.

aided state planning endeavors which, in turn, stimulated local governments by promotion and by assistance of an educative, legislative and technical nature.²³ Increasing concern for deterioration in the older inner cities and the movement of the urban population to the suburbs was then notable.

This revival was short-lived as World War II soon absorbed the nation's energies and resources. The nation put aside the majority of planning activities until the war's conclusion. Legislative exceptions occurred in 1943 when the American Society of Planning Officials (ASPO) introduced a model Urban Redevelopment Law.²⁴ A strong interest in such activities was evident as a number of states enacted redevelopment legislation in the next few years.

The end of World War II saw the evolvement of hotly contested national debates over housing and redevelopment legislation. The Housing and Development Acts of 1945, 1947 and 1948 were of importance as they generally had a direct effect on state legislation and the housing and redevelopment activities of the local planning function. In addition, they set the stage for the 1949 act--a planning milestone.

Peace time adjustment saw great movements of people, business and industry. Urban sprawl soon created monotonous physical environments, blanketed open spaces, and fed the fires of real estate speculation. Advancements in science and technology weakened the necessity for a

²³Russell Van Nest Black, Planning and the Planning Profession - The Past Fifty Years 1917-1967, American Institute of Planners (Washington, D.C.: October, 1967), p. 9.

²⁴Scott, American City Planning, pp. 425-465.

compact urban pattern. Grabbing and vying for property tax base, the city and its suburbs established one of the chief obstacles to comprehensive areawide planning. Like an incoming tide came the increasing flow of low-income and minority persons to the inner city and simultaneously occurred a correspondingly steady outward flow of the more affluent predominately white population to the suburbs. There evolved the "city with a city" conditions that exist today in the major urban centers of the nation. These conditions are clearly evident in Michigan's major cities.

The Housing and Development Act of 1949 required, as a national policy, that all redevelopment plans conform to the general community master plan. This helped to avoid some confusion, but the growing trend for housing, redevelopment and similar agencies within a single local government to go their own way emerged as a deterrent to coordinated and harmonious community development activities. The Housing and Development Act of 1949 created a tremendous impact on city planning, an impact which recent history has shown has influenced the metropolitan scale of planning, while at the same time provided local governments the aids to "go their own way." It focused on the rebuilding of blighted areas; placed housing needs and concerns in the forefront of national attention; and challenged the planning approach to community development.²⁵ The Act was unquestionably ahead of the nation's ability to properly and fully execute. Leadership was established. Universities moved to develop planning programs to train qualified city planners; a

²⁵Scott, American City Planning, pp. 464-465.

number of state governments, who had not already done so, adopted enabling legislation; and many cities were stimulated to seek closer organization and relations between public housing, planning and redevelopment agencies.

Continued refinement occurred in the housing acts of the next several years. The next important city planning legislative milestone occurred in 1954. Section 701 of the Housing Act of 1954²⁶ has proved to have a wide impact on small cities, metropolitan areas, and state planning. This section: (a) defined comprehensive planning and the minimum contents of the general plan; (b) authorized planning grants to cities and communities of less than 50,000 population and to regional planning agencies with the purpose of encouraging planning coordination among governments and otherwise acted as a strong leadership and economic impetus for community planning.

During the sixties two national laws were enacted which were particularly important to city planning. The Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act of 1966²⁷ and the Housing and Urban Development Act of 1968²⁸ have both set goals and provided assistance which will influence city planning functions and legislation throughout the seventies and beyond. The Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan

²⁶U. S., Congress, Senate, Housing and Urban Development Act of 1954, Pub. L. 83-560, 83d. Cong., 1st sess., 1954, S. 590.

²⁷U. S., Congress, Senate, Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act of 1966, Pub. L. 89-754, 89 Cong., 2d sess., S. 3307.

²⁸U. S., Congress, Senate, Housing and Urban Development Act of 1968, Pub. L. 90-448, 90 Cong., 1st sess., S. 3497.

Development Act is commonly referred to as the Model Cities Act. This Act authorized grants and technical assistance to cities to carry out comprehensive demonstration programs to reverse blight trends and improve the physical and social well-being of the residents of a defined neighborhood. Block grants were authorized and priority procedures established to concentrate and coordinate existing programs.

The Housing and Urban Development Act of 1968 contained the most important revisions to the Housing and Urban Development Acts of the sixties. The Act affected city planning in the following areas:

1. Title IV provided additional technical and economic assistance for new communities.
2. Title V provided established financial assistance for Neighborhood Development Programs (NDP), an improved urban renewal approach.
3. Title VI extensively revised section 701 of the 1954 Act by:
 - a. Authorizing grants to state planning agencies for assistance to small "district" planning for rural areas.
 - b. Authorized direct grants to regional and district councils of government; to regional commissions and economic development districts; and to cities for which planning is a part of metropolitan planning.
 - c. Broadening the definition of comprehensive planning to include planning for governmental services and for the development and utilization of human and natural resources.
 - d. Requiring the inclusion of a housing element as a part of comprehensive land use plans when federal aid is involved in their preparation.
 - e. Authorized supplementary grants designed to encourage areawide planning.
 - f. Broadened the definition of eligibility of the advance acquisition of land program.

In reflecting on federal action, it is clear that the atomic age has focused the nation's resources on defense and world diplomacy. The implementation of the subsequent Housing and Urban Development Acts have clearly provided national leadership but not the economic resources to accomplish enumerated goals. In addition, the lack of national policy in certain related areas has contributed to metropolitan problems.

The examination of national, state, and local legislation indicates the role of the states in the development of contemporary city planning legislation has usually been that of a reluctant follower, rather than a dynamic leader. National and local government have generally been the leader and impetus, respectively.

All states but Arizona and Texas had established provisions relating to community planning by 1961.²⁹ A review of these Acts reveals that the S.C.P.E.A.³⁰ has, in substance, provided the basis for the greater number of these provisions.³¹

Certain notable exceptions to both the traditional leadership role and the use of the Standard Planning Act have evolved during the last two decades on the state level.

In 1961 the State of Hawaii established the first step toward centralization of land use regulatory controls.³² Known as the Hawaiian

²⁹Polley, Planning and Zoning in the United States, p. 13.

³⁰U. S. Department of Commerce, S.C.P.E.A., op. cit.

³¹Charles M. Haar, The Master Plan: An Impermanent Constitution, pp. 377-418.

³²Ira Michael Heyman, "Planning Legislation: 1963 Annual Legislative Review," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Vol. XXX, No. 3 (Baltimore, Maryland: Port City Press, 1964), pp. 247-252.

Land Use Law,³³ the law establishes minimal state-wide land use regulation requirements and provides a guide for state-wide planning through the use of a state general plan. Detailed regulation and planning for micro location, character and extent of land uses remains the responsibility of local island governments. The macro area planning is shifted to state government. In 1969, Oregon and Maine also established state zoning controls.³⁴ Oregon's Act authorized the governor to prepare comprehensive land use plans and establish zoning ordinances for all land not subject to city or county zoning laws. Maine's Act establishes a Land Use Regulation Commission which is authorized to establish land use regulations for all land outside incorporated townships and within a prescribed distance--five hundred feet, of public roads, and the shoreline of most lakes and ponds. This commission is also empowered to establish subdivision control regulations. One of the main intents of the regulations is control of population around bodies of water in the state. In practice, nearly one-half of the land in the state is so zoned.

The State of Indiana adopted legislation in 1965 affecting counties having a first class city which abolished the powers and duties of all existing county and city planning commissions and transferred them to a metropolitan planning commission. (Currently only

³³Act 187 S.L.H., 1961, Title IIF, Chapter 98H, Rev. Laws of Hawaii, 1955 (1961 Supl.) as amended by Act 205, S.L.H., 1963.

³⁴Norman Beckman, "Planning and Urban Development: Legislative Review - 1968-1969," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Vol. XXVI, No. 5 (Baltimore, Maryland: Port City Press, Sept., 1970), pp. 345-359.

Indianapolis--Marion County).³⁵ The legislation placed all land use control and planning authority in a county-wide agency.

The Kentucky legislature in 1966 adopted a complete revision of its local Planning Enabling Act.³⁶ The revised Act includes provisions for the preparation, adoption and content of comprehensive plans; official map regulations; capitol improvement program budgeting; subdivision regulations; and zoning regulations. Important aspects of the Act require that:

1. Goals, objectives, and land use elements of a comprehensive plan be completed and adopted by the planning commission prior to the adoption of any zoning regulations;
2. Transportation and community facilities plan elements be completed and adopted prior to the adoption of an official map or subdivision regulations;
3. Once a county-wide planning function is established, no city can form an independent planning unit;
4. Counties with a population over 300,000 and counties containing a first-class city are required to establish a county-wide planning commission; and
5. Cities under 3,000 cannot adopt land use control ordinances. County-wide legislation is provided for these cities.

The passage of Public Law 86-380 by Congress in 1959 provided for the establishment of the Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations. The purpose of the Commission is to give continuing study to the relationships among local, state, and national levels of government. Since 1961 the Commission has annually compiled its recommendations for legislature actions by translating them in the form of draft

³⁵Indiana, Revised Statutes, Annotated, H.A. 1538; Act, 1965.

³⁶Kentucky, Revised Statutes, H.B. 390, 1966.

bills and policy statements. The 1966 State Legislative Program³⁷ related county-municipal planning and zoning relationships by suggesting state legislation which contained three important innovations. First, the Act would empower the county to review and approve, for consistency with county-wide planning objectives, certain planning and zoning actions of existing cities between 5,000 and 30,000 population. Second, the county is empowered to exercise its planning and zoning authority in all cities incorporated within the county, until their population exceeds 30,000 after the passage of the Act.

The Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations noted that:

Not only do states have a responsibility for coping with urbanization after it has taken place, but they also have a responsibility to plan for urbanization to come. The states need to act rather than merely to react. For states to fulfill their key role in the development of urbanization policy, they must have a planning process that will develop the policies needed to channel and guide the growth of the state. The states, through their constitutions and statutes, determine the general outline and many of the details of the specific structure, form and direction of urban growth. They should supply guidance for specific local government, metropolitan, and multicounty planning and development programs. They should establish a link between urban land use and development oriented local planning efforts and broader regional and national objectives. Although the evolution of effective state planning can be seen in a few states, it is doubtful if planning in any state government has arrived yet at a stage adequate for assuming its appropriate role in the development of state land use and urbanization policy.³⁸

³⁷ Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, 1966 Legislative Program, M-27 (Washington, D.C., October, 1965), pp. 250-262.

³⁸ Advisory Commission on Intergovernmental Relations, New Proposals for 1969, ACIR State Legislative Program, M-39 (Washington, D.C., June, 1968), p. 405-1.

Significant trends in contemporary comprehensive city planning legislation

Reviewing the significant overall trends in legislation for contemporary comprehensive city planning, there is a clear and growing recognition by federal and state governmental units that the traditionally fragmented local government control of urban development and planning is not capable of resolving the problems of environmental, renewal and development changes. This recognition has led to changes and proposals for change in legislation at all levels of government.

On the state level, changes in enabling legislation aimed at local government indicate a strong focus on the expansion of the planning function to metropolitan and larger geographical areas. The trend has taken the form of the extension of land use and planning controls to metropolitan and larger geographical distances from the central city. (This extension is much the same as envisioned in the S.C.P.E.A.).³⁹ Other forms taken by this trend are by the state enabling joint programs on a metropolitan-wide basis and by specific acts consolidating planning responsibilities for metropolitan areas. Action within state government has taken the form of creating state planning functions close to decision makers often in the form of a State Department of Community Development. There has followed a number of related activities such as: control of municipal incorporations; establishment of state-wide land use goals, policies, and regulations (sometimes with the power to supersede local government, particularly in the areas of historic

³⁹U. S. Department of Commerce, A Standard City Planning Enabling Act, pp. 24-25.

preservation, environmental concerns and housing for low income families); and direct state involvement in development activities by the creation of state-wide planning and development agencies with independent financing, and broad developmental powers or by financial aid and enabling legislation for basic urban facilities.

Federal changes affecting planning in general also have direct impact on curbing fragmentation of state and local planning. The establishment of the Department of Housing and Urban Development, the Intergovernmental Cooperation Act of 1968, the National Housing Acts, and the proposed National Land Use Policy Act are but a few of the more important changes. The 1971 National Land Use Policy Act, for example, induces states to assume land-use planning and regulation for environmental and historical concerns. Concern has been raised by spokesmen for local government⁴⁰ that federal proposals threaten their traditional control. While this allegation is truthful, such steps apparently are necessary.

There are also moderate trends toward the adoption of new legislation and the revision of older legislative acts to be in tune with current planning practice and changing times. These trends have taken the following forms on the state level:

1. Enabling legislation which recognizes the desirability of flexible land-use controls and enables local regulations to include planned unit development (P.U.D.) and cluster development options, or similar devices permitting flexibility based on design in siting;

⁴⁰Robert W. Knecht, "Land-Use Planning at the Crossroads," National League of Cities, Nation's Cities, Vol. 9, No. 6 (June, 1971), pp. 30-31.

2. Official recognition of the need and the requirement of comprehensive planning as a basis for land use control regulations--particularly zoning;
3. The broadening of the legislative content, definition and comprehensiveness for city planning requirements. Example can be identified pertaining to the definition of content requirements of the comprehensive plan, for the expansion of the varied kind of functions authorized in the planning process, and for the involvement of the local decision makers and legislative body directly in the planning process.

It is clear that the current state of the art and science of comprehensive city planning is in a state of flux, partly brought about by the rate of technological change and growth of the nation. History has shown that legislation has evolved quite slowly and not kept pace with the nation's contemporary planning needs. The significant trends in city planning legislation recognize the needs of the state and nation to change to meet contemporary challenges. But yet no clearly adequate solutions have been universally accepted and applied. Local control of urban development has been seriously inhibited by competition among fractionalized local governments. There appears to be movement toward state control of certain planning and land-use decisions--with some of the impetus coming from increasing federal pressure.

What is the form and content of the present city planning legislation in the state of Michigan? What is its history and what are the trends in Michigan's city planning law? These questions are answered in Chapter II of this research.

CHAPTER II

THE MICHIGAN PLANNING ACT - HISTORY AND PRESENT STATUS

History of enactment

The enabling statute in Michigan which provides for: city, village and municipal planning; the creation, responsibilities and function of planning commissions; and for planning relationships of the regulation and subdivision of land, is known as the MUNICIPAL PLANNING COMMISSION ACT, Act 285 of the Public Acts of 1931, as amended.¹

Looking back in history one finds that Act 285 was first introduced in the Senate by the Honorable James E. Lawson, Michigan Senate, on April 23, 1931. The proposed Act was given its first and second reading and referred to the Senate Committee on Cities and Villages. This Committee reported the Act to the Committee of the Whole with a favorable recommendation and without amendment. On May 11, 1931 the Senate read the Act for the third time and passed it--without amendment and referred it to the House. The House acted quickly; on May 12, 1931, after reading the Act for the first and second times, the Act was referred to the Committee on City Corporations where the only amendments of record were made. The Committee recommended that the authority of

¹Michigan, Municipal Planning Commission Act, Act 285 of the Public Acts of 1931, as Amended, Compiled Laws, Revised, Annotated (1948), p. 471.

the designated officer to appoint members of the planning commission always be subject to the approval by a majority vote of the legislative body.

The House concurred and on May 21, 1931 the Act, with this amendment, was read a third time and passed. The Honorable Wilber M. Brucker, Governor, signed Act 285 into law on June 9, 1931.

Formal legislative consideration of the Act thus took less than seven weeks. Little controversy surrounded the Act's legislative journey and only one formal amendment was offered. It passed without difficulty. The records² indicate the Act was strongly supported, with few dissenting votes, by both houses. This should not be construed as the full acceptance by citizens of the state as strong support for city planning. It appears that limited use of all the powers of the Act reflects an inadequacy of will, understanding, and acceptance. This is evaluated more completely in Chapter IV.

Relationship to the Standard City Planning Enabling Act

Michigan's Municipal Planning Commission Act was clearly based upon "A Standard City Planning Enabling Act."³ Its legislative

²Michigan, Journal of the Senate, Regular Session, Vol. I (Lansing, 1931), pp. 633-634.

Michigan, Journal of the Senate, Regular Session, Vol. II (Lansing, 1931), pp. 871-872.

Michigan, Journal of the House of Representatives, Regular Session, Vol. II (Lansing, 1931), pp. 1211, 1368, 1460.

Michigan, Journal of the Senate, Regular Session, Vol. II (Lansing, 1931), pp. 1137-1138, 1233.

³U. S. Department of Commerce, A Standard City Planning Enabling Act.

intent must, therefore, be closely related to that of the Standard City Planning Enabling Act. In the forward of the Act the Honorable Herbert Clark Hoover, Secretary, Department of Commerce, U. S. Government, commented that:

In several hundred American cities and regions, planning commissions are working with public officials and private groups in order to obtain more orderly and efficient physical development of their land area. They are concerned partly with rectifying past mistakes, but more with securing such location and development of streets, parks, public utilities and public and private buildings as will best serve the needs of the people for their homes, their industry and trade, their travel about the city, and their recreation. The extent to which they succeed affects in no small degree the return, in terms of practical usefulness now and for years to come, of several hundred million dollars of taxpayers' money spent each year for public improvements, as well as the value and serviceability of new private construction costing several billion dollars each year.⁴

It is clear that the intent as so described was economic, efficiency and future oriented. It was meant to have a strong influence on both public and private construction.

Comparing Sections one (1) through fifteen (15) of the "Michigan Municipal Planning Commission Act" with similar topic Sections one (1) through fifteen (15) of "A Standard City Planning Enabling Act," a substantial correspondence is found to exist. Exceptions to this similarity are noted in Section 10 (10) of the Michigan Municipal Planning Commission Act,⁵ an added section, which governs recession of action previously taken by the legislative body--including referral

⁴U. S. Department of Commerce, A Standard City Planning Enabling Act, p. III.

⁵Michigan, Municipal Planning Commission Act (M.S.A.5.3000) 125.40, Section 10.

procedures. An additional exception or difference is found in Section twelve (12) of "A Standard City Planning Enabling Act,"⁶ where subdivision control territorial jurisdiction is established. This section, discussed later, is omitted from the "Michigan Municipal Planning Commission Act."

The S.C.P.E.A. contained additional powers and authorizations which were not included in the "Michigan Municipal Planning Commission Act." This is regrettable in that several of these provisions could have done, and still could do, much to improve the quality and efficiency of community development in Michigan. The most notable of these exclusions pertains to the ability of the commission to effectively implement the Master Plan by land subdivision control.

Section one (1) definitions in "A Standard City Planning Enabling Act" contains the following definition of "subdivision":. . .

. . . the division of a lot, tract, or parcel of land for the purpose, whether immediate or future, of sale or of building development. . .⁷

As previously mentioned, Title II, Section twelve (12) contains the following authorization for subdivision jurisdiction:

The territorial jurisdiction of any municipal planning commission over the subdivision of land shall include all land located in the municipality and all land lying within five miles of the corporate limits of the municipality and not located in any other municipality, except that, in the case of any such non-municipal land lying within five miles of more than one municipality having a planning commission, shall terminate at a boundary line

⁶U. S. Department of Commerce, A Standard City Planning Enabling Act, p. 24.

⁷Ibid., p. 6.

equidistant from the respective corporate limits of such municipalities.⁸

Finally, a third section--Section 19--authorized the prohibition of the issuance of building permits,

unless the street giving access to the lot upon which such building is proposed to be placed (a) shall have been accepted or opened as, or shall otherwise have received, the legal status of a public street prior to that time, or unless such street (b) corresponds with a street shown on the official master plan or with a street on a subdivision plat approved by the planning commission. . . .⁹

Had these provisions been incorporated in the "Michigan Municipal Planning Commission Act" and effectuated during the last forty years, a substantial reduction in the large amount of existing wasted land created by poor land division practices could have been realized.

Another important difference between the two Acts exists. An amendment to Section one (1)--Definitions, of the "Michigan Municipal Planning Commission Act," effectuated in September of 1952, expanded the definition of municipality to include townships and charter townships. The Standard Enabling Act, in its descriptive footnotes, expressly excluded townships and counties because they are administrative subdivisions of the state rather than separate urban unincorporated communities. Such amendments can only contribute to the multiplicity of small overlapping, duplicating and oftentimes competing governments

⁸Op. cit., pp. 24-25.

⁹Op. cit., p. 33.

which characterizes the average urban community in Michigan and in the nation.¹⁰

Discussion of provisions of the
Municipal Planning Commission Act

Michigan's Municipal Planning Commission Act (M.M.P.C.A.) was adopted with the stated purpose to provide for municipal planning and for the regulation and subdivision of land. It contains fifteen (15) sections. A sixteenth (16th) section, a severing clause, was repealed in 1945. Section one (1) establishes definitions for terms and defines municipal to include cities, villages, townships, charter townships and other incorporated political subdivisions. Thus, as noted before, differing political units within a metropolitan area are permitted to plan independently.

Section two (2) authorizes and empowers a municipality to create and carry out a municipal master plan and to establish a planning commission. The Michigan Act varies slightly from the S.C.P.E.A. in that the planning commission powers may be extended by ordinance and specifically in that the Act does not modify or affect the powers of a commission established under a charter except to enlarge or add to such powers. It has been noted¹¹ that the S.C.P.E.A. (and thus the M.M.P.C.A.) assumes that decisions to acquire land and to develop land are made

¹⁰U. S. Congress, House, National Commission on Urban Problems, Building the American City, House, Doc. No. 91-34, 91st Cong., 1st sess., Washington, D.C., December, 1968, pp. 323-324.

¹¹The American Law Institute, A Model Land Development Code, p. xii.

without relation to planning laws and that the focus of local laws is to prohibit undesirable development and not to foster desirable development. It was also noted that, as worded, permissively, the Act did not relate the public interest of the state to the actual performance of planning, to require development in accordance with a plan, or to the reasoned benefit of the local community and to larger governmental areas.

Sections three (3), four (4), and five (5) set forth the planning commission; membership; rules; and permits employment of staff and/or consultants, and provides for contract and expenditure authority.

