AREAS OF PRACTICE
Spatial Areas
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice
Lessons 1

Instructor’s Notes: In order to offer exam candidates the widest range of preparation tools and to accommodate various learning styles, this guide includes scripts or notes that instructors used while recording the instructional videos. Candidates should be aware that these unedited Instructor’s Notes are intended to complement videos, not replace them. To get the maximum instructional value from this guide, candidates should also watch the videos and read any accompanying resources.

LESSON 1: Planning at national level

Federal Planning thru:

LESSON 1: PLANNING AT THE NATIONAL LEVEL. Under the U.S. Constitution, “police power” was delegated to the states, and the federal government was limited to the specific grants of power noted in the Constitution. Therefore, planning at the national level is accomplished through the various powers it possesses to influence, fund or regulate planning activities.

These powers include imposing requirements in exchange for federal money or grants – for example: requiring states to restrict the drinking age to 21 in exchange for federal highway funds, and the federal legislation which required the formation of Metropolitan Planning Organizations for urbanized areas with populations exceeding 50,000 in order to handle that federal transportation funding.

Based on its constitutional commerce clause and treaty powers, the U.S. government has passed a variety of environmental, economic and other federal laws affecting planning and development, such as the NEPA process or the Army Corps of Engineers Section 404 wetlands regulations and permitting. The U.S. Government is also a landlord, owning almost 30% of the lands within the U.S., and can affect local land uses through its use, management, leasing, disposal, and development of these federal lands. And of course, the federal government is also a developer, whether of post offices, hospitals, levees, affordable housing or military bases.

Now let’s look a little more closely at specific planning programs at the national level, and for that it’s most useful to look at the history of evolving national programs and laws.

TRANSPORTATION

TRANSPORTATION: Early federal highway involvement was primarily in the funding area. The first trans-continental highway for automobiles was the Lincoln Highway (first segment dedicated in 1913) that ran from New York City to San Francisco, and was paid for with both public and private funds. The Federal Aid Road Act of 1916 subsequently became the first federal highway funding legislation in the United States, and began to further expand and improve the country’s early developing roadway system.

A standardized national numbering system of U.S. Highways began in 1926, and President Eisenhower, who in 1919 was part of a well-publicized U.S. Army Transcontinental Motor Convoy using the Lincoln Highway and later following World War II saw the potential of the German autobahn for rapidly moving troops and people, helped shepherd the Federal Aid Highway Act of 1956 that created the Interstate highway system that is now named after him.
Transportation planning evolved significantly with the 1962 Federal-Aid Highway Act that created the federal MPO mandate for urban areas in the United States and provides for 90% federal funding for interstate highway projects. That federal-state cost sharing system has further evolved into the collaborative planning “TEA” acts of the 1990’s, and 2000’s (ISTEA, TEA-21 & SAFETEA-LU) and recently into the new MAP-21 federal planning requirements that address transit and other transportation alternatives.

**Interagency Planning**

Federal transportation planning today includes planning coordination, as well as funding. States are required to conduct statewide transportation planning that is Continuing, Comprehensive and Collaborative (the 3 C’s), including the preparation of a State Transportation Plan that addresses federal coordination on projects such as major corridor or Transit Oriented Development planning. Additionally, transportation planning may also involve a State Implementation Plan (SIP) under the Clean Air Act, if mobile sources (i.e. automobile emissions) are the reason behind air quality violations resulting in a non-attainment area.

As previously mentioned, beginning with the 1962 Federal-Aid Highway Act, in order to receive federal transportation funds, urban areas >50,000 in population were required to create a regional metropolitan planning organization (MPO) that is made up of representatives from local government and governmental transportation authorities. These may be structured as a Council of Governments (COG), a regional planning agency, or an actually named MPO.

The roles of a MPO are numerous, but include the preparation of a Long Range Transportation Plan and a transportation improvement program, ultimately approved by the federal Highway Administration after the input of technical and citizen advisory committees (i.e. the latter known as the “CAC”). The federal government is also involved with planning and regulation of ports, airports and rail through such agencies as the Coast Guard, Army Corps of Engineers, the Federal Maritime Commission, the Federal Aviation Administration, and the Federal Railroad Administration.

**ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION**

ENVIRONMENTAL PROTECTION: National conservation planning can be traced back to at least the founding of Yellowstone National Park, the world’s first, in 1872. The General Land Law Revision Act of 1891 gave the President the power to create forest preserves by proclamation, but it was really the 20th century that saw conservation, environmental protection and planning become highly developed at the national level. The early part of the 20th century saw the U.S. 1902 Reclamation Act (aka Newland Act) that addressed water supply and irrigation; the establishment of the U.S. Forest Service in 1905 with Gifford Pinchot as its first head; and the creation of the U.S. Soil Conservation Service to fight soil erosion during the 1930’s Roosevelt administration.