The master plan is the subject of sections six (6), seven (7), and eight (8). The planning commission is required to make and adopt a master plan for its area of authority. The sections do not clearly define the content and form of the plan, but certain indications of content are stated. It is required that the master plan be based on careful surveys and studies, and that it shall be made with the following purpose:

. . . of guiding and accomplishing a coordinated, adjusted and harmonious development of the municipality and its environs which will, in accordance with present and future needs, best promote health, safety morals, order, convenience, prosperity, and general welfare, as well as efficiency and economy in the process of development; including, among other things, adequate provision for traffic, the promotion of safety from fire and other dangers, adequate provision for light and air, the promotion of the healthful and convenient distribution of population, the promotion of good civic design and arrangement, wise and efficient expenditure of public funds, and the adequate provision of public utilities and other public requirements.¹²

¹²Michigan, Municipal Planning Commission Act, No. 125.37, Sec. 7.

Amendments in 1943 and 1962 to Section six (6) expanded the contents and requirements of the master plan to include recommendations for the general location, character and extent of community centers, neighborhood units and flood plains; for the general location, character, layout and extent of the replanning and redevelopment of blighted districts and slum areas.

The implementation of the master plan and powers and responsibilities of the planning commission are set forth in Section nine (9) through fifteen (15). In Sections nine (9), ten (10), and eleven (11) procedures requiring mandatory referral of a proposed public development project to the planning commission, by the municipal council or by the board, commission, or body that has jurisdiction, are established. Powers to promote public interest in the plan, to attend conferences of city planning institutes, to make studies and surveys, are also established. These sections further place responsibility upon the planning commission to prepare reports and to consult and advise various agencies and organizations in the community.

Amendments to Section nine (9) in 1943 expanded the planning commission's responsibilities to include the annual preparation of a coordinated and comprehensive six-year program of public structures and improvements.

Specific authorizations to effectuate the implementation tools of land subdivision regulation and land use zoning are the topics of Sections twelve (12) through fifteen (15). In these sections the powers of the zoning commission are delegated to the planning commission; the filing or recording of a subdivision plat is prohibited

until approval is granted by the planning commission; and authorization for the adoption and effectuation of land subdivision regulations is established.

Now to view Michigan's Municipal Planning Commission Act from an overall perspective: Records show the Act was formally adopted approximately forty years ago. It is further found to be based upon-- with some modifications and in an incomplete form--"A Standard City Planning Enabling Act,"¹³ an act spurred by a government reform movement and rooted in the technology and planning principles of the 1920's. As such, the M.M.P.C.A. contains the flaws found in the application of the S.C.P.E.A. discussed in Chapter I. Notably that:

1. The Act permits a poliferation of independent advisory planning bodies not directly related to the administrative or legislative functions of government, within metropolitan or larger areas.
2. The public interest was not considered for:
 - a. the actual requirement for a community to engage in community-wide planning;
 - b. community growth to be developed in accord with a plan;
 - c. the utilization of the planning process to, in fact, further the public interests of the local and area-wide community or the state; and the use of the powers of public spending as well as land acquisition and disposition to provide an effective ordering of land development.
3. Community development decisions were not required to consider planning laws directed toward improving design and systems and advertng the spoiling of the environment, but only toward regulations which restricted, or attempted to prohibit, undesirable development.

¹³U. S. Department of Commerce, A Standard City Planning Enabling Act.

4. The concept of a ridged "plan," with a lack of definition or scope, fails to recognize the dynamic nature of growth and decay; and
5. The Act confuses the relationship of zoning to the plan and permits piecemeal adoption of the plan by an independent planning commission.
6. The planning commission is purely advisory, coordinative and promotive in nature and based primarily upon policy power as delegated by the state, thus not meeting the challenge or needs of the 1970's and the future.

These, among other faults, clearly state the need for revising and redesigning the State of Michigan's City Planning enabling legislation to reflect the state's contemporary needs and technical state of city planning in the 1970's.

What are these needs and what is the technology? These are reviewed in Chapter III.

CHAPTER III

GENERAL STANDARDS FOR CONTEMPORARY COMPREHENSIVE CITY PLANNING

Contemporary American scene and its effect upon city planning

Today the American scene is strongly affected by certain transitional characteristics which directly influence comprehensive city planning. One of the most important of these characteristics is the revolutionary causing exponential rate of change. Propst has noted that:

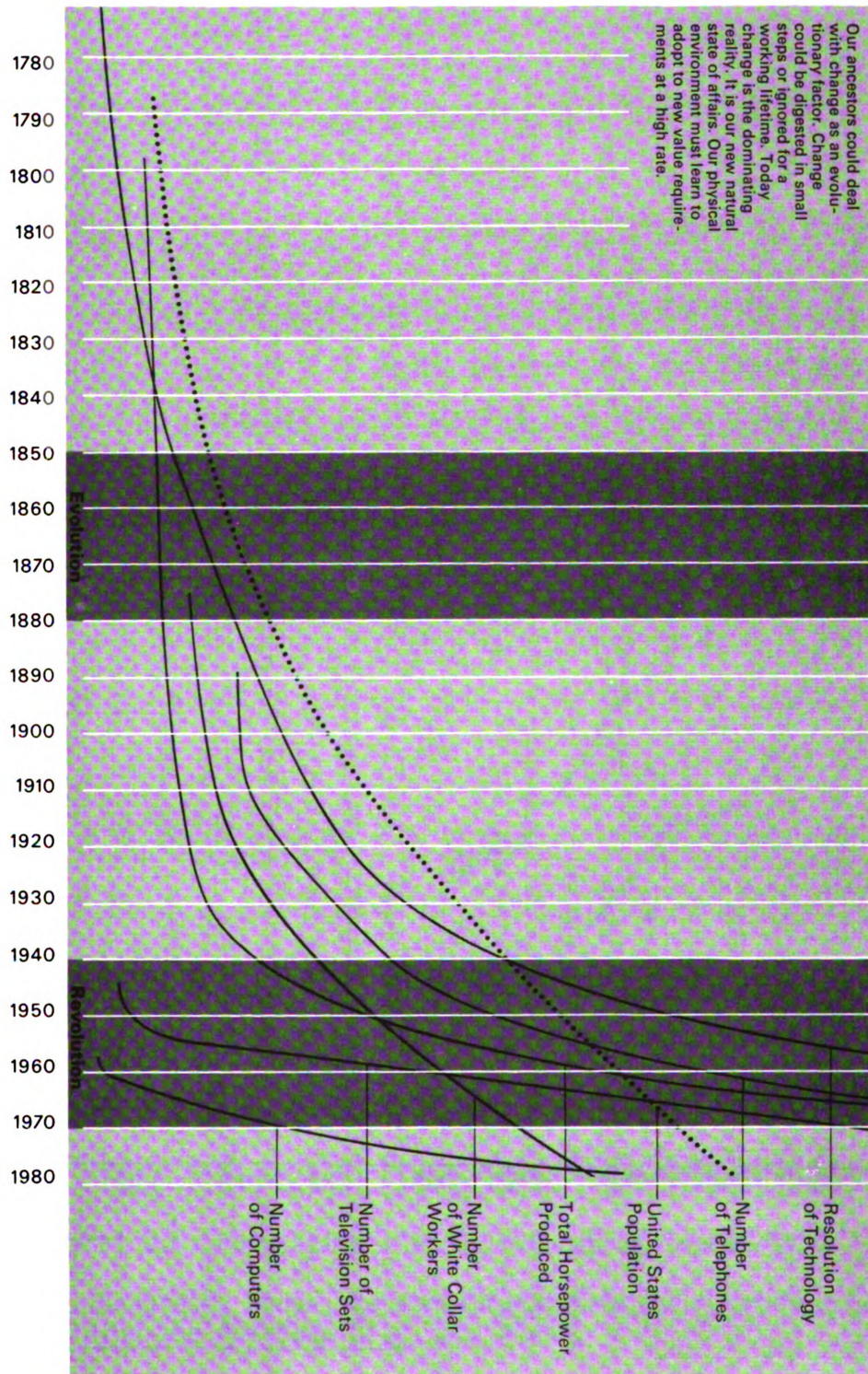
Our ancestors could deal with change as an evolutionary factor. Change could be digested in small steps or ignored for a working lifetime. Today change is the dominating reality. It is our new natural state of affairs. Our physical environment must learn to adopt to new value requirements at a high rate.¹

Figure 2 illustrates some of the key characteristics of this change. Among these important characteristics is the steady growth in U. S. population which, since 1790, has slowed notably only once-- during the depression of the late 1920's.² Figure 3 demonstrates this population growth as projected into the 1980's. An increasing rate of urbanization has accompanied this population growth. Since 1920 the

¹Propst, The Office - A Facility Based on Change, p. 12.

²U. S. Congress, House, National Commission on Urban Problems, Building the American City, pp. 40-41.

Figure 2. Characteristics of Change.



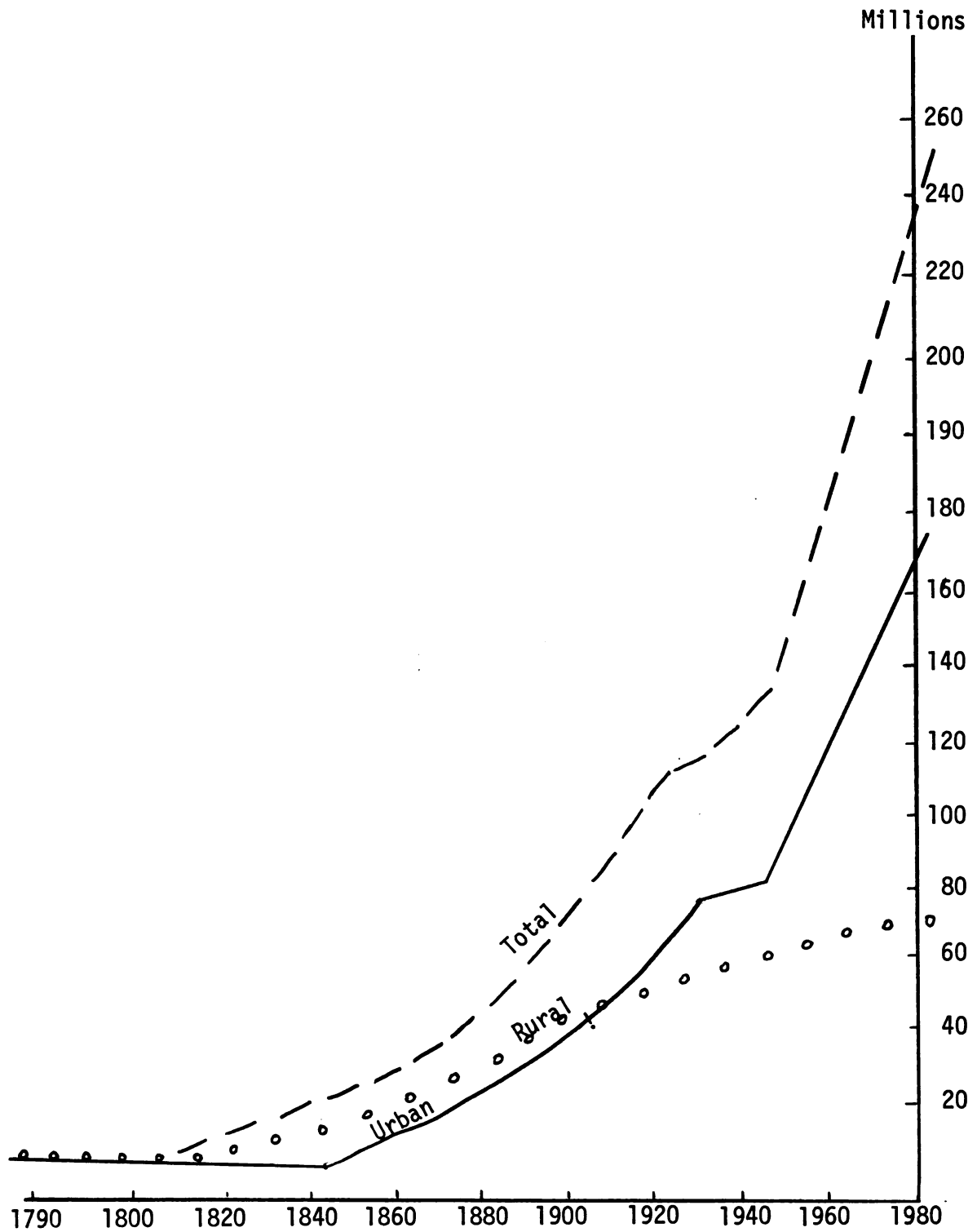


Figure 3. Total U.S. Population 1790 - 1960 and Estimated 1985.

Source: U.S. Congress, House, National Commission on Urban Problems, Building the American City, pp. 40-41.

United States has steadily become more and more an urban nation with seventy per cent of the population living in urban places by 1960.³

Society's influential characteristics include several additional but important factors which affect the contemporary American planning scene. These characteristics are all interrelated. They include: a high degree of complexity which often generates forces beyond direct control; an expanding degree of individual mobility; a span of scale that ranges from the smallness of the atom to the infinity of the universe; and a tendency toward violence and disorder, partially caused by an emerging "social change."⁴ While these factors directly or indirectly affect the ability to plan and the effectiveness of a planning program, there are additional characteristics of major importance that must be mentioned. The nature of city politics is one of these.

The nature of city politics and its corollary--the nature of decision-making in communities of the United States--can perhaps best be approached by accepting a model that arranges decision-making patterns along a continuum and structures them so as to vary in form from pyramids to pluralism.⁵ The activities and interactions that evolve from these decision-making processes can be considered as games, and

³U. S. Congress, House, National Commission on Urban Problems, Building the American City, p. 42.

⁴Matthew Holden, Jr., The Quality of Urban Order, The Quality of Urban Life, Urban Affairs Annual Reviews, Vol. 3 (Beverly Hills, Calif.: Sage Publications, 1967), pp. 437-440.

⁵Francine F. Rabinovitz, City Politics and Planning, Atherton Press (New York, New York, 1970), pp. 17-18.

the continuum can be considered operational in a local territorial system.⁶ If the planning function and its processes are to be effective, it appears that they must be structured and must operate in such a manner so as to influence the decision-making games that are operative within the planning function's territory. It follows that there will be less agreement concerning what planning goals are acceptable to be considered in the "public interest" when contrasted to the goals and interests of the individual levels of pyramids or of plural political groups.

The changes evolving in the game of city planning politics are stated by Adrian:

In typical American fashion, land-use decisions were, until recently, made by private businessmen; the realtors, land developers, and bankers in particular. Characteristically, nineteenth-century Americans did not believe that a greater community interest stood above that of the profit motives of these men. Planners were thus concerned with their profit-and-loss statements rather than with making Ackroyd City an attractive community with an imaginative physical design. It would be difficult to exaggerate the effect of their short-range concerns upon the face of urban America. Because bankers decide who gets loans and realtors decide, through their realty boards, who is to be allowed to buy where, their decisions determined, within the limits of cultural values, the face of American cities. They decided the areas in which negroes would live and the quality of housing they would have. They determined when deteriorating areas were to be permitted to switch from single-family dwellings to multi-family apartments and rooming houses. They selected sites for parks (if any), business areas, and factories and established a basic policy of urban growth through exodus and conversion, so that home construction took place for the higher-income persons only (except in tenements), others taking the vacated property according to their status positions. It was a game of providing according to ability to pay with little concern for the decaying ugliness at the center.

⁶Norton E. Long, *The Local Community as an Ecology of Games*, *American Journal of Sociology*, Vol. LXIV (November, 1958), pp. 251-261.

But as American cities began to mature, this pattern changed. Persons in the community began to become concerned with the growing blight around them. Property owners began to fear for the income value of the older sections. The retreating upper middle class began to run into rural and fringe-area slums. Attitudes toward the uninhibited activities of private business began to change.⁷

It is necessary to understand that the attitudes of the U.S. public toward the functions of city planning have generally been those of an indifferent spectator. The trends noted in the sixties, if continued in the seventies, indicate that broad changes in the public's attitudes are taking place. The concern for the social problems of racial conflict, poverty, and crime, and the physical problems of the environment are indicative of the nature of this change. Unfortunately, these changes are brought about by crises situations. In examining more fully the attitude of the U.S. public towards contemporary city planning, the Englishman Delafons⁸ has keenly observed the context in which land-use (planning) controls in the United States are applied. Delafons points out that despite rampant growth, it is rare to encounter any antipathy to new development. There exists a general unconcern for the rate of land consumption by new development, fostered by the confidence that land supply is unlimited. He further notes that a characteristic attitude in the U.S. is a distrust of politicians which exercise a fundamental influence on the methods and scope of land-use control. Delafons further attends to the existence of a basic assumption--that

⁷Charles R. Adrian, Governing Urban America, 2nd ed. (New York, New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1961), pp. 457-458.

⁸John Delafons, Land Use Controls in the United States, Second Ed. (Cambridge, Massachusetts: M.I.T. Press, 1969), pp. 1-15.

the American economic system is founded on adherence to the tenets of the free market and the private enterprise system. There exists a strong prejudice against control over any aspect of the economy by government. In a closely related way Altshuler⁹ argues that the most serious barrier to planning success has been this prejudice and/or fear of governmental power. These values certainly must be considered as processes for contemporary city planning are developed.

A yet broader understanding of the nature of city politics and its effect on city planning can be gained by viewing various responses to similar demands. Williams has stated that:

. . . different political regimes make different responses to widely experienced, but similar problems.¹⁰

He characterizes four different roles for local government:

1. promoting economic growth;
2. providing or securing life's amenities;
3. maintaining (only) traditional services;
4. arbitration among conflicting interests.¹¹

Reflecting on this typology, Adrian has written:

Rarely would a community larger than a small town demonstrate such total agreement that a single type would stand unrivaled control over the minds of policy makers. In most cases, a variety of images serve as frames of reference for office holders and for citizens as they vote on referendum matters. These ideas about the proper role of municipal government serve to channel

⁹Alan A. Altshuler, The City Planning Process (Ithaca, New York: Cornell University Press, 1967), p. 360.

¹⁰Olivert, Williams, A Typology for Comparative Local Government, Midwest Journal of Political Science, Vol. V, No. 2 (May, 1961), p. 150.

¹¹Ibid., p. 151.

the kinds of decisions that are made and the way in which they are made in the contemporary American city.¹²

The influence of the contemporary American scene, its nature and its politics, is thus found to contain a number of important factors which directly affects the creation of a better community through the process of city planning. When considering the required elements of a contemporary comprehensive city planning process, it seems obvious that we must incorporate an ability to adapt to change and to deal effectively, and democratically, with the complex nature of man's economic, physical, and social activity within the planning territory. We must be able to establish relationships between these activities in geographic, scale and time horizons, and be able to achieve a reasonable and non-violent response and results from the political process. In Michigan, and in much of the United States, it is apparent that the knowledge, capacities and resources of communities exceed the present character and function of the political process. In all attempt should be made to utilize the contemporary comprehensive planning process as a flexible non-inhibiting instrument serving to implement the choices of a democratic society. Here there is agreement with Dyckman that:

For planning to become an important societal tool, the society using it must be (a) technically competent, and (b) politically well organized and enthusiastic about applying planning. Ours is a technically advanced society that increasingly demands planning. The second condition has been more seriously in doubt, and a task of planning theory in America is to accommodate to

¹²Charles R. Adrian, Governing Urban America, p. 89.

this reality, rather than to warp reality to the conventional theory.¹³

Elements of the city planning process

In the United States the city planning process involves the continuing systematic and democratic selection of development and renewal priorities from the values of the community's citizens for the purpose of anticipating adjustments for an integrated design of man's physical environment.

In relating the types of planning appropriate to be considered as elements of the city planning process, the first need is to discuss the broad types of planning communities might choose. Gruen¹⁴ defines three main planning types:

1. laissez-faire-planning whose advocates believe that things should grow according to individual wishes, needs, and requirements, with only essential policing measures of control;
2. autocratic planning--by which large parts of cities or new towns can be rebuilt or built in short periods of time by strong-willed men or autocratic governments;
3. democratic planning--that requires the establishment of aims and goals, requires unified coordination, and a use of humanistic principles as well as philosophical thought.

Gruen concludes that the hardest, most difficult, and the most lengthy time-wise type, democratic planning is the only logical and successful way.

¹³John W. Dyckman, "The Practical Uses of Planning Theory," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Vol. XXXV, No. 5 (Baltimore, Maryland: Port City Press, Sept., 1969), p. 300.

¹⁴Victor Gruen, The Heart of our Cities (New York, New York: Simon and Schuster, 1964), pp. 35-40.

Agreeing with an observation is one step. Establishing in practice a contemporary process of city planning is a more difficult effort. A start can be made by profiting from a backward glance, for the past certainly has some foundations for the future. Hancock discusses this when reviewing the planning profession's development of basic premises and relationships up through the 1940's as part of our nation's democratic evolution:

1. In a massing democracy, communities built for social and personal well-being take precedence over mere economic-technological-physical growth.
2. The city's reorganization in these terms can be partially guided, unified, and enhanced by comprehensive planning which informs but does not inhibit the future.
3. Planning, the art and science of environmental development, is a process in which democratic choice can become meaningful and capability can approach desire by identifying needs, amenities, minimum standards and so on and by implementing them in numerous designs for new communities in town and countryside which preserve and extend the most desirable features of each as appropriate to time and place.
4. Such planning requires collaboration of trained talent, coordination of means, continuing reallocation of resources, full public empowerment and intelligent human subscription--a slow and gradual process whose success depends largely upon education to its human purposes--for layman and planner alike. The planner's role herein is analyst, creative designer, critic, and coordinator, at the very least.
5. Planning of the "natural region," not the urban one alone, seems the ideal democratic context for coordinating the flow of national and local priorities, resources, and initiative, because cities overlap in needs but are deficient in means as presently constituted.¹⁵

¹⁵John L. Hancock, "Planners in the Changing American City, 1900-1940," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Vol. XXXIII, No. 5 (Baltimore, Maryland: Port City Press, Sept., 1967), p. 301.

It is logical, then, that the elements of the contemporary comprehensive city planning process, described in the following pages, be consistent with these basic premises.

But these are not only the premises that the planning process must be founded upon. The term city planning implies that the planning function must be in the "public interest," or for public purposes. Chapin¹⁶ identifies: amenity, convenience, economy, health, and safety as the five principle land use planning purposes. Morals is identified as a less important purpose. In a contemporary comprehensive city planning process, the following purposes are considered to be legislatively important: amenity, convenience, efficiency, economy, general welfare, health, morals, and safety, order and prosperity.

The term "process" implies continuing procedures involving changes. Relating the definition of planning synonymous with the functions of coordination, adjustment, projection and designing for future objectives, it is possible to identify certain of the basic activities that must be among the elements of the city planning process. To understand a complete planning process, further review of the existing theory and practice concerning the project is in order.

The Interim Report of the Planning-Policy Committee on Planning Enabling Legislation of the American Institute of Planners stated:

The levels of government should instill a process suitable to each by which the planning agency suggests sets of alternative long-range goals. The role of the planning agency is to (1) provide broad and specific advice and (2) illustrate the implications of alternative courses of action, including public

¹⁶F. Stuart Chapin, Jr., Urban Land Use Planning, p. 41.

debate and review, so that a wise course of action may be recommended by the agency. The planning process should help to discover and to encourage the enactment of sound legislative policies with respect to both private and public development. . . .¹⁷

The design of a process which adequately accomplishes implementation must, of necessity, be carefully constructed. Branch identifies three normal phases of the planning process:

I. Current (Operational Plans):

1. Integrating current, continuing, and short-range action programs.
2. Incorporating the coordination and projection possible at the required time of decision and stabilization.
3. Derivative of intermediate plans and incremental in the realization of the long-range plan.
4. Answering immediate needs, current objectives, and desires; orientation toward obtaining longer range satisfactions.
5. Specifying quantities and schedules of materials, energy, skills, and cost; precise methods of effectuation.
6. More limited in the range of alternative possibilities.
7. Progressively inflexible after the necessary commitment to proceed.

II. Medium Range (Intermediate Plans):

8. Embodying projections of operation plans and retrojections of the long-range plan.
9. A conceptual, analytical, procedural, and action-program "bridge" between the concrete present and more distant future.
10. Intermediate in its specificity between operation and long-range plans.

¹⁷American Institute of Planners, Interim Report of the Planning Policy Committee on Planning Enabling Legislation (Washing, D.C., April, 1963), p. 7.

III. Long Range (Long-Range Plans):

11. A composite projection to that point in future time beyond which present efforts toward established objectives are not worthwhile.
12. An extension of existing realities, trends, and projectional judgements.
13. Representing the realization of feasible objectives which fulfill long-range needs and desires.
14. Appropriate to the available resources and environmental situation forecast for the time period of the long-range plan.
15. Periodically modified in the light of significant developments.
16. Incorporating a range of possible alternatives or otherwise maintaining greater flexibility of adjustment.¹⁸

One planning process in constant systematic adjustment is part of the essence. What Branch¹⁹ labels "circular" in a procedural way, is the nature of the interaction of the current, medium-range and long-range functions.

Although not clearly placed or defined in Branch's concept of the planning process, the notion of democratically defined, rationally determined societal goals and objectives is implied. In planning theory these goals and objectives are of fundamental importance. In practice they are extremely difficult to establish. Dyckman comments that planners:

. . . have qualified their interpretations of the public interest by pointing out that (1) they cannot conduct all the trials of

¹⁸Melville C. Branch, Planning Aspects and Applications (New York, New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966), p. 304.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 305.

alternative futures necessary for calculation of the optimum state, and (2) diversity of values in a large complex community makes determination of optimality prohibitively difficult.²⁰

Broad agreement for this point of view is found as suggested by Goodman and Freund,²¹ and by Altshuler.²² But this is not to say that there is general concurrence among professionals in the planning field. Gans²³ believes that a new approach as well as a new profession is evolving. He calls the new approach "policy planning"--which relates long-and-short-range systems of interrelated policies. Gans suggests that the new professionals will be concerned with the activities of goal formulation and the development and cataloguing of many effective policies and goals for all subjects of interests to cities. Fagin²⁴ agrees with "cataloguing" and suggests a loose-leaf compendium comprising many interrelated documents which describe policy for a changing community. He implies an end to the concept of "the Master Plan," and espouses the periodic involvement of many interests and skills in the policy formulation process. In a more sharply defined and operationally formulated

²⁰ John W. Dyckman, "The Practical Uses of Planning Theory," Journal of the American Institute of Architects, Vol. XXXV, Sept., 1969, p. 300.

²¹ International City Manager Association, Principles and Practice of Urban Planning, pp. 327-328.

²² Alan A. Altshuler, The City Planning Process, p. 311.

²³ Herbert J. Gans, "From Urbanism to Policy-Planning," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Vol. XXXVI, No. 4 (Baltimore, Maryland: Port City Press, July, 1970), pp. 223-225.

²⁴ Leo F. Schnore and Henry Fagin, Urban Research and Policy Planning, Vol. I (Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, Inc., 1967), pp. 310-328.

way, Rothblatt²⁵ suggests a multitier rationality decision model that may be a means to resolve differences. This model is structured to achieve articulation and operationalism of goals through agreed trade-offs between goals for different decision units through the use of a two-tiered decision model. In addition to both of these approaches, Friedman²⁶ suggests a total reorientation of planning process theory by replacing the rational decision model with an action-planning model. This approach involves the evaluation of society's performance and identifies the inadequacies and failures of its guidance system. Then the planners role is to try to mobilize resources for intervention at strategic points. The model places great importance upon the planners' skill in managing interpersonnel relations to bring about responsible change.

The action model theory and the difficulty in determining optimality are pointing out that the comprehensive planning process has not functioned as its participants indicate it should. Is it because of inadequate abilities of law, staffing, or administrative or policy organization? One suspects that, at the very least, all these factors are involved.

Regardless of the model or theory espoused, the comprehensive city planning process--and the legislation through which it operates--

²⁵Donald N. Rothblatt, "Rational Planning Reexamined," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Vol. XXXVII, No. 1 (Baltimore, Maryland: January, 1971), pp. 27-36.

²⁶John Friedman, "Notes on Societal Action," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Vol. XXXV, No. 5 (Baltimore, Maryland: Jan., 1969), pp. 311-317.

must permit reform, innovation and progress as society and the "real world" changes. One must agree with Marris and Rein²⁷ that three crucial tasks face reform in our American society. First, one must establish a coalition of power sufficient for the chosen purpose; second, one must respect the democratic tradition which requires every citizen to participate in the determination of his own affairs; and third, acceptable policies must be demonstrably rational. The operation of the contemporary planning process and its legislative base must provide freedom for the function of reform and adjustment.

The contemporary comprehensive city planning process is thus found, of necessity, to be based upon the theory of city planning and on the seven purposes: Amenity, convenience, economy, general welfare, health, morals, and safety. Further, that in the United States the process must be formulated from democratically derived goals and policies, conceived in the "public interest," the continual determination of which must be a deliberate part of the planning process. These goals, used to guide public and private development decisions, must be founded on rationality. The process also involves establishing alternatives for decisions--decisions which extend or span from a broad to a detailed level. It can be additionally concluded that the process must provide for constant systematic adjustment through interaction of the processes of the comprehensive planning activities.

²⁷ Peter Marris and Martin Rein, Dilemmas of Social Reform (New York, New York: Atherton Press, 1967), p. 7.

The City planning agency

The state, through enabling legislation, has a strong and direct influence upon the organization and function of comprehensive city planning at the metropolitan and local level. As previously pointed out,²⁸ the present nature of the planning commission and the local planning agency grew out of the governmental reform movement of the twenties (20's) and thirties (30's). The "Standard City Planning Enabling Act"²⁹ established a somewhat autonomous planning commission and permitted the retention of professional staff--responsible to the commission. In Michigan, and in a majority of the states with their planning enabling legislation based on the Standard City Planning Enabling Act, a history of performance and organization has existed for some time upon which planning has matured. This history and maturity, together with the understanding that planning is also a political process, is basic to the development of enabling legislation for local planning. But these are not the only basics that must be considered. The form of local government and its formal organizational charter,³⁰ as well as the scope, functions, relationships, and role assigned to the planning agency,³¹ are also important formal situational factors that enabling legislation must accommodate.

²⁸See Chapter I, pp. 6-22.

²⁹See Chapter I, p. 8.

³⁰Charles A. Joiner, Organizational Analysis - Political, Sociological, and Administrative Processes of Local Government, Institute for Community Development and Services, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan (1964).

³¹American Institute of Planners, Policy Committee on Planning Enabling Legislation, p. 7.

One of the first appraisals of the city planning commission as a political entity in local government was accomplished by Robert A. Walker³² in April of 1941. Walker maintained that the independent, unpaid, citizen planning commission was not functioning satisfactorily and that a staff agency--with a full time executive head and responsible to the city's chief executive--was the proper organizational approach. Walker's position was founded upon the belief the planning function must be closely linked with the decision-making political process. This concept was expanded and amplified during the fifty's.

Donald H. Webster³³ noted that the value of planning depended largely on the planning agencies' relationship to policy making, public involvement, and administrative function of local government. Webster identified the direct relationship of the form of local government to the function of a separate commission or responsible to the chief executive and emphasized the importance of carefully defining the role and administrative position of the planning agency. Robert Daland³⁴ discussed the incompatibility of staff and administrators, noted the need for public understanding and debate of alternatives, and restated the need to relate the planning agency to the form of the local government.

³²Robert A. Walker, The Planning Function in Urban Government (Chicago, Illinois: University of Chicago Press, 1941).

³³Donald H. Webster, Urban Planning and Municipal Public Policy (New York, New York: Harper Brothers, 1958), pp. 77-133.

³⁴Robert Daland, "Organization for Urban Planning Some Barriers to Integration," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Vol. XXIII, No. 4 (Baltimore, Maryland: Port City Press, 1957), pp. 200-206.

By the sixties (60's) planning had matured greatly. But the discussion concerning the organization for local planning continued. Rabinovitz and Pottinger³⁵ surveyed planning directors working within different governmental forms. Their findings revealed that the wholly technical definition by which the independent planning commission was originally conceived was obsolete. The suggestion that organization is often not pivotal in assuring planning agency effectiveness was noted and attributed to a basic principle concerning planning agency organization that requires that its structure has to allow planning to influence political actions.

The Planning Enabling Legislation Committee has noted that:³⁶

The planning agency's scope and role should be clear; and, relationships to other functions of the government prescribed so that (1) a planning process ensues, (2) a comprehensive plan has impact on development policy, and (3) the procedures, methods, authority and coordinative provisions are established to satisfy the functions assigned the agency.

It appears that the seventies (70's) will see continuing discussion and adjustment. The increasing trend toward combining departments that are broadly responsible for either/or social, economic, and physical development into what has been termed "the Community Development Department" will no doubt continue. This organization improves coordination and the other functions of planning, particularly in a

³⁵ Francine F. Rabinovitz and J. Stanley Pottinger, "Organization for Local Planning: The Attitudes of Directors," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Vol. XXIII, No. 1 (Baltimore, Maryland: Port City Press, January, 1967), pp. 27-31.

³⁶ American Institute of Planners, Policy Committee on Planning Enabling Legislation, p. 7.

weak administrative form of local government, such as the strong council-weak mayor form. The objective both on a national scale and on the state level in the seventies must be to strengthen the ability and capacity of local general government. Beckman has stated the need for this objective quite well:

A primary objective of federal and state governments must be to develop, support, or restore the managerial and fiscal vitality of urban government. Without such capability, local initiative, creativity, discretion, choice, and decision-making exist only in the older text books, and responsible elected officials have little or no discretion to alter things more than trivially.³⁷

How well can, and how well do, Michigan's municipal planning functions affect the actions of governmental and nongovernmental activities? Is the legal scope of the municipal planning function adequate to meet the planning needs of today's Michigan municipalities? These and other questions that arise are the subject of the next chapter of this research.

³⁷ Norman Beckman, "Legislative Review 1970," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Vol. XXXVII, No. 3 (Baltimore, Maryland: Port City Press, May, 1971), pp. 157-158.

CHAPTER IV

CONTEMPORARY COMPREHENSIVE CITY PLANNING IN A REPRESENTATIVE GROUP OF MICHIGAN CITIES

Thus far the research has reviewed the development of city planning in the United States, studied the history and nature of Michigan's city planning enabling legislation, and examined the general standards for contemporary comprehensive city planning. The purpose of this chapter is to look at the current practice of comprehensive city planning in a representative group of Michigan cities and relate the trends and future needs of these cities to the state's enabling legislation. The actual impact of municipal planning as it is practiced in Michigan must be examined and discussed in order to obtain an understanding of just how well the planning enabling legislation, and the theories it embodies, are applied. This examination is, therefore, intended to aid the basic purpose of this research--to determine the adequacy of the state's municipal planning enabling statutes.

The chapter has been divided into two basic parts. The first part is an overview of the trends and characteristics of the representative cities selected for this research. The other is an analysis of the organization and operation of the planning functions in the representative cities.

Selection of representative cities and methods of analysis

Understanding the nature and function of contemporary comprehensive city planning in Michigan cities and then to relate it to legislation required the selection of a representative group of cities and research into the state of their municipal planning functions.

A universe of eleven cities were selected--cities geographically located throughout the more heavily populated southern part of the lower peninsula. These cities and their 1950, 1960 and 1970 population are listed in Table 1. Geographical distribution is illustrated in Figure 4.

The eleven cities were selected because they are central cities of metropolitan areas containing approximately one-third (1/3)¹ of the state's urban population and all have relied upon the Municipal Planning Commission Act² for their basic planning legislation. In addition, they are representative of the history, the present, and of the trends of Michigan's urban conditions. These trends include growth and urban sprawl, decay and loss or change of population, overlapping governments and segregation of minorities and the poor.³ All of the selected cities were incorporated at the time of the legislative enactment of the Michigan Municipal Planning Commission Act.⁴

¹U. S. Bureau of the Census, op. cit., pp. 59-61.

²Municipal Planning Commission Act, op. cit.

³The reader should review pages 54-90 of this chapter and Chapter III for supportive background for these trends.

⁴Municipal Planning Commission Act, op. cit.

Table 1. Selected Michigan cities and their population changes.

City	1950 ^a	1960 ^b	1970 ^c	Percent ^d Change 1950-1960	1960-1970 ^e
Ann Arbor	48,251	67,340	99,797	39.6	48.2
Battle Creek	48,666	44,169	38,931	- 9.2	-11.9
Bay City	52,523	53,604	49,449	2.1	- 7.8
Flint	163,143	196,940	193,317	20.7	- 1.8
Grand Rapids	176,515	177,313	197,649	0.5	11.5
Jackson	51,088	50,720	45,484	- 0.7	-10.3
Kalamazoo	57,704	82,089	85,555	42.3	4.2
Lansing	92,129	107,807	131,546	17.0	22.0
Muskegon	48,429	46,485	44,631	- 4.0	- 4.0
Pontiac	73,681	82,233	85,279	11.6	3.7
Saginaw	92,918	98,265	91,849	5.8	- 6.5

Source:

^aU.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Census of Population: 1950 (Washington: U.S. Printing Office), P-A22, Vol., Chapter 22, Mich., pp. 11-12.

^bU.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Census of Population: 1960 (Washington: U.S. Printing Office), PC(1)-24C, Michigan, pp. 179-180.

^cU.S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Census of Population: 1970 (Washington: U.S. Printing Office), AC(1)-B24, Michigan, pp. 59-61.

^dU.S. Department of Commerce, County and City Data Book 1967, Bureau of the Census, U.S. Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1967, pp. 504 and 514.

^eOp. cit., U.S. Census of Population, pp. 59-61.

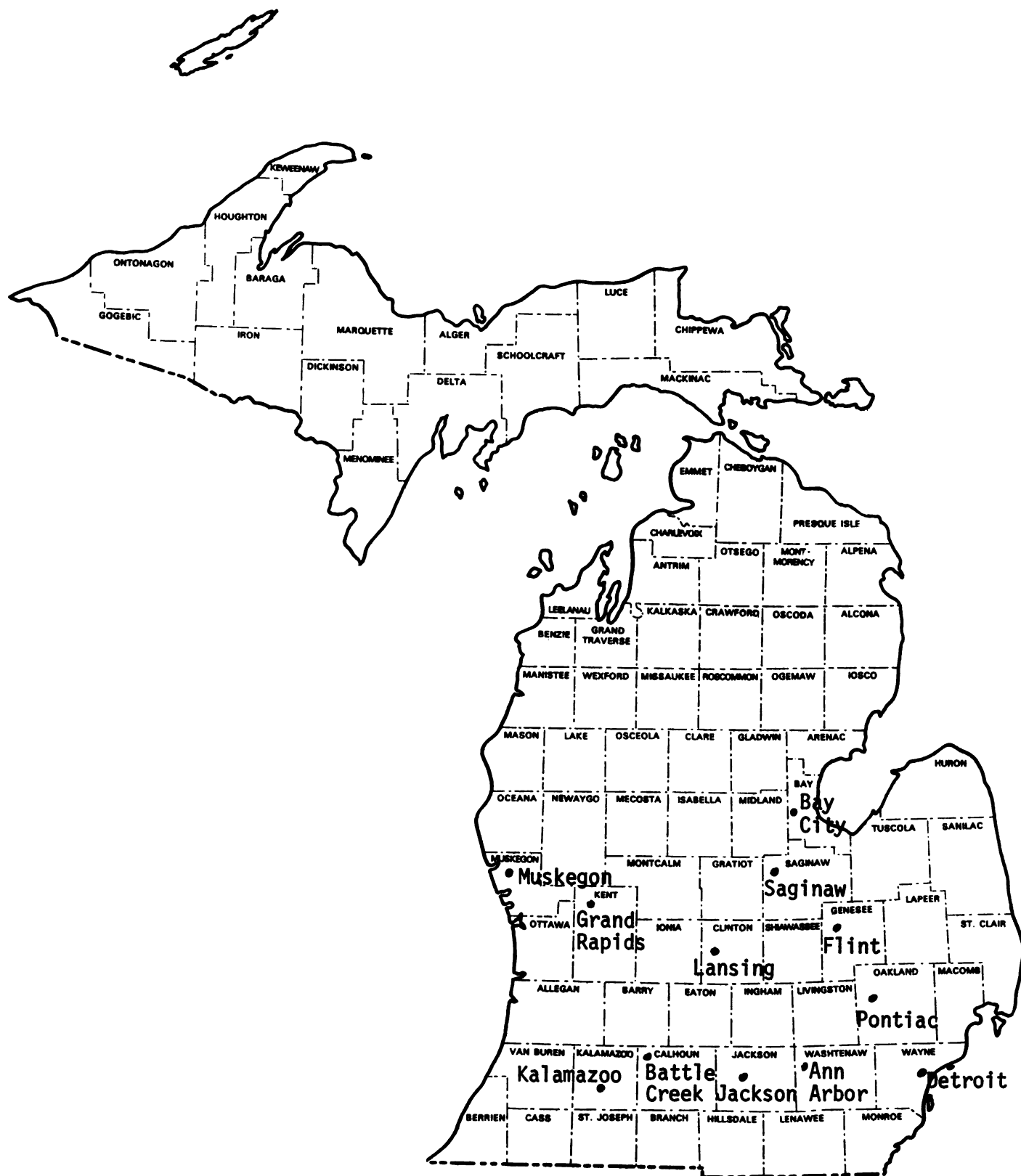


Figure 4. Geographical location of selected cities.

The City of Detroit, the urban area which is the domicile of approximately sixty (60) per cent of the state's urban population,⁵ is not included because of Detroit's reliance upon a legislative basis other than the Municipal Planning Commission Act,⁶ as well as other considerations of size, organization, and governmental functions.

An overview of the eleven cities is developed through a review of certain characteristics which provide a framework for understanding their distinctive qualities and status. The characteristics examined are concerned with economics; physical state; social and historical concerns.

Research Methodology

The survey research reported here was conducted in the eleven selected Michigan cities during the summer of 1972. The research methodology included personal interviews with the planning or planning-related staffs in each municipality. In order to preserve the anonymity of the respondents they shall not be identified. The survey was pretested in the spring of 1972, utilizing the planning staff of a city whose population ranked with the smaller cities of those surveyed. Modifications were made based upon pretest experience and suggestions of the respondents. The interview survey was then utilized to obtain a substantial part of this research. A copy of the interview survey is contained in Appendix A. Other data concerning the selected cities was

⁵U.S. Bureau of the Census, op. cit., p. 59.

⁶Michigan, Municipal Planning Commission Act, op. cit.

obtained from a variety of sources, sources which are credited in the text as the particular data are introduced.

In addition to the survey research, a benefit to this work is derived from the author's work experience of more than fourteen years as a professional community planner. This experience, including staff as well as city planning director responsibilities, was for the most part spent in Michigan.

Part I. Overview of Representative Cities

The character of the eleven (11) representative cities and the constant changes through which they are evolving will have a profound effect on the quality of life of Michigan's urban population in future years. The following analysis examines certain economic, physical and social characteristics of these cities, identifies the nature of these changes, and thus places in context the city planning needs of Michigan cities. Hopefully, this kind of knowledge should also help in planning and guiding the urbanization of the state toward improving the quality of life of these cities' inhabitants.

The selected cities are generally within a population group ranging from forty thousand to two hundred thousand persons. They can, therefore, be classed as middle-sized cities. Six of these cities have experienced a decline in population in the last ten years, as shown in Table 1. Only Ann Arbor, Grand Rapids and Lansing have demonstrated a population increase of more than ten per cent in the last ten years.⁷

⁷Computed from Table 3.

In contrast the population of the metropolitan areas within which these cities are located have all increased, as indicated in Table 2. In the two decades from 1940 to 1960 the population of the metropolitan areas of the eleven cities increased an average of twenty nine (29) per cent each decade.⁸ This increase slowed in the 1960 to 1970 decade, averaging approximately seventeen (17) per cent,⁹ as shown in Table 2. Only four metropolitan areas--Battle Creek, Bay City, Jackson and Muskegon--grew less than ten per cent in the 1960 to 1970 decade. The original municipal planning legislation was aimed mostly at growing communities. In the face of decline, legislation of differing concerns is necessary.

Physical characteristics

Land Area

In the face of the steady population change and growth, what has happened to the land area of these established cities? In Table 3 the land area in square miles for the eleven cities, over the last two decades, is presented. Of these cities, only three--Ann Arbor, Grand Rapids and Lansing--have demonstrated an increase in land area of more than ten per cent in the last ten years. Correlations between the changes in land area and population increase and changing domiciles indicate that only the cities that have annexed additional territory have continued to increase in population significantly.

⁸Computed from Table 3.

⁹Computed from Table 3.

Table 2. Population change - county or S.M.S.A.^a

	1950 ^b		1960 ^c		1970 ^d	
	Per cent change		Per cent change		Per cent change	
	1940-1950	SMSA	1950-1960	SMSA	1960-1970	SMSA
Ann Arbor	66.6	134,606	28.1	172,440	35.8	234,103
Battle Creek	*28.2	120,813*	14.9	138,858*	2.2	141,963*
Bay City	18.0	88,461	21.0	107,042	9.6	117,339
Flint	18.9	270,963	35.7	416,239	19.3	496,658
Grand Rapids	17.0	288,292	27.6	461,906	16.7	539,225
Jackson	15.9	107,925	22.3	131,994	8.5	143,274
Kalamazoo	26.6	126,707	33.9	169,712	18.8	201,550
Lansing	32.4	172,941	22.4	298,949	26.6	378,423
Muskegon	28.6	121,545	23.4	149,943	5.0	157,426
Pontiac	*55.9	396,001*	74.3	690,259*	31.5	907,871*
Saginaw	17.7	153,515	24.3	190,752	15.2	219,743

* County - not an S.M.S.A.

Source:

^aSMSA is the U. S. Census Bureau's abbreviation for Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area.

^bU. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, County and City Data Book 1956 (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office), 1957, pp. 138, 146, 346, 352.

^cU. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, County and City Data Book 1967 (Washington: U. S. Government Printing Office), 1967, pp. 432, 440, 448.

^dU. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, General Population Characteristics - 1970, PC (1)-B24 Mich., Wash: U. S. Government Printing Office), 1970, pp. 59-62.

Table 3. City land area in square miles.

	1950 ^a	1960 ^b	1970 ^{c,d}
Ann Arbor	6.6	13.6	21.8
Battle Creek	10.5	11.8	11.8
Bay City	9.6	10.0	10.0
Flint	29.3	30.3	32.8
Grand Rapids	23.4	27.0	44.9
Jackson	10.2	10.8	11.0
Kalamazoo	8.8	23.5	24.5
Lansing	14.1	21.2	33.4
Muskegon	8.9	10.9	16.3
Pontiac	19.8	19.5	19.7
Saginaw	16.6	16.3	17.3

Source:

^aU. S. Department of Commerce, County and City Data Book 1956, Bureau of the Census, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1957, p. 388.

^bU. S. Department of Commerce, County and City Data Book 1967, Bureau of the Census, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1967, p. 591.

^cU. S. Department of Commerce, Population and Land Areas: 1970 and 1960, Bureau of the Census, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., PC (SI)-6, 1972, pp. 76-84.

^dU. S. Department of Commerce, County and City Data Book 1972, Bureau of the Census, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1972, p. 702.

Housing

A quick look at housing unit additions by comparing the changes in the total number of dwelling units is shown in Table 4.

Findings indicate that four cities have actually lost dwelling units in the last ten years. Five of these cities have experienced an increase in the number of dwelling units by approximately twenty thousand or more. One of the remaining two cities increased by approximately ten thousand dwelling units and the other by a little more than two thousand units.

In summary, the population, land area, and housing changes that are now in progress show: (1) a migration of the population away from the older core of the state's central cities; (2) a status quo of no or little change in the land area of a majority of the cities; (3) a continuing expansion in the urbanization around the state's central cities; and (4) a loss of dwelling units, or a filling up of open-developed land, outside the city core through dwelling unit construction. Michigan's basic municipal planning enabling legislation must address squarely these changing conditions.

Climate

Michigan is located in the humid continental climate characterized by hot summers and cold winters. There are certain micro-climate factors which have a moderately differing effect on the environment and on growth, change, and the quality of life in most of the Michigan cities studied. The state's climate is, of course, broadly affected by: its latitude; the large fresh water lakes surrounding it; and variations in land elevation.

Table 4. Changes in total number of dwelling units.

	1940 ^a	1950 ^b	1960 ^c	1970 ^d
Ann Arbor	9,634	11,723	20,752	32,541
Battle Creek	13,415	15,609	15,762	14,604
Bay City	13,120	15,826	16,692	16,622
Flint	41,728	49,258	62,275	64,245
Grand Rapids	49,154	44,362	59,030	68,206
Jackson	15,183	16,451	16,843	15,746
Kalamazoo	15,423	17,514	25,499	27,160
Lansing	23,269	28,887	35,468	45,300
Muskegon	13,787	15,626	15,598	15,925
Pontiac	17,618	20,519	24,754	26,810
Saginaw	23,100	27,321	29,918	29,787

Source:

^aU. S. Department of Commerce, Housing-General Characteristics 1940, Bureau of the Census, Vol. II, Part 3, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., pp. 577-578, 602, 604, 610, 616, 622.

^bU. S. Department of Commerce, U. S. Census of Housing: 1950, Vol. I. General Characteristics, Chapter 22, Michigan, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1952, p. 3.

^cU. S. Department of Commerce, City and County Data Book, 1967 (A Statistical Abstracts Supplement), U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1967, pp. 506, 516.

^dU. S. Department of Commerce, U. S. Census of Housing: 1970, H C (1)-A24, Michigan, General Housing Characteristics, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 1971, pp. 7-8.

In the southern part of the lower peninsula, where the cities selected for this research are located, the land form is comparatively flat. The average elevation of this same area is about 800 feet above sea level, and the prevailing wind which blows across it is from the southwest.¹⁰

The prevailing wind, blowing across Lake Michigan, cooled by winter, tends to hold back the growth of vegetation in the spring deterring the effect of damaging frosts. These winds in the fall, warmed by lake water which has been heated throughout the summer, tend to extend the growing season. The result of this phenomena has created conditions which have produced the fruit belt of Michigan, located along the southwestern and western border areas of the lower peninsula on Lake Michigan's shore. Muskegon is located in this belt and is surrounded by blueberry, peach and other fruit crop lands. The effects of this phenomena extend eastward, almost to Kalamazoo. Lakes Huron, St. Clair, and Erie have a similar effect, but limited to the land areas immediately adjacent to the eastern boundaries of the state.

The same conditions produce a reduction in the per cent of sunshine, particularly in the winter months. In the lower part of Michigan's lower peninsula, the annual average temperature in January and July, and the annual growing season--from which the influence of the surrounding lakes can be discerned--are shown in Figures 5 through 7. These factors can be related to precipitation amounts, topographic

¹⁰Charles M. Davis, Readings in the Geography of Michigan, Ann Arbor Publishers, Ann Arbor, Michigan, September, 1965, pp. 41-42.

Figure 5. Mean Minimum Temperature - January.



Figure 6. Mean Maximum Temperature - July.

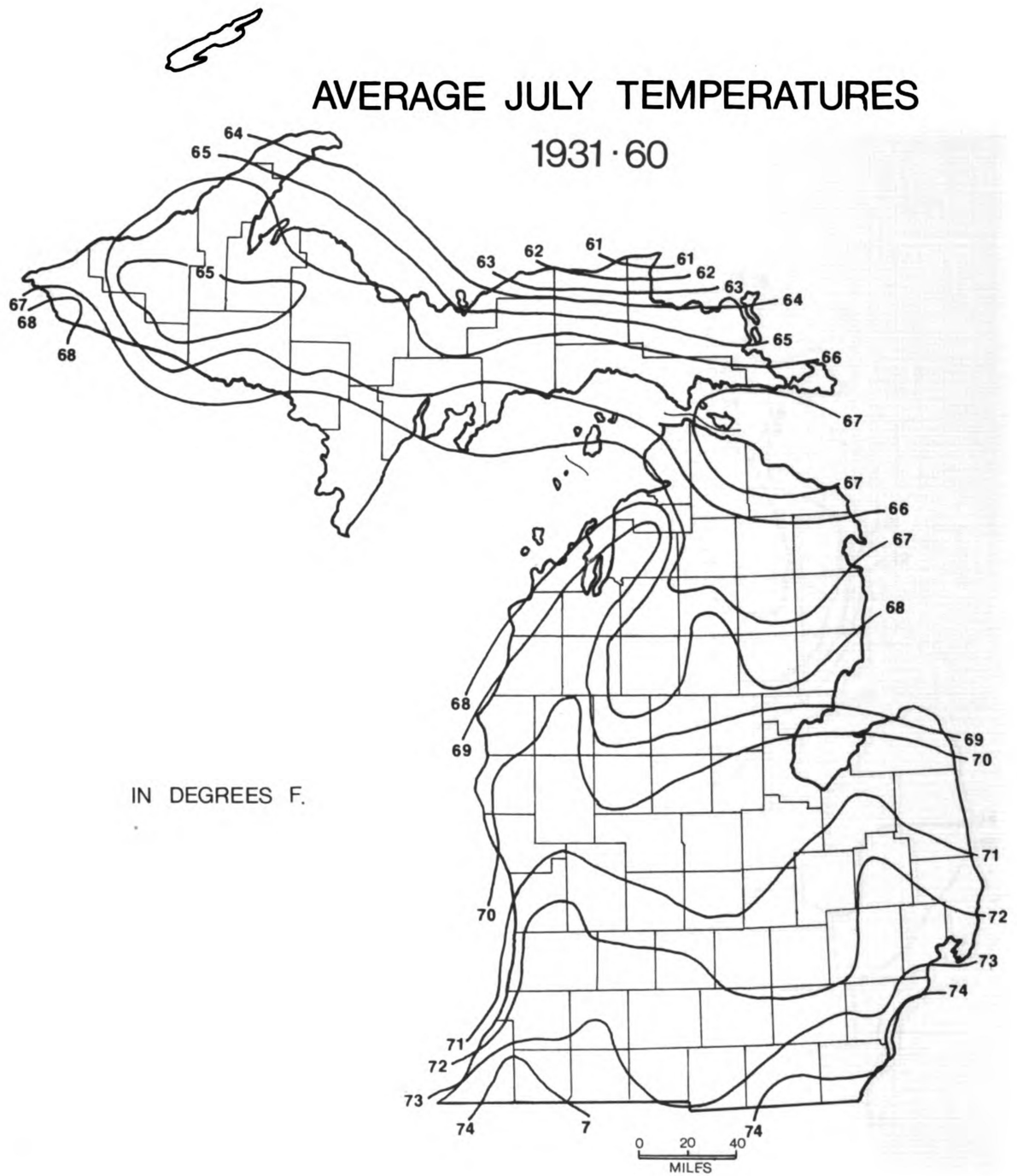
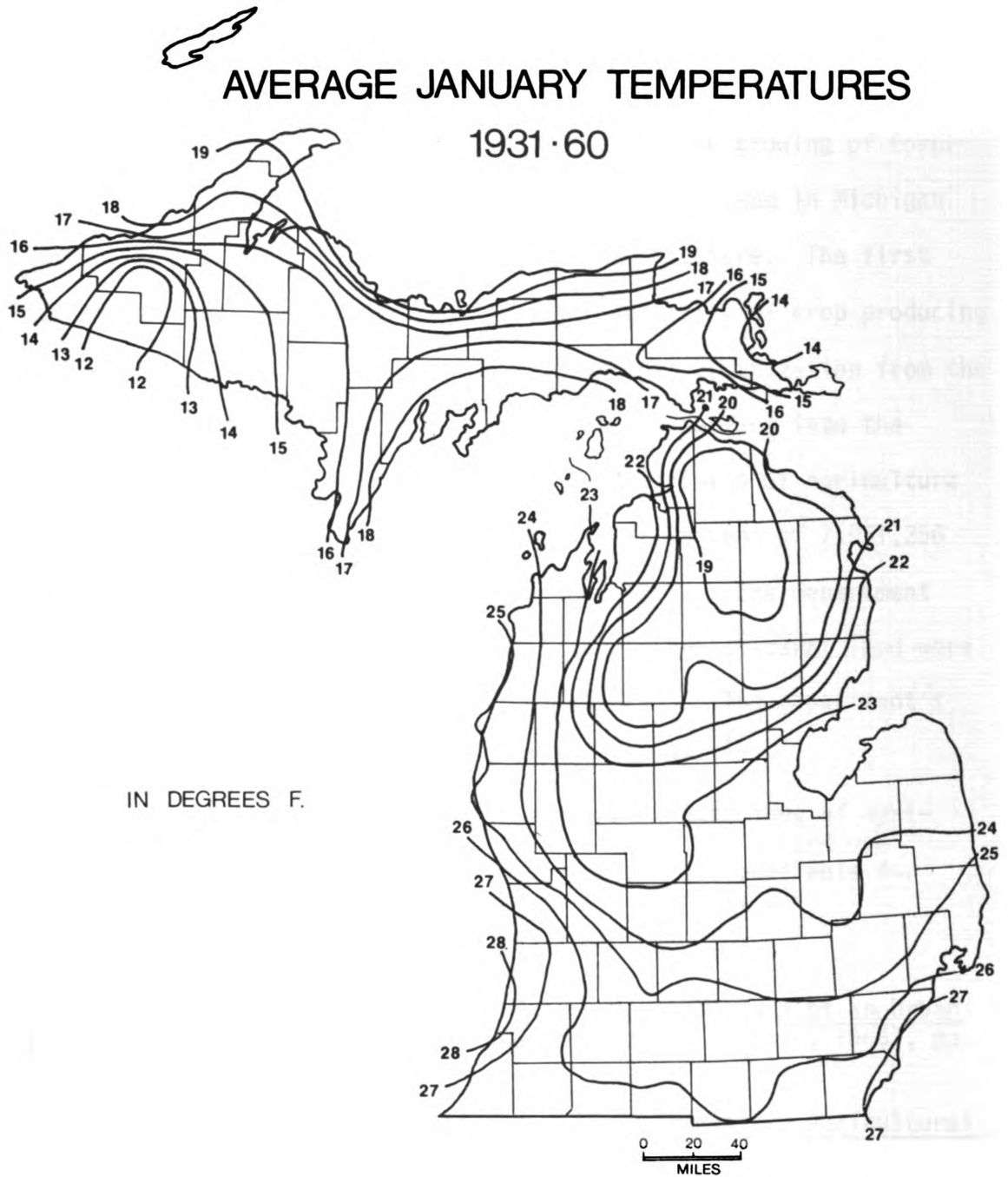


Figure 7. Annual Growing Season.



states and soil conditions, and similar factors to identify the agriculturally important areas of the state.

Agriculture

The southern one-half of the lower peninsula, the territory in which the cities examined in this research are located, is the area containing Michigan's best agricultural land for the growing of food-stuffs. Figure 8 illustrates the classification of land in Michigan as determined by the Michigan Department of Agriculture. The first class and second class lands are the better agricultural crop producing lands. This same territory is subject to intense urbanization from the urban Detroit area to the urban Chicago area.¹¹ Looking into the future--to the year 2000 A.D.--the Michigan Department of Agriculture in a February, 1973 report projects a conservative need of 7,951,256 acres of harvested, pastured and grazed crop lands. The department indicates that only 6,592,620 acres of suitable agricultural land were available in 1969 for the growing of foodstuffs.¹² The department's report, in its concluding paragraph, states in part:¹³

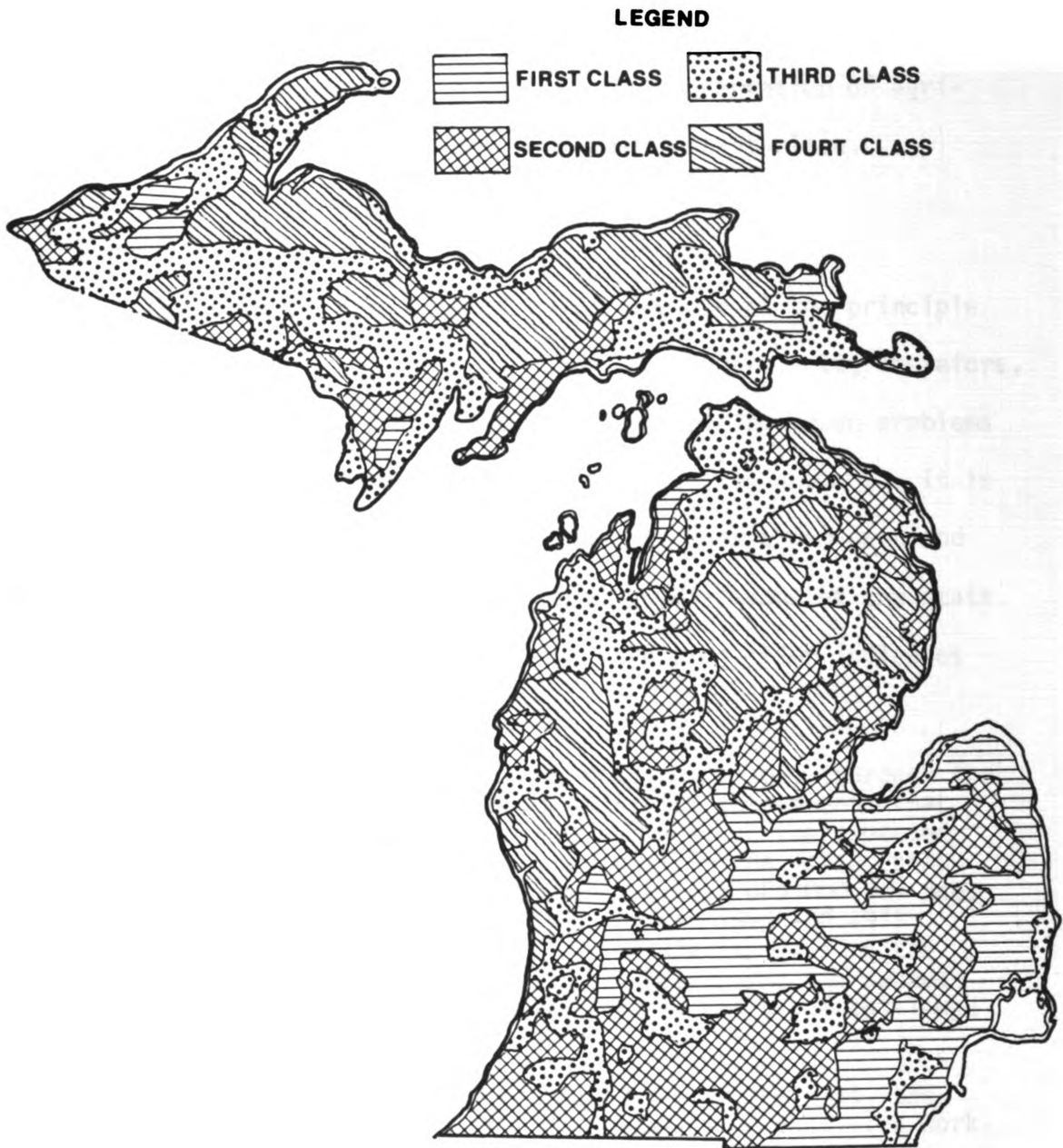
It is of absolutely critical concern that conversions of agricultural crop lands stop immediately. . . , ' . . . land use plans for Michigan must not further reduce land available for intensive agricultural production in the state. . . '

¹¹Doxiadis and Associates, Emergence and Growth of an Urban Region (Vol. I, Detroit, Michigan: Detroit Edison Company, 1966), pp. 310-311.

¹²Michigan Department of Agriculture, Michigan, Agricultural Land Requirements, A Projection to 2000 A.D., February, 1973 (Lansing, Michigan), pp. 8-9.

¹³Ibid., pp. 10-11.

Figure 8. Classification of Land in Michigan



. . . a state-wide land use plan must be adopted which will ensure the continued availability of these lands for agricultural production.

The present state of city planning--its laws, functions, and duties--were found, in this research, to have no consideration for important state or regional interests in the conservation of agriculturally important land as urban development takes place.

Economic characteristics

The economic functions of a city are one of the principle reasons people come to live together in urban centers. It, therefore, stands to reason that guiding urban growth or solving urban problems must take a city's economic health and capacity into account. It is further recognized that the economy of Michigan has a dominant and determining impact on all of the political subdivisions of the state.

Looking at the state's economy, one projection indicates that:¹⁴

. . . The economy of Michigan will continue to grow through the 1970's. But the immediate future calls for adjustments that will not be easy or automatic. For example, if the expected population increase is to be accommodated in the labor force without increased unemployment, approximately 860,000 new jobs will have to be created in Michigan between 1960 and 1975. And the automobile industry will contribute far less to the adjustment than is commonly supposed. To provide the needed jobs and fill them with capable workers is the great challenge facing Michigan in the 1970's.

If the demands of employment and education are not met, the burden of the failure will fall most heavily on unskilled workers, most of whom are negroes; this group is destined to become unemployed or unemployable in increasing numbers unless corrective action is taken.

¹⁴William Haber, W. Allen Spivey, and Martin R. Warshaw, Michigan in the 1970's, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan, 1965, introduction.

The state's population statistics are currently showing a slower rate of increase than previously projected. But clearly the number of jobs needed because of the births during the postwar era of 1946 to beyond 1953 are now having a major impact. When this is considered against the needs for adopting to change and other influential characteristics, discussed in Chapter III of this research, the importance of education and training which will permit the guiding and molding of a labor force which can respond to new jobs is readily apparent.

Michigan's labor force reflects the trends and changes that are taking place in the state's economy. In the years 1958 to 1968, Michigan's total labor force increased from 3,074,000 to 3,525,000 employees.¹⁵ During this same time, as well as today, shifts are taking place which provide us further knowledge of Michigan's economy. Louis A. Ferman has commented that:¹⁶

The labor market patterns of Michigan reflect an economy that is shifting from commodity production to non-commodity production, with relative declines in blue-collar employment and increases in opportunities for white-collar workers. The percentages of employment by industry are going to show relative declines in the commodity-producing industries--such as agriculture, mining, and manufacturing--and large increases in trade, services, and to a lesser extent construction and government employment.

These shifts will certainly have an effect on Michigan's cities.

In regard to the labor participating patterns for the 1970 decade, Ferman points out that:¹⁷

¹⁵Michigan Department of Commerce, Handbook of Economic Population Statistics, 1970, Lansing, Michigan, p. 76.

¹⁶William Haber, W. Allen Spivey, and Martin R. Warshaw, Michigan in the 1970's, p. 242.

¹⁷Ibid., pp. 256-258.

The competition from younger workers will reduce the participation rates for all male groups over 50 years of age, but non-white males at these ages will be particularly affected. . . .

Current patterns of more participation by women in all age groups should continue. . . .

There is a strong possibility that the trend toward decreased participation by non-white males in all age groups will continue. . . .

The participation rates for young people should continue to decline, since this group will increasingly seek post-secondary education and training. . . .

Relating these patterns to the economy of each city, the beginning of a better understanding of what the future has in store for Michigan's cities becomes more identifiable.

History, transportation, available skilled labor force, and other factors all have a differing impact upon each of the state's individual cities that cause them to vary from the economic norm of the state. The exports of the cities examined in this research are a good indicator of significant economic growth and vitality characteristics. These exports, when examined, are found to primarily result from the labor services of the city's inhabitants. Table 5 indicates the major export industries of the eleven cities researched for the year 1950.¹⁸

Specialization to the extent that one-fifth or more of their workers produced for export in a single industry existed in the cities of Flint, Lansing, and Pontiac.¹⁹ A similar relationship existed in Ann Arbor with education, and in Muskegon with machinery.

¹⁸W. Paul Strassmann, The Urban Economics of Southern Michigan, The Institute for Community Development and Services, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, 1958, pp. 9-10.

¹⁹Ibid., p. 9.

Table 5. Major export industries - 1950.

City	Population 1950	Industries employing various fractions of the Gain- fully employed population in production for export.		
		20.0% or more	10.0-19.9%	5.0-9.9%
Ann Arbor	48,251	education		medical services, motor vehicles
Battle Creek	48,666		food products	machinery
Bay City	52,523		motor vehicles	primary metal products
Flint	163,143	motor vehicles		
Grand Rapids	176,515			furniture, machinery, motor vehicles, fabri- cated metal products
Jackson	51,088		motor vehicles	
Kalamazoo	57,704		paper	chemicals
Lansing	92,129	motor vehicles		education, government
Muskegon	48,429	machinery		primary metal pro- ducts, motor vehicles
Pontiac	73,681	motor vehicles		
Saginaw	92,918		motor vehi- cles, primary metal products	

The production of motor vehicles and parts for export employed five per cent or more workers in: Ann Arbor, Bay City, Grand Rapids, Jackson, Muskegon and Saginaw. Only Grand Rapids was so diversified that export industries did not employ up to one-tenth of the labor force.²⁰

The important forms of imbalance are found, in most of the cities researched, to be a lack of diversification, an over dependence upon motor vehicle and related manufacturing, and the dependence of many of the cities upon one principle industry.

A look at the number of manufacturing establishments with twenty (20) or more employees indicates, in Table 6, that some cities have had a reduction in the number of establishments. A few have gained from one (1) to four (4) establishments. All of the cities face the problem of aging establishments that have a tendency to move to open land outside the city when they modernize--if they stay in Michigan.

The export industries economic functions help a community through a demand for locally produced goods and services. These goods and services are indicated by the retail trade establishments and assessed valuations. Table 7 presents the retail trade establishments in 1958, 1963, and 1967 for each of the cities. The Flint, Grand Rapids, Lansing and Pontiac central business district (CBD) figures are an accurate example of the decline in the number of retail establishments in the CBD's of all the eleven (11) cities. Only Ann Arbor and Lansing, two cities that have annexed additional land, show an increase

²⁰Ibid., p. 9.

Table 6. Manufacturing establishments (twenty or more employees).

City	1958 ^a	1963 ^a	1967 ^b
Ann Arbor	21	25	37
Battle Creek	40	34	37
Bay City	35	36	40
Flint	47	50	56
Grand Rapids	223	209	233
Jackson	64	57	59
Kalamazoo	88	90	90
Lansing	59	61	56
Muskegon	45	47	53
Pontiac	25	19	23
Saginaw	55	59	63

Source:

^aU. S. Department of Commerce, City and County Data Book, 1967, pp. 507-517.

^bU. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of Census, 1967 Census of Manufacturers-Michigan, MC 67(3)-23, pp. 23: 5-6-7.

in retail establishments for the entire city in the last ten (10) years. The overall statistics indicate that the small retail businesses in Michigan have been steadily diminishing in numbers.

Relating these same economic factors to the taxable assessed valuation of the eleven cities, a clearer picture of the differences in certain cities emerges. Table 8 provides the amount of assessed valuation for the last thirteen (13) years. Six cities--Ann Arbor, Flint, Grand Rapids, Lansing, Pontiac and Saginaw--show an increase in valuation since 1960 of fifty (50) per cent or more, a city-wide increase that indicates economic growth. Four of the cities--Battle Creek, Bay City, Jackson, and Muskegon--show only very modest increases, increases

Table 8. County equalized assessed valuation.*

City	1960 ^a	1965 ^b	1970 ^c	1973 ^d
Ann Arbor	215,946,877	457,483,254	457,483,500	565,625,600
Battle Creek	181,685,341	172,813,414	187,194,228	196,519,295
Bay City	152,229,187	137,709,927	170,399,244	192,836,607
Flint	744,556,136	906,742,846	1,072,052,450	1,184,279,110
Grand Rapids	570,513,129	647,417,522	783,681,600	844,369,500
Jackson	192,401,016	178,698,180	196,496,308	211,527,894
Kalamazoo	281,289,497	210,562,456	355,004,025	392,211,527
Lansing	451,204,508	448,050,556	687,200,435	705,040,600
Muskegon	200,716,476	206,490,086	214,503,380	219,187,135
Pontiac	352,582,552	386,315,648	512,884,184	562,349,600
Saginaw	342,790,636	363,246,949	430,081,448	506,060,094

* Source:

^aState of Michigan, Report of the State Board of Equalization
(1960).

^bState of Michigan, Report of the State Board of Equalization
(1965).

^cState of Michigan, Report of the State Board of Equalization
(1970).

^dState of Michigan, Report of the State Board of Equalization
(1973).

that are actually bordering on losses if inflation is considered. These four cities appear to be having economic difficulties.

The economic characteristics and the physical characteristics that have been analyzed are part of the review that must be made if there is to be an understanding of the trends and changes taking place in Michigan's municipalities. Meeting the challenge of these changes is the object of rational municipal planning. This overview, therefore, concludes with an examination of the social characteristics which are a part of, and which confront, the cities.

Social characteristics

Our society is changing. Political views, racial attitudes, as well as religious activity, social behavior, and such, are different today than in the fifties or in the thirties. It is this change, together with the physical and economic changes previously noted, which appear to challenge Michigan's cities materially.

An overview of the social characteristics of the eleven (11) cities researched begins with a review of their demographic characteristics and then touches on the trends in health, education, public safety and other social factors which impact society.

The population of Michigan, by age, from 1960 projected to 1990 is the subject of Table 9.²¹ Overall Michigan ranks seventh in the United States in population according to the 1970 census.²² This census also found that there were ninety-six point one (96.1) males for every one hundred females and that there were more single men than single women, but more women widowed or divorced than men. The future population characteristics, as projected, indicate an increase in the young and elderly as per cents of total population. Overall Michigan's population is younger than the rest of the United States as a whole.

The composition of population of the cities is changing with a longitudinal trend toward a higher percentage of non-white. Table 10

²¹Michigan Department of Commerce, Handbook of Economic Population Statistics, p. 105.

²²U. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, 1970 Census of Population, General Population Characteristics-Michigan, pp. 24:57-61.

Table 9. Michigan population by age: 1960 - 1990 (April 1 of each year).

Age/Year	1960	1965	1970	1975	1980	1985	1990
0 - 4	969,147	884,374	873,186	1,027,334	1,184,207	1,252,445	1,261,654
5 - 9	879,099	955,341	891,279	870,979	1,024,310	1,180,313	1,248,069
10 - 14	743,550	870,963	962,552	891,434	870,771	1,023,740	1,179,148
15 - 19	564,128	731,552	880,344	958,265	887,553	867,210	1,019,580
20 - 24	447,133	540,080	744,113	872,166	949,710	879,567	860,522
25 - 29	473,788	438,966	544,017	741,436	869,125	946,051	875,210
30 - 34	538,862	465,077	442,093	541,985	738,204	864,985	941,640
35 - 39	555,598	529,607	467,611	439,515	537,961	732,506	858,163
40 - 44	508,775	541,614	527,869	461,316	433,539	530,660	722,194
45 - 49	461,197	493,056	532,922	515,414	450,583	423,560	518,262
50 - 54	398,299	440,330	477,488	512,229	495,519	433,226	407,397
55 - 59	352,587	373,114	418,697	450,673	483,498	467,753	408,947
60 - 64	292,847	320,620	344,147	383,328	412,540	442,753	428,297
65 - 69	250,916	255,099	282,787	301,654	336,068	361,727	388,172
70 - 74	184,085	204,273	210,521	231,674	247,162	275,422	296,366
75 - 79	113,279	134,950	152,209	155,307	171,028	182,563	203,490
80 - 84	57,065	70,200	85,001	94,946	96,850	106,734	113,908
85 and over	32,839	35,764	43,709	52,440	59,494	62,327	67,820
Total	7,823,194	8,284,980	8,880,545	9,502,095	10,248,122	11,033,542	11,798,839

Source: Office of Planning Coordination, Bureau of Planning and Program Development and Budget Division, Bureau of the Budget, Executive Office of the Governor.

Table 10. Per cent of total population non-white.

City	1950 ^a	1960 ^a	1970 ^b
Ann Arbor	5.8	6.5	9.0
Battle Creek	8.1	15.2	20.6
Bay City	0.7	1.1	1.8
Flint	8.6	17.7	28.6
Grand Rapids	3.9	8.3	12.0
Jackson	5.4	9.3	13.9
Kalamazoo	4.4	6.7	10.6
Lansing	3.3	6.5	10.1
Muskegon	4.1	8.2	15.0
Pontiac	9.5	17.0	27.5
Saginaw	9.3	17.0	25.0

Source:

^aU. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, County and City Data Book, 1962, pp. 504 and 514.

^bU. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, General Population Characteristics, pp. 24:57-61.

Table 11. County rural and urban population and migration.

City	County	Population 1970		County Migration
		<u>Rural</u>	<u>Urban</u>	
Ann Arbor	Washtenaw	51,109	182,994	+31,510
Battle Creek	Calhoun	57,386	84,577	-13,113
Bay City	Bay	38,987	78,352	- 4,593
Flint	Genesee	100,670	343,671	+ 3,690
Grand Rapids	Kent	76,783	342,261	- 2,843
Jackson	Jackson	64,702	78,572	- 3,748
Kalamazoo	Kalamazoo	49,467	152,083	+ 8,724
Lansing	Ingham	37,337	223,702	+13,213
Muskegon	Muskegon	48,693	108,733	-13,677
Pontiac	Oakland	90,997	816,874	+106,797
Saginaw	Saginaw	66,481	153,262	- 1,791

Source: State of Michigan, County and Regional Facts, Regions: 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 7 and 8, 1971.

shows this trend to be the greatest among the eleven (11) cities in Battle Creek, Flint, Pontiac and Saginaw. There is an identifiable change in the areas around the cities indicating six (6) of the counties in which the cities researched are located have also begun to lose population while their suburban fringe is increasing in population.²³

Health

The health of a community has a direct relation to the "quality of life" that is enjoyed by its citizens. Examining the number of hospital admissions, shown in Table 12, for each of the eleven (11) cities, the trends indicate an increase in all communities. This increase in service becomes more significant when related to population changes. Correlating the number of hospital admissions with the death rate per one thousand persons, as shown in Table 13, there appears to be a relationship. The cities of Battle Creek, Bay City, Jackson and Muskegon, for every one thousand population, have the highest number of deaths and the lowest number of hospital admissions. Ann Arbor, Flint, Grand Rapids and Pontiac per one thousand population have the highest number of hospital admissions. Ann Arbor and Flint have the lowest number of deaths with Pontiac and Grand Rapids fifth and seventh among eleven (11) cities.

Is there also a relationship between other aspects of a city's well being? Earlier it was pointed out that Battle Creek, Bay City, Jackson and Muskegon appeared to be having economic difficulties.

²³See Tables 1, 2 and 6 in this chapter.

Table 12. Hospital admissions per 1,000 persons.

City	1955 ^a	1964 ^b	1970 ^c	Number of Hospitals ^c
Ann Arbor	36.5	47.7	50.4	5
Battle Creek	19.1	23.1	27.5	6
Bay City	18.2	21.9	23.7	4
Flint	46.8	58.0	73.4	6
Grand Rapids	43.4	54.7	63.1	10
Jackson	14.1	18.6	21.7	4
Kalamazoo	17.5	23.9	29.3	3
Lansing	27.6	33.7	43.5	4
Muskegon	15.5	18.0	21.6	4
Pontiac	29.1	35.9	46.5	5
Saginaw	26.7	33.9	43.5	6

Source:

^aU. S. Commerce Department, County and City Data Book, 1956, p. 395.

^bU. S. Commerce Department, County and City Data Book, 1967, pp. 511 and 521.

^cU. S. Commerce Department, Bureau of the Census, County and City Data Book, 1967, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. (1973), p. 713.

Table 13. Health and mobility.

City	Per cent in residence in same house 5 years ago	Per cent of 1,000 persons		
		1970		
		Birth	Death	65 and older
Ann Arbor	28.6	18.9	5.6	5.4
Battle Creek	52.8	23.6	15.4	13.4
Bay City	63.2	19.4	13.0	10.7
Flint	53.2	22.9	9.4	8.8
Grand Rapids	54.5	19.4	11.6	12.2
Jackson	55.1	21.9	15.1	13.1
Kalamazoo	41.9	20.2	9.4	9.9
Lansing	49.0	23.2	8.6	8.4
Muskegon	58.9	25.9	13.2	12.8
Pontiac	49.7	28.4	9.7	8.6
Saginaw	58.6	22.6	10.7	9.8

Source: U. S. Commerce Department, County and City Data Book, 1972.

It can be understood that economic factors must be an important determinant for health and the ability to obtain health care. In the same way, the physical environment also impinges on the health of Michigan's cities. Pollution of air, food and water supplies are not well documented for each of the cities researched. Records do indicate that each of the cities are in areas where there is a strong potential source of industrial air pollution.²⁴ These records also indicate a decrease in industrial and domestic pollution through the use of legislation and enforcement. The environmental problems that will affect the state in the 1970's will no doubt concern auto emissions, solid waste, sewage treatment and industrial "in-plant" environments.

Michigan has four leading causes of mortality--heart disease, cancer, stroke, and accidents. These four causes account for almost three-quarters of all deaths. A survey of the cities of Grand Rapids, Lansing and Muskegon, called the Michigan Health Survey,²⁵ revealed that the lowest income areas of the cities suffered from the greater number of health problems when compared to the rest of the city. The city suffered the greater number of health problems when compared to the suburban areas.

²⁴Michigan, Department of Public Health, Health in Michigan A Profile, 1971, Lansing, Michigan (September, 1971), pp. 11-14.

²⁵Michigan, Department of Public Health, Michigan Health Survey, Grand Rapids-Wyoming area, Lansing-East Lansing area, Muskegon area, 1970, 1971, 1972, Lansing, Michigan.

It thus appears communities are not yet able to manage or plan our "health resources" to meet our cities, and thus a major share of the state population's, needs.

Education

Another important influence on the "quality of life" of a community is the level of knowledge learning system and training activities that are operative. A review of the statistics of the eleven (11) cities for the last twenty years, Table 14, finds that the school districts of Ann Arbor, Kalamazoo, Lansing and Grand Rapids have attained the four highest levels of median school years completed. Bay City, Muskegon, Pontiac and Saginaw have the lowest levels of median school years completed among the eleven (11) cities. In an attempt to look at the quality of education, the Michigan Department of Education, in a state-wide program, developed an assessment of educational needs for each of the school districts in Michigan. The assessment results for the eleven (11) cities for 1971 and 1972 are presented in Table 15. None of the school districts are equal in all factors; therefore, a completely adequate comparison is not possible. The assessment results do indicate that Ann Arbor, Bay City, Kalamazoo and Lansing school districts have the highest achievement levels of the eleven (11) cities and that Battle Creek, Flint, Pontiac and Saginaw have the lowest. Relating the school dropout rate, per cent of racial-ethnic minority students and achievement levels, Table 15, the greatest problems appear to be in the school districts of Pontiac and Saginaw, while the least problems appear to be in Ann Arbor and Bay City.

Table 14. Grade completion-median number of years.

City	1950 ^a	1960 ^b	1970 ^c
Ann Arbor	12.8	13.7	15.4
Battle Creek	10.7	10.8	11.7
Bay City	9.2	10.3	11.5
Flint	10.2	10.9	11.8
Grand Rapids	10.4	10.8	12.1
Jackson	10.7	11.1	11.9
Kalamazoo	10.7	11.5	12.3
Lansing	11.5	11.9	12.2
Muskegon	9.7	10.2	11.2
Pontiac	9.8	9.8	10.7
Saginaw	9.8	10.3	11.6

Source:

^aU. S. Commerce Department, City and County Data Book 1956, p. 388.

^bU. S. Commerce Department, City and County Data Book 1967, pp. 505 and 515.

^cU. S. Commerce Department, Bureau of the Census, County and City Data Book 1972, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. (1973), p. 703.

Table 15. School district assessment - Decile distributions of basic skills composite achievement scores.

School district grade	Dropout rate ^b 1970-1971	Per cent of ^b Racial-ethnic minority students 1970-1971	1971 ^a		1972 ^b	
			4	6	4	6
Ann Arbor	4.5	12.3	53.7	54.6	53.2	53.2
Battle Creek	8.9	30.0	47.8	47.9	48.8	46.5
Bay City	6.8	5.4	50.2	50.9	50.4	50.0
Flint	8.1	42.4	48.3	47.1	47.5	46.8
Grand Rapids	8.3	27.5	47.3	48.1	47.8	47.5
Jackson	7.6	16.6	47.8	49.5	47.6	48.3
Kalamazoo	9.4	18.9	49.4	51.2	49.7	50.1
Lansing	9.9	20.4	49.0	48.7	48.8	49.0
Muskegon	7.2	28.2	47.7	49.2	47.8	48.6
Pontiac	29.7	42.9	46.7	46.9	45.0	45.3
Saginaw	9.0	44.5	46.7	46.2	46.4	46.1

Source:

^aMichigan Department of Education, Local District Results, Michigan Educational Assessment Program, 1970-1971 series, 3rd report, 1971.

^bMichigan Department of Education, Local District Results, Michigan Educational Assessment Program, 1971-1972 series, 4th report, 1972, pp. 20-21.

It has been suggested that²⁶ . . . as much as one-fourth of our growth in per capita income can be traced to increased schooling and as much as one-third to inventions and "advances in knowledge" . . .

When comparing the other school districts in Michigan, the smaller cities, towns, and urban fringe districts--surrounding the cities studied in this research--it was found that they generally demonstrated higher achievement levels.²⁷

Public safety

If greed, aggression, and harm are regularly permitted to trespass respect for other people, obviously the community suffers. Nationally, most statistics are showing continual increases in major crimes. There is general knowledge that more crime occurs in central cities, and this causes many people to avoid activities in this part of our communities. An examination of known crimes and public safety expenditures is related in Table 16. Flint, Grand Rapids, Lansing and Pontiac, the largest cities studied, are the four (4) cities with the highest totals of serious crime in 1970. Table 17 relates the crime rates for each city. Kalamazoo, Pontiac and Saginaw appeared to consistently have higher crime rates per one hundred persons. These statistics are only indicators of the situation as it is believed that there is far more crime being committed than is being reported to

²⁶U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Toward A Social Report, U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C. (January, 1969), p. 65.

²⁷Michigan Department of Education, Local District Results, Michigan Educational Assessment Program 1971-72, Series 4th Report, 1972.

Table 16. Public safety expenditures and known crimes - 1970.

City	Population	Police & fire expendi- tures - per cent of totals	Police officers	Serious crimes total	Robbery	Aggra- vated assault	Burglary	Auto theft
Ann Arbor	99,797	21.9	1.42	5,763	213	159	2,734	388
Battle Creek	38,931	27.6	.66	2,109	136	203	961	195
Bay City	49,449	36.8	.81	1,173	86	61	506	98
Flint	193,380	16.2	3.89	10,513	584	1,288	4,115	1,092
Grand Rapids	197,534	22.7	3.30	7,422	376	471	3,737	757
Jackson	45,484	30.1	.91	1,723	99	138	546	106
Kalamazoo	85,661	28.5	1.43	4,349	188	618	1,558	318
Lansing	131,638	22.8	2.37	7,968	247	296	3,512	660
Muskegon	44,631	24.7	(NA)	2,553	110	290	904	129
Pontiac	85,339	14.3	1.55	6,633	691	949	2,853	581
Saginaw	91,820	20.7	1.72	4,113	403	402	2,292	430

Source: U. S. Commerce Department, County and City Data Book 1972, p. 709.

Table 17. Index crime rates per 100,000 persons.

Community	1970		1971		1972	
	Pt. I	II	I	II	I	II
State	5,466	4,151	5,722	4,590	5,346	4,834
Ann Arbor	5,775	4,368	6,654	6,202	6,654	5,169
Battle Creek	5,417	3,141	5,376	5,702	4,421	5,931
Bay City	2,370	4,783	2,661	5,402	2,447	5,507
Flint	5,469	4,828	5,724	4,253	5,848	4,587
Grand Rapids	3,755	2,623	3,372	2,807	3,536	2,636
Jackson	3,788	5,490	4,375	7,609	4,819	8,807
Kalamazoo	5,083	10,225	5,326	8,834	5,011	8,316
Lansing	6,057	6,057	6,160	6,405	5,758	5,977
Muskegon	5,720	5,720	6,211	4,676	4,665	4,042
Pontiac	7,778	7,778	8,940	8,767	7,473	9,608
Saginaw	4,496	4,496	6,241	13,206	5,441	10,700

Source: Michigan, Office of Criminal Justice Programs, Statistical Appendix to the 1974 Comprehensive Plan for Criminal Justice and Law Enforcement, Appendix D, 1973, pp. D-27 thru D-60.

Note: Part I crimes include: Criminal homicide, rape, robbery, aggravated assault, burglary, larceny and auto theft.

Part II crimes include: Other assaults, arson, forgery and counterfeiting, fraud, embezzlement, stolen property, vandalism, weapons--carrying and possessing, prostitution and commercialized vice, sex offenses, narcotic drug laws, gambling, offenses against family and children, driving under the influence, liquor laws, drunkenness, disorderly conduct, vagrancy, all other offenses.

police authorities.²⁸ The statistics also identify the perpetrators of crime by noting that:²⁹

Most crimes, wherever they are committed, are committed by boys and young men, and that most crimes, by whomever they are committed, are committed in cities.

The resultant condition faced by residents of the cities, particularly the central cities, is that a considerable segment of the population lives in fear of becoming victims of criminal acts. One might suggest that this is one of the factors causing the affluent population to move from the cities.

The accidents, homicides and suicides in the state are a significant problem. The non-diseased deaths, in 1969, for the state are shown in Figure 9. These figures are related to the eleven (11) cities researched on the basis of the county in which they are located, in Table 18. The counties in which Battle Creek, Bay City and Flint are located appear to have the greater number of accidents per one hundred thousand (100,000) persons. The counties in which Ann Arbor, with a higher suicide rate, and Battle Creek, Saginaw and Pontiac are located have the highest combined suicide and homicide rates.

Governmental planning

Before the conclusion of this overview of certain social conditions in Michigan cities, a look at the status of planning of the units of government in the state is enlightening and discouraging,

²⁸Michigan State Police Department, 1972 Uniform Crime Report, 14 Edition, East Lansing, Michigan (1973), p. 5.

²⁹Ibid., p. 5.

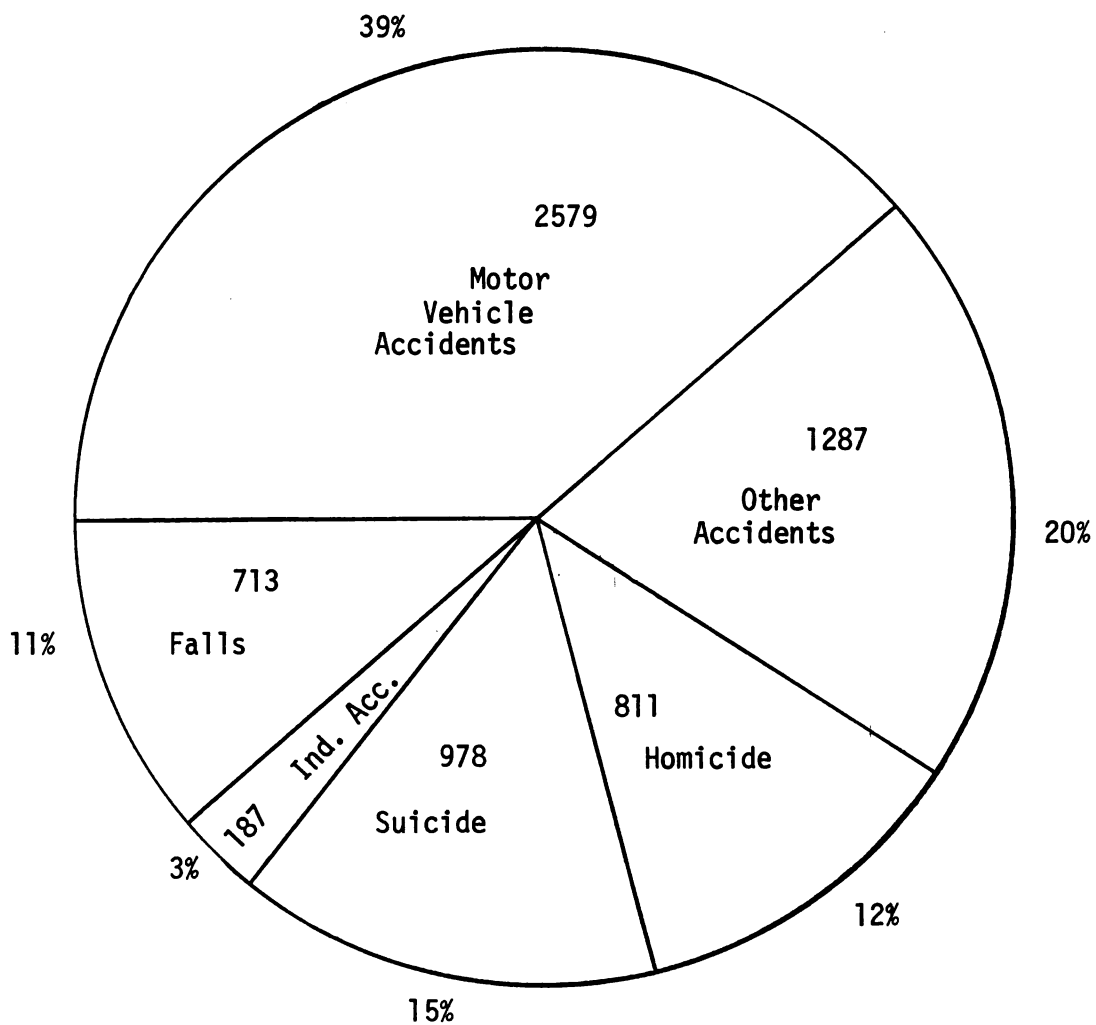


Figure 9. Non-Disease Deaths, 1969.

Table 18. County deaths from accidents, suicide, and homicide in 1969.

City	Michigan County and its Population	Motor Vehicle	Falls	Industrial	Other	Suicide	Homicide
Ann Arbor	Washtenaw 234,103	62	11	1	19	33	9
Battle Creek	Calhoun 141,963	51	13	2	30	21	11
Bay City	Bay 117,339	50	10	4	16	12	4
Flint	Genesee 444,341	168	28	3	71	30	48
Grand Rapids	Kent 411,044	107	26	10	63	41	21
Jackson	Jackson 143,274	38	6	6	29	12	6
Kalamazoo	Kalamazoo 201,550	57	21	2	17	23	5
Lansing	Ingham 261,039	41	19	3	32	28	10
Muskegon	Muskegon 157,426	38	11	4	20	14	7
Pontiac	Oakland 907,871	238	56	7	99	121	39
Saginaw	Saginaw 219,736	62	8	3	22	18	21

Source: Michigan Department of Public Health, Health in Michigan - A Profile, 1971, pp. 95-96.

^aU. S. Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census, General Social and Economic Characteristics, pp. 242-243.

particularly when keeping in mind the goals of planning legislation. This inquiry concentrates on the lower part of Michigan's lower peninsula--the area in which the eleven (11) cities researched are located. For the most part, the information upon which this part of this research is based is the result of a statewide inventory of community and area planning,³⁰ conducted under the auspices of the Office of Planning Coordination, Executive Office, State of Michigan.

In the area in which each of the eleven (11) cities are located, county planning commissions or regional planning commissions--sometimes both--have been established. In addition to these planning units, the townships surrounding the cities have created planning and/or zoning commissions. These are listed by number in Table 19. The planning inventory³¹ notes that as a result of these many planning organizational functions, jurisdictional overlap exists which may cause fragmentation, duplication, and competition between various levels of local government. Experience reveals this to be true.

The general findings of the planning inventory identify the nature of the governmental planning situation in Michigan. These findings are as follows:³²

- ° A planning or zoning organization is found in all but two counties of the state. Among this array of organizations, some enabling

³⁰Michigan, Office of Planning Coordination, An Inventory of Community and Area Planning in Michigan, Lansing, Michigan, February, 1970.

³¹Op. cit., p. 3.

³²Op. cit., pp. 1-2.

Table 19. Township commissions.

City	Township Commissions	Township Zoning Commissions
Ann Arbor	11	4
Battle Creek	13	7
Bay City	5	4
Flint	7	10
Grand Rapids	7	13
Jackson	1	16
Kalamazoo	1	15
Lansing	6	9
Muskegon	5	14
Pontiac	14	22
Saginaw	5	11

Source: Ibid., pp. 6-9.

statutes are being used interchangeably and may result in overlap and duplication of effort and responsibility.

- ° The statutory base is apparently not the governing factor with respect to the substantive planning activities performed by various governmental levels. For example, township planning commissions have a greater inclination to perform the zoning function than to engage in comprehensive planning.
- ° All levels of local government have been more inclined to initiate or complete three basic planning studies. They are: population, economic base, and existing land-use studies, which are used as the data base when developing plans for future growth.

- ° There has been great reliance by local governmental units on the private consultant to perform their planning work. Local professional staff capabilities have not generally developed except for metropolitan cities and counties.
- ° More than half of the adopted zoning ordinances have been initiated, it appears, without an existing or future land-use plan as a guide.
- ° It is indicated that zoning may be viewed as a panacea for the control of growth and development. It appears, also, that numerous other benefits may accrue through the planning process and that such benefits are not fully utilized.
- ° Of all the levels of local government, cities are most heavily involved in the planning process. Some of the reasons for this are:
 - The statutory basis for city planning was the first established, dating back to 1921.
 - Mounting urban problems and the concern for dealing with them effectively.
 - Dependence on a comprehensive plan, or parts thereof, as a prerequisite to qualifying for federal grants-in-aid.

This overview of the eleven (11) cities, relating certain of their economic, physical and social conditions and relationships, was not the state of these cities in the nineteen twenties and nineteen thirties. In the intervening years, Michigan's municipal planning legislation and the body politic have not enabled these cities to deal comprehensively and effectively with the changing conditions which influenced and are influencing their well being. Now to turn to Part II

of this chapter which examines the practice of comprehensive municipal planning in each of the eleven (11) cities.

Part II. Organization and Operations of the Planning
Functions in the Representative Cities

An examination of the organizational form and function of the eleven representative cities helps us to understand the state of city planning--its strengths and weaknesses in Michigan communities. Today the city planning agencies in the United States operate in a substantive area of public policy that--this author contends--has not received adequate administrative, political, or societal support or acceptance. The city planning agencies, as discussed in previous chapters, must constantly cope with integrating many differing programs affecting innumerable aspects of a city's physical, economic and social life.

Research of this nature must be related to actual practice--to the actions and functions of planning in Michigan communities. Understanding the relationships that actually exist between the framework of theories and of laws and the actions of politicians and other public decision makers is absolutely necessary. This part two of Chapter IV presents this kind of an analysis. Through this approach an opportunity is also presented for the expression of opinions of planning professionals involved in the process of delivering planning services, identification of certain of their attitudes and concerns for planning legislative adequacy in Michigan and the needs of planning to solve urban and rural problems.

Organization of the planning function in local government has been determined to be an important factor, among others, in planning

effectiveness. Organization must enable plans to influence political action and, thus, have a close relationship with top decision-making officials.³³ Caution is necessary, and it must be recognized that each city's decision processes and/or needs can be different. There appears to be no single planning function that can best meet the needs of every city.³⁴

This organizational analysis begins by examining the administrative history and present formal situation of the representative cities planning functions. The conditions by and under which the official planning organizations operate in the eleven (11) cities examined indicate their limitations and their achievable parameters.

All of the cities base their legally sanctioned powers and duties upon the Michigan Municipal Planning Commission Act.³⁵ The following outline describes these powers and duties.

³³Francine F. Rabinovitz and J. Stanley Pottinger, "Organization for Local Planning." "The Attitudes of Directors," Journal of the American Institute of Planners, Vol. XXXIII, No. 1 (Baltimore, Maryland: Port City Press, 1967), p. 31.

³⁴Rabinovitz, City Politics and Planning, p. 34.

Note: The approach utilized in this organizational analysis is based upon a framework for analysis developed by Charles A. Joiner. Explanation in an outline approach is contained in the publication Organizational Analysis, published by the Institute for Community Development, Michigan State University, in 1964.

³⁵Michigan, Municipal Planning Commission Act (M.S.A. 5.2991). A discussion of the powers and duties assigned by this act are contained in Chapter II, pp. 30-32 of this document.

Legal requirements

An outline of the Planning Commission's Legally Sanctioned Powers and Duties, as contained in Michigan's Municipal Planning Commission Act, is as follows:

- I. A municipality:
 1. Is authorized and empowered to establish and carry out a municipal plan.
 2. May create by ordinance a planning commission.
 3. Having a planning commission authorized by charter, may by ordinance extend the powers and duties of the commission beyond certain conditions of the Municipal Planning Commission Act.
- II. The Planning Commission shall, unless established by charter and modified by ordinance:
 1. Hold at least one (1) regular meeting in each month.
 2. Adopt rules for the transaction of business.
 3. Keep a public record of its work.
 4. Limit its expenditures, exclusive of gifts, to amounts appropriated by Council.
- III. The Planning Commission may:
 1. Appoint employees.
 2. Contract with consultants.
 3. Adopt the master plan as a whole or by successive parts.
 4. Accept gifts.
 5. Promote public interest in understanding of the plan.
 6. Enter upon any land and make examinations and surveys.
 7. After certification and recording of its master plan, adopt regulations governing the subdivision of land. Once such regulations are adopted, then no subdivision plat may be recorded until approved in writing on the plat by the Planning Commission.

IV. The Planning Commission shall:

1. Make and adopt a master plan for the physical development of the municipality, including any areas outside of its boundaries which it believes bear relation to the planning of the municipality.

The purpose of the plan shall be of guiding and accomplishing a coordinated, adjusted and harmonious development of the municipality and its environs which will, in accordance with present and future needs, best promote health, safety, morals, order, convenience, prosperity and general welfare, as well as efficiency and economy in the process of development.

2. Hold at least one (1) public hearing, with proper notice to the public, on the master plan before its adoption or amendment.
3. Adopt or amend the master plan by not less than six (6) affirmative votes of its members.
4. Prepare priority programs of public structures and improvements for each ensuing six (6) years.
5. Consult with and advise public officials and agencies, public utility companies, civic, educational, professional and other organizations, and with citizens with relation to the protecting or carrying out of the plan.

V. The municipality shall:

1. Not authorize or construct in the municipality or in the planned district or section any street, square, park or public way, ground, or open space, or public building or structure until the location, character and extent thereof shall have been submitted to and approved by the Commission. (The Council shall have the power to overrule such disapproval by a recorded vote of not less than two-thirds (2/3) of its entire membership.)
2. Furnish (each municipal department concerned with such improvements) the Planning Commission with lists of plans and estimates of time and cost of public structures and improvements and other available information as it may require for its work.
3. In general, have such powers as may be necessary to fulfill its functions, promote municipal planning, or carry out the purposes of the act.

4. Have all powers heretofore granted by law to the zoning commission of the municipality.
5. Not rescind authorization for the opening, widening or extension of any street, avenue or boulevard, or the acquisition or enlargement of any park, playground, play-field or other public open space until after the matter has been referred back to the Planning Commission for report and a public hearing held.

If the public way, ground, space, building, structure, or utility fall within the province of the municipal council, then the commission to the planning commission shall be by the board, commission or body having such jurisdiction. A disapproval by the planning commission may be overruled by said board, commission, or body by a vote of not less than two-thirds (2/3) of its membership.

Note that a municipality can, when its planning commission is established under its charter, by ordinance extend its powers and duties or modify its organizational structure. Seven (7) of the eleven cities researched have made notable modifications in their organizational structure. Six (6) have established an administrative structure which combines related developmental activities of the city into community development departments. One (1), Jackson, has established a combined city-regional planning function. Table 20 indicates the nature of the legal changes identified in the eleven cities. All except Jackson, Michigan have established and professionally staffed--to different levels--administrative functions within their local government.

Also, it is important to recognize that in most matters the municipal planning commission, and the municipal planning agency, functions primarily as an advisory body to the governmental and non-governmental structures in the community. It is, thus, clear that the

Table 20. Legal powers and duties of the eleven cities researched.

City	Local Legislation	Variations from Michigan Municipal Planning Commission Act
Ann Arbor	City charter and ordinance	Planning Department
Battle Creek	City charter	Community Development Department Planning Department placed under
Bay City	City charter and ordinance	Community Development Department Planning Department placed under
Flint	City charter and ordinance	Community Development Department
Grand Rapids	Ordinance	
Jackson	Ordinance	City-contracts with regional planning
Kalamazoo	City charter and ordinance	1. Extends authority beyond city limits 2. Requires Planning Commission subject actions to approval of City Council 3. Charges coordinate and unify planning in metropolitan area
Lansing	City charter	1. Planning Department 2. Extends street plan three miles outside city limits
Muskegon	Ordinance	Community Development Department
Pontiac	Ordinance	1. Street plan may extend 3 miles 2. Community Development Department places planning function under a department of community development
Saginaw	Ordinance	Authorizes an advisory committee consisting of representatives of abutting townships

legal limits of municipal planning, of municipal planning implementation, and of the planning agency, in nearly all of the cities researched, is defined by the Michigan Municipal Planning Commission Act. It follows that the legal limits established by this legislation have a determining and substantive influence on Michigan's municipal planning effectiveness. It is the contention of the author that the current practice of city planning in the state has not achieved, nor does it meet the goals, concepts, and requirements, of the municipal planning enabling legislation. The following research examines the local governmental functions and begins to reveal why this contention is made.

Local government structure

Examination of the local governmental structure of the eleven (11) cities researched is the next step in this organizational analysis. An understanding of the accountability, position and relationship of the planning function within local government helps to better comprehend and judge the best approach necessary for planning advocates to overcome the political and administrative problems relating to planning implementation.

William I. Goodman and Jerome L. Kaufman suggest the existence of at least four (4) kinds of local governmental situations to which the planning function must adopt. All are found to be relevant to one or more of the eleven cities researched:

. . . These include (1) the municipality with a strong executive form of administration; (2) the municipality with a weak executive or a dispersed form of administration; (3) the area in which

varying but geographically related units of government must plan as a team; and (4) the area in which coordinated municipalities must plan as a team.³⁶

The local governmental form and the planning commission accountability of the eleven (11) cities researched are represented in Table 21. All of the cities, except Lansing, Michigan, utilize a chief administrator or council-manager governmental form. Table 22 presents the location of the planning agencies as they were found to exist in the hierarchy of the cities researched. Seven (7) of the eleven (11) cities were found to have more recently placed the planning functions within a multi-function agency--usually with a title of community development agency. This agency most often contains code enforcement, housing, planning and redevelopment activities. All are notably oriented to physical development. This organizational form is not contained in the municipal planning commission enabling legislation, nor was this type of local governmental structure considered in 1931 at the time of the legislation's adoption. The obsolescence of the present enabling statute thus begins to become evident.

Eight (8) of the eleven (11) cities planning staffs were found to report directly to the city administrator or directly through the community development director to the city administrator. Such a relationship usually places the planning staff agency in a stronger administrative role. The one (1) city contracting with the regional planning commission has the city's chief administrator named as the city's contact

³⁶William I. Goodman and Jerome L. Kaufman, City Planning in the Sixties: A Restatement of Principles and Techniques, Bureau of Community Planning, University of Illinois (Urbana, Illinois, 1965), p. 24.

Table 21. Planning function - structural organization and governmental form.

City	Governmental Form	Professionally Staffed Planning Agency Accountability	Planning Commission Accountability
Ann Arbor	Council-manager	Responsible to planning commission Commission-advises city manager	Advisory to City Council, manager and agencies
Battle Creek	Commission-manager	Responsible to city manager-advises planning commission	Advisory to City Council, manager and agencies
Bay City	Commission-manager	Responsible to community development dir.-advises planning commission	Advisory to city commission; manager and agencies
Flint	Council-manager	Responsible to city manager-advises planning commission	Advisory to City Council; manager and agencies
Grand Rapids	Council-manager	Responsible to city manager-advises planning commission	Advisory to City Council, manager and agencies
Jackson	Council-manager	Responsible to City Council regional planning staff on contract basis-advises city manager, planning commission and agencies	Advisory to City Council, manager and agencies
Kalamazoo	Commission-manager	Responsible to city manager-advises planning commission	Advisory to City commission manager and agencies
Lansing	Strong Council-weak Mayor	Responsible to planning board-advises City Council	Advisory to City Council, Mayor and agencies

Table 21--Continued.

City	Governmental Form	Professionally Staffed Planning Agency Accountability	Planning Commission Accountability
Muskegon	Council-manager	Responsible to city manager-advises plan- ning commission	Advisory to City Council, manager and agencies
Pontiac	Council-manager	Responsible to city manager-advises plan- ning commission	Advisory to city commission, manager and agencies
Saginaw	Council-manager	Responsible to city manager-advises plan- ning commission	Advisory to City Council, manager and agencies

	Combined with other community development activities; responsible:	1. to chief administrator; community development agency placed with other administrative type activities-i.e. personnel, accounting, community relations, treasurer, etc.	2. Grouped with other administrative departments-responsible to chief administrator.	3. Combined with other community development activities; responsible to chief administrator; community development function
Ann Arbor				X
Battle Creek				
Bay City		X		
Flint				
Grand Rapids				
Jackson			X	
Kalamazoo				
Lansing		X		
Muskegon				X
Pontiac				X
Saginaw				X

5. Grouped with atty., health, human relations & housing functions; responsible to planning commission; commission; commission reports directly to city council; advises city manager.

6. Equal with most other city agencies; responsible to chief administrator.

7. Equal with most other city agencies; responsible to planning commission.

8. No local agency exists. Professional advice through a contract arrangement between the city council and the regional planning commission.

X

X

X

X

X

agent. It is noteworthy that only two (2) of the eleven (11) cities have the planning staff report to, and responsible to, the planning commission as intended in the original municipal planning commission enabling legislation.

William I. Goodman and Eric C. Freund have noted that:

The evolution of city planning over the past half century reveals two lines of emphasis. The first is the dominant influence and emphasis upon physical development; the second--beginning much later and growing in strength today--is the emphasis on urban planning as an aid to the chief executive of the municipality.³⁷

The creation of the community development agencies and other recent organizational changes identified in the previous chapters of this research indicate the emergence of such an approach as being consistent with contemporary municipal planning effectiveness.

The composition and function of the Municipal Planning Commission can also shed some light upon the effectiveness and influence of municipal planning. The membership composition of the planning commission is to ". . . represent insofar as possible different professions or occupations."³⁸ Table 23 presents the planning commission membership of the eleven cities researched. The predominate membership or composition of the commissioners is found to be persons of a middle-class male professional or business background. Few females or persons from other segments of society are represented. Certainly this kind of

³⁷International City Managers Association, Principles and Practice of Urban Planning, p. 524.

³⁸Michigan, Municipal Planning Commission Act (M.S.A. 5.2993), Section 3.

representation has an effect on the decisions, concept of the public interest and sensitivity to social issues that are infused in the actions of these planning commissions.

Powers, functions and duties

What powers are delegated to the local planning agencies and commissions? What duties are they required to perform? The answers to these, and similar, questions provide a clue to the operating requirements the planning agency must accomplish in the process of planning implementation.

Michigan's Municipal Planning Commission enabling legislation is by structure permissive.³⁹ In the application of these powers and duties all of the eleven (11) cities researched were found to have created municipal planning commissions. None of the planning agencies that have been created operate solely in a staff capacity. All operate in principally an advisory role. Exceptions can be considered when the functions of research, development coordination, and the administration of land use controls. In some of the agencies these exceptions would also include redevelopment, housing and code enforcement functions. In all instances, formally or informally, the planning agencies provided advice to the legislative body--usually when asked, to the chief administrator and to line substantive agencies, the latter being inconsistent and varied depending upon the community. This aspect will be discussed in Chapter V.

³⁹Refer to pages 64-70 of this chapter for an identification of the legally sanctioned powers and duties set forth by the Michigan Municipal Planning Commission Act.

It had been noted that the municipal planning agencies existing in eight (8) of the eleven (11) cities researched were responsible, directly or indirectly, to the city's chief administrator. It has also been pointed out that only two (2) of the planning agencies staff were found to be responsible to the municipal planning commission--as intended in the Municipal Planning Commission legislation. This has a bearing on the ability of the agency to require compliance with the advice it render, if it can convince the chief administrator his powers may be applied. If the staff agency can convince the Municipal Planning Commission, then the powers of the planning commission may be used to gain compliance. The chief administrator and the Municipal Planning Commission both have the powers to demand records and task compliance. However, it is the chief administrator who most often can demand that specific standards be followed. His powers, of course, only relate to non-legislative functions within the city's municipal and corporate jurisdiction. The Municipal Planning Commissions have the authority to request records from and advise all institutions which affect the development of the greater community on matters which relate to the master plan and its areas of jurisdiction. Of course, neither can make demands of private citizens outside established legislative enactments--outside of what they may rightfully perform.

The municipal planning agency functions which it may rightfully perform are described by Charles A. Joiner as being determined and limited by factors which include:

1. The general legal limits that are always placed upon governmental power and particularly upon local governmental power;

2. The framework of powers and functions assigned by the state government to local governments and to planning organizations of local governments;
3. The functions assigned to the planning organization by the local government;
4. The regulations concerning those functions required by the federal government when it provides grants and other forms of assistance to the planning agency;
5. The rules and regulations concerning functions that are made by the governing body and director of the planning agency.⁴⁰

Additional limitations of the planning functions' powers and duties exist because of the resources allocated to it. The ability of the planning commission and/or planning agency to obtain resources for the retention of professional staffs, consultants, and to develop policies and plans are examples.⁴¹ Further limitations are found to exist because of the performance by the planning agency of functions not officially assigned to it, and by the procedural requirements of officially delegated functions such as hearings, public notices, etc.

Administrative history

How well have Michigan's municipal planning functions coped with the limitations placed upon their legal and formal functions and their resource allocations? Just what have been the historical relationships with internal and external institutions? The answer to these and

⁴⁰ Charles A. Joiner, Organizational Analysis-Political, Sociological, and Administrative Processes of Local Government, p. 22.

⁴¹ The reader should refer to Chapter III of this research for an examination of standards and trends concerning contemporary comprehensive city planning.

similar questions were gained by research in each of the eleven (11) cities previously identified.

The administrative heads of each of the planning functions of the eleven (11) cities were asked to subjectively indicate the history of compliance with their planning agency recommendations and decisions by specified institutional categories. The conclusions are presented in Table 24.

Table 24. Conclusions from questions relevant to compliance with planning agency recommendations.

Concurrence from institutional area	Good	Fair	Poor	Little contact
City Council	45%	55%		
Private utilities	25%	45%	30%	90%
Board of Education	30%	40%	30%	40%
City departments	70%	30%		
County or state agencies	45%	45%	10%	50%
Adjacent townships	20%	10%	70%	40%
Planning commission	100%			
Citizens	45%	55%		

Perhaps the most important finding relating to internal institutions is that more than one-half received only fair support from the municipality legislative bodies and that the same "fair" level of support was found to exist between the planning agency and citizens of the communities. The municipal planning agencies support from the local planning commissions was universally good. These findings tend to identify a gap between

community-politics--legislative decisions--and the successful implementation of municipal planning.

To determine the impact of the existing enabling legislations statutory powers, each agency representative was asked to subjectively indicate the Municipal Planning Commission Act's effect on the relations of the planning function with other internal and external institutions. The results of this approach, shown in Table 25, tend to indicate that

Table 25. Effect of statutory powers on planning function relations.*

Institutions	Good	(Per cent)	Poor
		Fair	
Other departments of city	10	36	54
City legislative body	10	18	72
Non-governmental	--	18	82
Adjacent governmental	--	10	90

*Note: Statutory powers referred to are those granted through the authority of the Municipal Planning enabling legislation and the city's legal charters.

the role of the staffed department or other factors are more a determinant than statutory power. The existence of an operating professional planning staff that continually coordinates, communicates and otherwise aids in the implementation of the municipal planning process was long ago recognized.⁴² In a related manner the effectuation of municipal planning is manifested

⁴²Robert A. Walker, The Planning Function in Urban Government.

through the actions of all municipal departments and through the cooperation and regulation of other public and semi-public institutions. The relations that exist between these institutions on a day-to-day basis are an indication of the effectiveness of the planning process. The municipal planning enabling legislation attempted to provide mandates for these relationships. The findings here indicate that the intent of this part of the legislation has not been achieved in practice.

The adequacy of resources in terms of finance and personnel available to the planning function provides further insight into the ability to properly perform its responsibilities. Each planning representative was asked his opinion of the adequacy of resources available. Table 26 presents the results. The only activity among those questioned that received substantial agreement concerned the support for the administration of subdivision regulations. The preponderant opinion is that only fair to poor resources are available for adequate planning activities. The conclusion could logically be drawn that there is a preoccupation of planning staffs and commissions with zoning, subdivision and other short-range planning matters, at the expense of long-range planning matters.

Just what kinds of resources for planning have been spent in these Michigan cities? Since the adoption of state enabling legislation resources for planning have been allocated very slowly. This has been true on a national as well as a state level. In June of 1952 the American Society of Planning Officials reported that:⁴³

⁴³American Society of Planning Officials, Budgets of Community Planning Agencies, Information Report No. 39, Chicago, Illinois (June, 1952), p. 1.

Table 26. Adequacy of financial and personnel resources.

Function	(Per cent)		
	Good	Fair	Poor
Contracting for consultant needs	4.4	11.2	44.4
Revisions to the Master Plan	33.3	22.3	44.4
Preparing the Master Plan	22.3	11.2	66.5
Conducting comprehensive surveys	22.3	33.3	44.4
Review of character, location, and extent of public works	33.3	33.3	33.4
Administering subdivision regulations	100.0	-	-
Promoting publicity and education of the public	11.2	44.4	44.4

The number of cities with planning budgets of \$20,000 or over per year has increased from nine in 1936 to forty-eight in 1949 and to at least fifty-eight in 1951; whereas in 1936 only thirty-nine cities had planning budgets in excess of \$5,000, by 1949 this figure had increased to 140, and by 1951 to a new high of 160. These increases cannot be completely accounted for by the rise in the price level. More cities are engaging in sustained planning activity and more cities are supporting these planning activities by sizeable budget appropriations.

In addition, a number of community planning agencies have had additional funds made available to them for planning over and above the regular appropriations. Special appropriations and bond funds have been made available for special studies. In some cases, city planning agencies have been delegated the responsibility for redevelopment and have received advance funds from federal agencies. In other cases, the planning commission has received funds directly from redevelopment and housing agencies for assistance rendered to these agencies.

Since 1952 the trend towards the use of federal funds has increased. In addition to funds from federal redevelopment assistance, other federal programs such as the City Demonstration Act (Model Cities) and the 701 Planning Management Program have provided added financial support. Table 27 presents the expenditures for planning by the eleven (11) cities researched. Of course, national inflation accounts for a certain portion of the increase, but a steady trend towards increased allocation of resources in support of municipal planning is evident. The poor opinion of those participating in the delivery of planning services is perhaps an indication that a gap still exists between needed support and proper resources.

Municipal master plans

One of the principle charges to the Municipal Planning Commission is to: ". . . make and adopt a master plan for the physical development of the municipality, including any areas outside of its boundaries

Table 27. Expenditures for municipal planning (thousands of dollars).

City	<u>1951^a</u>		<u>1960^b</u>		<u>1970^c</u>		<u>1973^d</u>	
	Expend. per capita	Expend. per capita	Expend. per capita	Expend. per capita	Expend. per capita	Expend. per capita	Expend. per capita	Expend. per capita
Ann Arbor			43.0	.64	152.2	1.52	219.5	2.09
Battle Creek			8.2	.15	61.1	1.49	68.8	1.76
Bay City	7.48	.14			23.0	.66		
Flint	16.32	.10	68.9	.35	54.0	.28		
Grand Rapids	20.31	.12	49.9	.26	91.5	.90	120.8	.79
Jackson			23.5	.44				
Kalamazoo	16.66	.34	29.2	.34	157.2	1.83	156.8	1.85
Lansing			46.9	.40	178.6	1.33	192.7	1.46
Muskegon			30.1	.31	60.0	1.20	57.0	1.75
Pontiac			26.4	.60	119.0	1.40		
Saginaw	21.64	.23	82.6	.77	87.0	.87	113.7	1.23

Source:

^aAmerican Society of Planning Officials, Budgets and Salaries of Selected Community Planning Agencies, Information Report No. 18, Chicago, Illinois (1950), pp. 9-10.

^bAmerican Society of Planning Officials, Expenditures, Staff and Salaries of Planning Agencies, Report 131, Chicago, Illinois (1960), pp. 8-11.

^cAmerican Society of Planning Officials, Expenditures, Staff and Salaries of Planning Agencies, Report No. 256, Chicago, Illinois (1970), pp. 6-9.

^dAmerican Society of Planning Officials, Expenditures, Staff and Salaries of Planning Agencies, Report No. 288, Chicago, Illinois (1973), pp. 7-10.

which, in the commission's judgment, bear relation to the planning of the municipality."⁴⁴

How well has this charge been accomplished? Not consistently. The intent of the act--to develop a plan to use as community policy--has met with only moderate success. Four (4) of the eleven (11) cities researched have no current (1960 or later) master plans adopted by their planning commission, as shown in Table 28. Among the seven (7) cities whose planning commissions have officially adopted master plans, only two (2), Bay City and Pontiac, have indicated current amendments updating the plan. Of the seven (7) cities with official plans, three (3) have adopted only part of the master plan. Three (3) of the plans adopted by the

Table 28. Status of master plans.

City	Planning Commission adoption-part of Master Plan	Planning Commission adoption-complete Master Plan*	Legislative adoption of Master Plan
Ann Arbor	1965	-	-
Battle Creek	1964-1966	1949-1951	-
Bay City	1964	1964-1972	-
Flint	1920-1944-1961	1961	1965
Grand Rapids	1943-1962	1962	-
Jackson	1963-1966	1963	1963
Kalamazoo	1966	-	-
Lansing	1967	1921-1938-1960	-
Muskegon	1949-1972	-	1949
Pontiac	1947-1966-1972	1938-1961	-
Saginaw	1960-1966	1960	-

*Based upon description in enabling legislation.

⁴⁴Michigan, Municipal Planning Commission Act, 125.36, Section 6.

planning commissions have been also adopted by the cities' legislative body.

The one hundred per cent accuracy of the "Status of Master Plans" and "Master Plan Contents" (Tables 28 and 29) is no doubt questionable because of poor records and certain information upon which they are based has been obtained subjectively from questionnaire respondents. But the general status of the use of the "master plan" is accurate.

The general content of these master plans for physical development is presented in Table 29. The plans have, for the most part,

Table 29. Master Plan contents.

	Physical Development Plans														
	Residential	Commercial	Industrial	Street Plan	Parks & Schools	Utilities	Public Facilities	Redevelopment	Neighborhood	Economic	Economic Study	Social Plans	Urban Plans	Time Design	Planning Horizon (in years)
Ann Arbor	x	x	x	x	x	x				x	x	20			
Battle Creek	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x				x	x	
Bay City	x	x	x	x	x	x						20			
Flint	x	x	x	x	x	x	x		x				x		
Grand Rapids	x	x	x	x	x	x	x					20		x	
Kalamazoo	x	x	x	x	x		x					20			
Jackson	x	x	x	x	x	x			x	x			x		
Lansing	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x	x			20	x		
Muskegon															
Pontiac	x	x	x	x	x	x	x							x	
Saginaw	x	x	x	x	x	x	x					20	x		

*1960 plans or later.

considered development of various forms of land use and attendant functional needs. The consideration for the interrelationship of economic and social plans have slowly evolved to where the more recent planning activities of the municipal planning agencies are now focusing on these other aspects of life in attempts to develop a more complete planning process.

One can conclude that the concept of a master plan for the physical development of the municipality and the maintaining of that plan has not fully and successfully been adhered to nor accepted.

The United States' culture is a product created by the interaction of the American people upon one another. Citizens have utilized their freedoms of choice to seek associations with others of their choosing and with institutions of their choosing. Abstention of social contact with antagonistic environments, apathy, and a lack of understanding of local political processes are symptomatic in this culture. Thus, there are many changing variables involved in each community and their impact through time on the policies, the functions of government, and the decisions which are the outcomes of the workings of this United States system. These characteristics are very influential when attempting to conduct a planning function supported by and based upon the rational and orderly accommodation and guidance of change in a community. The success of planning in any Michigan municipality, urban area or region in the present and in the future will depend upon the planning agency's ability to function within this culture. This phase of this research strongly indicates that the current practice of city planning in the state of Michigan has not achieved intended results, does not

Comply with the existing municipal planning legislation, and is failing to cope with the changing factors that planning should influence-- factors which affect the quality of life of the city's inhabitants.

The concluding chapter of this research, which follows, discusses the Michigan Municipal Planning Commission Act, as related to contemporary city planning, and suggests alternate approaches.

CHAPTER V

MICHIGAN CONTEMPORARY CITY PLANNING

ENABLING LEGISLATION NEEDS

Reflecting on the matters presented in this research, there should now be a certain amount of insight into the nature of local planning legislation on a state and national scale, how it has evolved, and how it has been applied. There should also be an awareness of the conditions affecting the lives of Michigan's city dwellers and of the general standards required to utilize planning as an instrument of our republic serving to implement the choices of our democratic society. Now to turn to an evaluation of directions Michigan's municipal planning legislation can be aimed in order to better relate to the needs of Michigan's city dwellers.

This evaluation is not intended to be a thorough analysis. Such an analysis could well be the topic of a thesis requiring detailed and specific study. The intent here is to express directions which appear valid as the result of the research accomplished here.

Direction for planning legislation

This research has sampled and briefly explored the nature of the economic, physical and certain social conditions which affect the quality of life of the citizens in eleven (11) Michigan communities. The flavor of the exploration can be summed up as:

Physical

Urban growth in the suburban areas of the state is continuing to increase in a sprawling manner and to require more resources at the expense of the rural areas and the older inner cities. The "core" cities, upon which this research is focused, are increasingly becoming worn out or blighted, are losing residents and dwelling units, and are not being redeveloped with necessary living amenities at a rate which can turn around their decline. The existing municipal planning enabling legislation does not contain authorizations and responsibilities that permit the cities' contemporary social-environmental problems, and their changing nature to be effectively corrected.

Economic

The changing nature of the state's economy and its over-dependence upon motor vehicle production--particularly in the face of changing supplies of energy--are tending to further complicate and to cause problems of decline for the state's municipalities. The municipalities are experiencing losses in the retail vitality of their central business districts, a loss or status quo of their aging manufacturing tax base--for some their entire tax base-- and a definite need to train and retain a labor force to meet the conditions of "change."

Social

The influence of "change" is perhaps the greatest upon American society and social behavior. The population is changing with an increase in the number of elderly and the young, and a decrease in the birth rate. The minority populations are also increasing in many of the cities and,

thus, the entire urban population is influenced by the tensions of racism. The "health" of city dwellers--influenced greatly by local economic conditions--is not as well cared for, or apparently as adequate, as it could be. The formal learning system in the cities does not appear to create student achievement levels as high as the achievement levels of the students in their urban fringe and many of the smaller Michigan communities. City dwellers are the victims of more criminal acts when compared to their suburban and rural neighbors.

Against this background, the success of municipal planning has been severely hampered by a lack of public support and/or apathy, by state enabling legislation which permits and encourages overlap, fragmentation, competition, etc., by a multiplicity of planning units, and by a general lack of support and responsibility of, and by, the state.

The direction in which municipal planning legislation should be broadly aimed is to correct its present deficiencies and permit, nay place the responsibility for, cities to carry on a consistent planning process which functions as a part of the planning for a "natural region" tempered by political realities.

It has been found, in Part II of Chapter IV of this research, that neither the present level of support nor the current practice of municipal planning meet the goals and requirements of the existing municipal planning legislation. There are also indications that the support of both a financial and legislative nature have been weak or inadequate. This is partly the result of a gap between community, politics, and legislative decisions and planning acceptance.

Approach to planning enabling legislation

It is suggested that the approach of Michigan's municipal planning enabling legislation should be grounded on the basis of how well it permits Michigan cities to meet current needs and conditions and how well it provides latitude for changes in the future. The adequacy of this legislation can be measured in at least five ways:

1. Planning Principles and Technical Competence. An enabling law should indicate that standards be concerned with human life applied toward the planning of a natural region. If the natural region extends beyond municipal boundaries, then the planning for this region should be coordinated by a planning authority which has jurisdiction throughout the natural region. The manner of application should simply permit, with consideration for political needs, a professional and rational process which can continually adjust to changing needs in a systematic way. The articulating and detailing of principles has often been excessive and tended to freeze the process of enabling acts.
2. Legal Structure and Nomenclature. The enabling law should be founded upon at least the purposes of: amenity, convenience, efficiency, economy, general welfare, health, morals, and safety, order and prosperity. The nomenclature should be brief, clear and orderly construction in the law to help

establish an understandable, continuing planning process. It has been suggested that¹. . .

Procedures should be free of ambiguities. Laws should be sufficiently detailed and comprehensive in basic procedure so as to ensure due process and relatively uniform application among municipalities, particularly in a metropolitan complex. . . and that there are "five general standards for planning enabling acts": (1) The language should group related features and eliminate provisions which belong in local ordinances; (2) Terms, definitions, and organization should be in simple format; (3) Each jurisdiction should be granted authority to determine its own organization for planning consistent with broader goals; (4) The planning agency should be provided a more vital role in advising the legislative body and chief executive on policy matters; (5) A clear separation of responsibility for plan making and legislation action implementing recommendations should be established.

While each jurisdiction should be granted self-determination, all should be required to meet certain planning goals for the natural region.

3. Democratic in Function. The enabling law must permit the comprehensive municipal planning process to be formulated from democratically derived goals and policies which are conceived in the "public interest," and the continual determination of which must be a deliberate part of the planning process. These goals and policies must also enable the municipal planning process to rationally guide public and private decisions linked by inter-governmental relationships.

The enabling law must also permit this process to overcome jurisdictional difficulties concerned with responsibilities

¹American Institute of Planners, Interim Report of the Planning Policy Committee on Planning Enabling Legislation, p. 5.

and regional interests. The law or laws should, therefore, prescribe policy which will establish such procedures.

Related laws for inter-governmental cooperation, and policies which establish incentives encouraging such cooperation, should be a part of the state's responsibility. State responsibilities, in support of local planning, also require statewide comprehensive plans, a planning input as a part of state departmental budget reviews, and state provided local planning financial assistance.

Jurisdictional relationships should perhaps be mandated with final authority related to prescribed areas of responsibility. These areas should function with a unified system of planning administration encompassing all the levels of government. The establishment of such a unified system--for both administration and political authority--must be established only after a careful analysis of natural, economic and social regions, geographic areas and political jurisdictions, etc. The system should operate to provide for appropriate review and approval by the various levels of government based upon the nature of the planning decision and upon established standards.

The enabling law must also provide for consistency of various plans of special functions (such as mass transit agencies, solid waste agencies, and public utility companies) with the plans and policies of the region. When conflicts arise, the planning authority for the natural region should have the final decision power, subject to appeal by a local body to the state.

4. Permit the Influence of Change. Legislation should recognize the political involvement necessary to deal effectively with change. The freedom for the planning process to relate to coalitions of power, to mobilize resources for intervention at strategic points, and to incorporate current, medium, and long-range plans to policies, should be established in the law.
5. Lastly, the law should offer some "bonuses" to development that occurs in harmony with public policy as opposed to relying solely on punitive measures for enforcement. In addition to bonuses, grants of authority and coordination requirements for financing authority, tax incentives and/or tax deferral and land taking authority can be teamed with municipal planning legislation to accomplish agreed upon plans.

Beyond the adequacy of the enabling legislation, it is best to turn attention to the elements that make up its content. The essential part of planning enabling legislation should consider at least the following:

1. The powers of the various governmental units must be established. Included in these powers should be clearly defined responsibilities and coordinative relationships between governmental units so that jurisdictional problems are prevented.
2. The planning agency must be prescribed.
3. The elements of the planning process must be established.
4. The basis for comprehensive development plans and policies of record must be clear.
5. The procedures for deriving policies and making plans of record must be clear and constructed so as to easily accommodate change.

6. The methods for effectuating the policies and plans must be available, thorough, and equalized in the use of planning tools.
7. The administrative authority and responsibility for the effectuation of legislated plans and policies must be precise.
8. Appeal procedures must be defined and specified to insure timely and equitable solution to problems of an administrative and legal nature.

Powers of governmental units

Earlier in this research, findings² that pointed out that jurisdictional overlap which can cause fragmentation, duplication, and competition between various levels of local government were presented. It has also been noted that Michigan's Municipal Planning Enabling Legislation³ currently is permissive in nature and does not define all the responsibilities, authority and coordination functions that must be undertaken to meet the challenge caused by change. In summary, enabling legislation should contain both administrative and legislative authority and requirements for:

1. Definite areas of responsibility and coordination of plans and policies for and among the various levels of government;
2. Definite areas of responsibility and coordination of plans and policies among line departments within a given level of government;
3. Long-range program and budget plans and review of related proposals and priorities;
4. Arrangements for technical assistance; and
5. Participation in federal and state programs.

²Refer to Chapter IV, pages 93-99.

³Refer to Chapter I, pages 12-13.

The city planning agency

It can be found, in other parts of this research,⁴ that the form of local government and the role assigned to a planning agency are important formal situational factors that enabling legislation must accommodate. The Michigan enabling statute should require the establishment of a staff level agency with a clearly defined scope and role, an agency with its relationships to other functions of the government prescribed so that:

1. It advises the chief executive, the legislative body and has the ability to influence political actions;
2. A planning process is established;
3. A comprehensive plan and policy has direct influence on the community's development policy;
4. The necessary procedures, methods, authority and coordinative provisions are established to accommodate the functions assigned the agency; and
5. The agency organization can utilize alternative formal administrative arrangements.

The planning process

A planning process that is based upon a democratic approach, that requires the adoption of goals and objectives, requires a unified coordination, and the utilization of humanistic principles as well as philosophical thought, is the desired goal. The enabling statute should assure that the levels of government instill a process by which the planning agency suggests alternative medium-range and long-range goals and

⁴The planning agency is discussed in Chapter III, pages 51 through 54 and in Chapter IV, pages 105 through 121.

objectives. The process must allow for design, economic, physical and social elements to be interrelated. The comprehensive plan should permit the "cataloguing" of policies and plans which allows for continual updating and revision. The manner of "officially recording" the changes should be simple and as direct as possible. The legislation should permit, as a part of the planning process, the mobilization of resources for intervention at strategic points.

The legislation should emphasize continuity in the process for both continuance and for coordination within the political and natural region.

Not to be overlooked, the following purposes, again, are those upon which the legislation for the planning process must be founded: amenity, convenience, efficiency, economy, general welfare, health, morals, safety, order and prosperity.

The comprehensive development plan and policies

The comprehensive development plan and policies must be clearly defined and their purposes clearly stated in the enabling legislation. The definition should permit statements in words, charts, maps, illustration or other media, and include goals, policies, objectives, plans and standards to guide public and private physical development actions. The statute should require that one comprehensive development plan and policy be adopted by the legislative body and utilized as the basis for community development control regulations. Further, the comprehensive plans and policies should be maintained in a current state. They should be a public record and utilized as a guide by the planning agency and

the community in general, and should provide the bases for local regulations such as public improvement priority determinations and urban design controls. They should provide an outline suggesting a suitable balance between types of services offered by various levels of local government. The time horizons that should be considered are short-range, medium-range, and long-range objectives, policies and plans.

The comprehensive plans and policies should be professionally prepared for the local government unit, considering the units, role in the natural region, its sophistication, and its major problem priorities. The legislation must require a method, to be established by local governments and institutions, for absolving differences in a metropolitan area and require consistency with the plans and policies for the "natural region."

The enabling act should further authorize the appropriate levels of local government to acquire and dispose of land and land "rights" to provide an effective ordering of land development.

The procedures for deriving policies and making plans

The procedures for deriving comprehensive development policies and plans should permit the local government to determine the agencies that are to prepare the plans and develop the policies. The overall purpose of the comprehensive policies and plans is to obtain an understanding of the local conditions and factors relevant to development,

identify problems and to recognize the economic and social effect of development. Thus it has been suggested that:⁵

For each of the levels of government, the making and refining of a plan is of greater importance than its adoption. This process should involve: (1) fact-finding (by inventory of conditions); (2) projections of trends and analysis of the possible implications of various courses of action; (3) development of "sketch plans" to convey a public image of their consequences; (4) the involvement of citizen participation in plan making; (5) the holding of public hearings; and (6) the recommendation and certification of the comprehensive plan. . .

Certainly the policies and plans should be available and understandable to the public and comprehensible to the average citizen.

The procedures for updating and maintaining the comprehensive development plan and policies are as important as the procedures for adoption. These procedures should be specified in local legislation, and the enabling act should assure that they be a part of local government routine.

Comprehensive plan and policy effectuation

With the required use of the comprehensive development plan and policies as a basis, the enabling legislation should authorize local governmental units to adopt flexible land use controls. Decisions made locally which have a major impact on the natural region should be reviewed at the regional planning level and at the state level--with powers vested at these levels for voiding local decisions if they are found to be adverse to the "natural regions" plan and policies.

⁵American Institute of Planners, Interim Report of the Planning Policy Committee on Planning Enabling Legislation, p. 8.

The land use control authorizations should be supplemented by the requirement that local government and other public institutions consider and relate their public spending activities in accord with, and on the basis of, the comprehensive development plan and policies.

The state can, and should, make it its business to require utilization and implementation of local comprehensive plans and policies by requiring their development prior to the authorization of the use of state resources, or federal resources under state control. Consistency of the local regional plan with state plans and policies is necessary. Further, it is necessary that state actions also be in accord with these plans and that state funds be made available to local municipal government for municipal planning use.

The municipal government should use direct and indirect influences in support of the plan and policies. Construction of public facilities, regulation of semi-public and private buildings, and the maintenance of those buildings, the use of incentives and concessions, should be authorized and utilized in an equally comprehensive way.

Administrative authority and appeal procedures

Administration of the plans and policies should be vested in an agency, the structure of which should be left to the local government unit. The enabling act should encourage the agency to be as close to the local decision making process as possible. The agency should have the power and responsibility to coordinate the planning process.

Some line functions should be the responsibility of the administering agency, but care should be taken to assure that this action

part of the process does not utilize most of the planning resources that are allocated to the administering agency, as is the case in most Michigan communities at this time.

Administrative authority should be vested, by the state comprehensive development act for municipalities, in the administering agency to require it to be a part of, and close to, the municipalities budgeting and management functions.

The state enabling act should include provisions authorizing a board of adjustment within each planning jurisdiction to relieve hardships to individuals which will occur in the implementation of the plans and policies. Controls within such legislation can prevent emasculation of the comprehensive plan and policies by such an independent body. In a similar fashion, it is suggested that the implementation of many of the land control regulations be authorized by a board or commission. The board or commission must operate in accord with the comprehensive plans and policies adopted by the legislative body, and in accord with standards also adopted by the legislative body.

Conclusion

The intent of state municipal planning enabling legislation should be to establish public policy for the rational development of Michigan's communities. This research has lead this author to conclude that both professional and legislative attention on this subject should be a high priority effort on the part of Michigan's Governor, State Legislature, and the Citizens of the State.

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Respondent _____

Interview No. _____

Interviewer _____

Date: _____

City _____

Call Back Record

Date _____

Time _____

Reason _____

Date _____

Time _____

Reason _____

Interview

Complete _____

Incomplete _____

Questionnaire for the Purpose of Assisting to Determine the Relation Between
the State of Municipal Planning in Middle Sized Michigan Cities and the State
Municipal Planning Act

I. Dynamics of City and Governmental Form.

City _____

1. Population: City Area1940_____, 1950_____,1960_____,1970_____
Metropolitan Area...1940_____, 1950_____,1960_____,1970_____

2. Type of City (physical change):

- a. Growing _____
b. Not growing _____
c. Growing and Blight expanding _____
d. Not growing and Blight expanding _____

3. Type of Metropolitan Area (physical change):

- a. Growing _____
b. Not growing _____
c. Growing and Blight expanding _____
d. Not growing and Blight expanding _____

4. Form of Government:

_____ Strong mayor _____ Commission _____ Manager-Council
_____ Weak Mayor-Council _____ Other _____

5. Do you have a chart describing the exact position of the existing planning
function within your government? _____ Yes _____ No

6. Where in the City organizational structure is the planning function located?

7. How many and what type of planning agencies exist in your metropolitan area?

_____ Regional _____ Township Planning Commission _____ City Planning Comm.
 _____ Economic Districts

II. These questions request information about your planning function's past history, present organizational form and financial support.

1. Can you identify the year the planning function first came into existence? _____
2. Can you tell why the planning function came into existence?

3. Can you name who was responsible for the creation of the planning function? _____
4. Can you identify how, by what legislative acts, the planning function came into being? _____
5. Can you identify the date of any formal changes in the planning function's organizational form? Date and explain each change using questions 2,3, and 4. _____

6. Can you identify the date of the first planning staff appointments?(if any)

7. Can you identify the date of the first master plan adoption by the Planning Commission? _____
 Date of major revisions? _____

Organizational Form and Financial Support -- Please read all choices before marking the one from each column which most closely applies for each year.

	<u>1940</u>	<u>1950</u>	<u>1960</u>	<u>1970</u>
8. a. 'Independent' planning commission without professional planning staff.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
b. 'Independent' planning commission with professional planning staff; staff reports directly to commission; commission, not staff, is the official planning agency.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
c. Planning Department responsible directly to chief executive; commission advisory to staff.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
d. Planning Department responsible directly to chief executive; there is no planning commission.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
e. Combined planning and development department; planning commission is advisory.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
f. Planning is part of combined planning/development department; there is no planning commission.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
g. Joint city-county planning commission with professional planning staff; staff reports directly to commission.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
h. Joint city-county planning commission without professional planning staff.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
i. Other arrangement(explain): _____				
j. There is (was) no central planning agency, commission or staff.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
9. If your planning unit has a professional staff, how many planners were authorized in:.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
10. Please indicate the following financial data for years specified to the right.				
a. Total budget for planning.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
b. Amount spent on staff.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
c. Amount spent on outside professional planning services.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
d. Per capita expenditures.....	_____	_____	_____	_____
11. Do you know if your city utilized outside professional planning services in:	_____	_____	_____	_____

III. These questions request information about the legal requirements, sanctioned powers and duties assigned to your planning function.

1. What is the existing legal basis of your planning function?

a) What State Acts: _____ Act 285 of 1931; Municipal Planning
 _____ Commission Act
 _____ Act 7 of 1967; Urban Cooperation Act
 _____ Act 8 of 1967; Intergovernmental Transfer
 _____ of Functions and Responsibilities
 _____ Act 35 of 1951; Intergovernmental Contracts
 _____ between Municipalities
 _____ Other (explain) _____

b) What local City Acts: _____ Charter
 _____ Ordinance
 _____ Other (explain) _____

2. Was the City's legal basis the same in 1930_____, 1940_____, 1950_____, 1960_____, 1970_____?

3. If the answer to question number 2 indicated change, what was the previous basis? (From-to) (Can copies of wording changes be obtained?)

4. Can a copy of the local acts providing the legal basis for the City's planning function be obtained? _____

5. Has the planning function adopted an official 'Rules of Procedure'?

_____ yes _____ no _____

IV. The following questions request information concerning the activities of the planning function. For each of the ordinances (a) and governmental programs (b) listed following, please check one or more spaces on each line indicating the activities of the planning function.

<u>Part A</u>	Ord. Prepar- ation	Ordinance Review & Comment	Ordinance Enforce- ment	Planning Has No Responsi- bility	City Does Not Have
a. Environmental Control					
b. Building Code					
c. Historic Regulations					
d. Housing Code					
e. Mapped Improvements Code					
f. Flood Control					
g. Soil Sedimentation Code					
h. Subdivision Regulations					
i. Zoning Code					
j. Architectural Control					

Part B

a. Master Plan	
b. Capital Improvements Prog.	
c. Community Action Program	
d. Community Renewal Program	
e. Health Planning	
f. Manpower Program Planning	
g. Model Cities Planning	
h. Public Works Projects	
i. Urban Redevelopment Plng.	
j. Workable Program	
k. Public Housing Planning	

This question has two parts, C in column 1, please check those functions which are performed by the planning function; and D in column 2, please estimate the per cent of time spent by the professional in the planning function on the activities listed in column 1 during your last fiscal year. (Whole numbers only.)

<u>Part C</u> Column 1 (Check functions performed)	<u>Functions and Activities</u>	<u>Part D</u> Column 2 (% of pro- fessional time spent)
_____	a. Area wide planning (planning outside municipality)	_____
_____	b. City wide planning (municipal preparation)	_____
_____	c. Project planning	_____
_____	d. Community renewal program preparation	_____
_____	e. Public and low-income housing planning	_____
_____	f. Capital improvement planning	_____
_____	g. Zoning administration	_____

- _____ h. Subdivision administration and enforcement
- _____ i. Building code enforcement
- _____ j. Housing code enforcement
- _____ k. Model cities program planning
- _____ l. Relocation planning
- _____ m. Economic development planning
- _____ n. Social services or human resource planning
- _____ o. Central data system planning and development
- _____ p. Health planning
- _____ q. Parks/recreation planning
- _____ r. Planning for parking
- _____ s. Public works review
- _____ t. Utility (communication, water power, etc.) planning and/or review
- _____ u. Community center planning
- _____ v. Transportation planning and/or review
- _____ w. Public property review and/or planning
- _____ x. Environmental quality
- _____ y. General agency and staff administration
- _____ z. Publicity for planning program
- _____ aa. Education of public for planning objectives
- _____ bb. Coordination with regional planners
- _____ cc. Formal goal and policy planning
- _____ dd. Other _____

2. Has your legislative body adopted the Master Plan? _____

3. How many referrals do you have from the following area wide functions on an annual basis?

Institutions

Estimated No. of Referrals Annually

- A. Utilities 1) gas
 2) electricity
 3) steam
 4) other

B. Communication

- C. Public Works 1) water
 2) sewerage
 3) other (indicate)

- D. Education 1) local Board of Education
 2) local Community College

- E. Transportation 1) highways
 2) mass transit

V. The following questions relate to the evaluation of the activities of the planning function. Please evaluate the work of the planning function and its external relationships according to the following features on a 5-point scale by circling the appropriate rating (circle one only for each feature).

	Weak (Poor)				Strong (Good)
1. a. Relations with elected officials.					
1. City Council	1	2	3	4	5
2. Mayor	1	2	3	4	5
3. Board of Education	1	2	3	4	5
4. County Commissioners	1	2	3	4	5
5. State Representatives	1	2	3	4	5
6. Congressional Representatives	1	2	3	4	5
7. Boards or Commissions	1	2	3	4	5
8. Township Trustees of Adjacent Townships	1	2	3	4	5
b. Relations with physical development and human resource departments of government.					
1. Regional or County Planning Commission	1	2	3	4	5
2. Public Works	1	2	3	4	5
3. Traffic	1	2	3	4	5
4. Parks/Recreation	1	2	3	4	5
5. Education	1	2	3	4	5
6. Health	1	2	3	4	5
7. Model Cities	1	2	3	4	5
8. Human Relations	1	2	3	4	5
9. Housing	1	2	3	4	5
10. Redevelopment	1	2	3	4	5
11. Building Inspection	1	2	3	4	5
12. City Manager	1	2	3	4	5
13. Welfare	1	2	3	4	5
c. Relations with citizens and community groups.					
1. Real Estate	1	2	3	4	5
2. Citizens	1	2	3	4	5
3. N.A.A.C.P.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Chamber of Commerce	1	2	3	4	5
5. Economic Development	1	2	3	4	5
6. Downtown Business Association	1	2	3	4	5
7. Community Chest	1	2	3	4	5
8. News Media	1	2	3	4	5
d. Relations with private utility functions.					
1. Communication	1	2	3	4	5
2. Power	1	2	3	4	5

e. Flexibility and responsiveness	1	2	3	4	5
1. Changing Needs	1	2	3	4	5
f. Implementation of plans.	1	2	3	4	5
g. Sensitivity to political trends of the city.	1	2	3	4	5
h. Sensitivity to social problems of the city.	1	2	3	4	5
i. Encouragement of strong planning staff capabilities by city officials.	1	2	3	4	5
j. Recognition of areawide implications of planning.	1	2	3	4	5
k. Willingness of planning staff to innovate.	1	2	3	4	5
l. Willingness of commission to innovate.	1	2	3	4	5
m. Willingness of policy officials to innovate.	1	2	3	4	5
n. Overall relations of staff to planning commission.	1	2	3	4	5
o. Overall relations of staff to city manager or city administrator.	1	2	3	4	5
p. Coordination with adjoining planning groups.	1	2	3	4	5

Please comment on the following:

2. Does the planning agency have a history of compliance with its recommendations and decisions regarding:

a. Planning implementation to City Council? _____

b. Private utility companies? _____

c. Board of Education? _____

d. Private citizens? _____

e. City line agencies or departments? _____

f. County or state agency units? _____

g. Contiguous townships or cities? _____

- h. Planning matters to the Planning Commission? _____

3. Does the legislative body backstop planning functions recommendations and decisions? _____

4. Does the city manager backstop planning function recommendations and decisions? _____

5. Have statutory power aided or hindered or had no affect on the relations of the planning function with:
- a. Other Departments of the City? _____
 - b. The legislative body? _____
 - c. Nongovernmental institutions? _____
 - d. Adjacent governmental units? _____
6. Have budget requests of the planning function been supported by and resources allocated by the legislative body? _____

7. Are personnel and financial resources adequate to permit a complete planning function able to carry out legislative requirements and responsibilities for:
- a. Contracting for consultant needs? _____
 - b. Revisions to the Master Plan? _____
 - c. Making of the Master Plan? _____
 - d. Conducting comprehensive surveys? _____
 - e. Review of character, location and extent of public works? _____
 - f. Administering subdivisions (plats)? _____
 - g. Promoting publicity and education of the public concerning plans? _____
8. What are the backgrounds of your planning commissioners?
- a. _____
 - b. _____
 - c. _____
 - d. _____
 - e. _____
 - f. _____
 - g. _____
 - h. _____
 - i. _____

9. Do the Planning Commission members take active roles in the planning program (explain)? _____
- _____
- _____

10. Does the Planning Commission delegate much responsibility to the Planning staff? _____
- _____
- _____

VI. The following questions relate to the working environment and operations of the administrative staff of the Planning function.

1. Where is the planning agency housed?

_____ In City Hall _____ In separate quarters, not related to other City departments

_____ Together with related departments

_____ Other (explain) _____

2. Were the planning agency's quarters built: _____ 0-10 years ago;

_____ 10-25 years ago; _____ prior to 25 years ago?

3. When were the planning agency's quarters last remodeled? _____

4. How do you rate the quarters: _____ excellent _____ good

_____ adequate _____ inadequate

5. How many of the professional staff, which is _____, hold:

Bachelor degrees in planning _____ Masters degrees in planning _____
Bachelor degrees in related fields _____ Masters degrees in related field _____

6. Does the planning staff operate on the basis of a work program? _____
- _____

7. If so, who approves the work program? _____
- _____

8. What professional personnel - other than community planners - are employed? (list) _____

9. Does the planning staff have the confidence of the City Manager? _____

10. Do you believe the total planning function, commission and staff has effectively established a decisive role in improving the quality of physical environment? In other words, do you believe the planning function has been successful? _____

VII. These questions pertain to Planning enabling legislations.

1. Do you find the Municipal Planning Commission Act - Act 285 of the Public Acts of 1931 to:
- a. Relate the municipal plan to implementation tools in a direct way?

 - b. Clearly define the essential elements to be dealt with in the municipal plan? _____

 - c. Require a clear and orderly procedure for municipal plan adoption?

 - d. Clearly identify the scope of the general plan? _____

 - e. Lead to effective planning relationships with the legislative body?

 - f. Authorize effective methods to secure desired development:
 - 1) in the city? _____
 - 2) in the suburban areas? _____

g. Provide that the municipal plan be maintained as a flexible guide?

h. Provide for adequate public involvement in the Planning process?

i. Provide coordinative authority to relate other jurisdictions and departments? _____

j. Clearly relate to other Acts and ordinances which have an impact on planning? _____

k. Contain provisions which permit the designing of amenities? _____

l. Over emphasize a particular tool or tools of planning? _____

m. Contains brief, clear and orderly language construction in its statutes?

n. Requires planning in all governmental units? _____

o. Adequately places the planning function so as to influence community decision development decisions? _____

p. Permit the use eminent domain or purchase to achieve Master Plan objectives? _____

q. Contain adequate referral requirements? _____

VIII

TECHNICAL PLANNING WORK

Function (Study, analysis, program)	Comp. date	Amended whole part date	Revised date	In Progress draft rev. dates	Plan to do start date	not programmed	In Progress Planning not responsible
Population:							
a. characteristics							
b. projection by areas							
c. overall projections							
Economic:							
a. economic base							
b. land use marketability							
d. housing, commercial, industrial							
Environmental Quality							
Central Data Base System							
Land Use:							
a. survey							
b. forecast space requirements							
c. specialized studies							
Transportation:							
a. streets and highways							
b. mass transit							
c. terminals							
d. parking							
e. airport							
Community Health							
Open Space Recreation							
Governmental and Community Facilities							
Special Studies							
Blighted Districts and Slum Areas							
Flood Plain Study							
City Design analysis							
Historical Site Study							
Social Welfare Planning Study							
Policies and Goal Study							
Master Plan:							
a. major street plan							
b. community facilities plan							
c. utility plan							
d. neighborhood unit plan							
e. policy plan							
f. open space plan							
g. working and living area plan							
h. civic design							
i. historic district plan							
Code Enforcement analysis							
Implementation Programs							
a. planning function organization plan							
b. mapped improvements program							
c. subdivision regulation							
d. historic district program							
e. redevelopment plan (CRP)							
f. zoning ordinance							
g. capital improvements							
h. public housing plan							
i. model cities plan							
j. workable program							
k. economic development							



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