The roots of a national environmental movement can be traced back to George Perkins Marsh’s 1864 *Man and Nature* that explored the destructive impact of human action on the natural environment. But it was the 1960’s that experienced the explosion of the environmental movement, following the expanded public awareness that came about from publications such as Rachel Carson’s 1962 *Silent Spring* on the devastating effects of DDT and other pesticides on bird reproduction and the environment, and from...
events such as the Cuyahoga River catching fire multiple times due to surface oil contamination, and the Santa Barbara oil spill that killed thousands of sea birds and marine mammals.

In response to these emerging public concerns, a series of national environmental laws passed Congress during the Nixon administration. The first of these was the 1969 National Environmental Protection Act (NEPA) that established both a federal Environmental Impact Statement (EIS) process for assessing and reviewing environmental impacts and a rule-making Council of Environmental Quality (CEQ) policy arm for the act residing in the White House. The NEPA Act also created the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), which administers many of the nation’s environmental regulatory programs.

**1970 – Clean Air Act**

NEPA was followed by amending the Clean Air Act in 1970, and enacting the Clean Water Act in 1972. The Clean Air Act requires EPA to develop and enforce regulations to protect the public from airborne contaminants known to be hazardous to human health, including requirements for both federal and state regulations of stationary (industrial) pollution sources and non-stationary (mobile) sources, the latter having a direct connection to transportation planning. Non-attainment areas are subject to State Implementation Plans (SIPs) approved by EPA that are required to bring the area back into compliance. The Clean Water Act regulates wetlands and both point source (i.e. from pipes) and non-point (i.e. from diffuse runoff) water pollution. The Clean Water Act requires states to identify waterbodies that are not meeting water quality standards after addressing point source pollution. States must then establish Total Maximum Daily Loads (TMDLs) for such water bodies to address non-point sources and bring them back into compliance with water quality standards.

Additional environmental laws passed during the early 1970’s included FIFRA (the Federal Insecticide, Fungicide and Rodenticide Act), the Endangered Species Act in 1973, and the Safe Drinking Water Act in 1974, which established national drinking water standards and now includes requirements for local government wellhead protection and planning programs.

The Energy Policy Conservation Act of 1975 was passed in response to the 1973 Arab oil embargo and first established CAFÉ (Corporate Average Fuel Economy) standards for automobiles and a federal Energy Conservation Program for Consumer Products.


**1980 – CERCLA/Superfund**

The Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation, and Liability Act of 1980 (known as CERCLA or Superfund) was passed in response to the threat of major hazardous waste sites, typified by the Love Canal disaster in New York where a neighborhood was built on a commercial disposal site containing 21,000 tons of toxic wastes, resulting in significant health impacts.

The 1986 Superfund Amendments and Reauthorization Act (known as SARA), made important changes to the Superfund law, including minimum cleanup requirements and a requirement that settlement agreements require remedial actions, subject to public comment and a federal court decree.
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice (Lesson 1)

Also in 1986, Congress passed the Emergency Planning & Community Right to Know Act that supported emergency planning efforts at state and local levels, and ensured that citizens and local governments be provided information concerning the toxic substances and potential hazards present in their communities.

The 1990 Farm Bill established the Wetland Reserve Program, a voluntary financial program offering landowners the opportunity to protect, restore, and enhance wetlands on their property. This program is being used by the U.S. Department of Agriculture to protect 24,000 acres of the Northern Everglades. Environmental justice in the U.S. essentially began with the 1982 protests in Warren County, North Carolina over a PCB hazardous waste landfill in a county that was 75% African-Americans. In 1990, President Clinton issued Executive Order 12898 adding Environmental Justice to each federal agency’s mission, including NEPA. This basically requires an assessment of their federal programs and actions to ensure that “Minority, low income, or Tribal populations should not bear a disproportionate share of the negative environmental consequences…as practicable and appropriate”.

More details about these federal environmental laws can be found in the supplemental materials with this lesson.

**EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT**

EMERGENCY MANAGEMENT: Federal disaster assistance and planning goes back more than 200 years, but has its modern roots in the 1950 Federal Disaster Relief Act that established the process for state governors to request a presidential disaster declaration. The National Flood Insurance Program was formed in 1968 and allowed property owners to obtain federal flood insurance, but linked that insurance to local government actions to reduce flooding risks in flood-prone areas, as identified today by the 100-year flood risk areas on Flood Insurance Rate Maps (i.e. FIRM maps).

The Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA) was established through a series of Executive Orders under President Carter in 1979. Over the years, its disaster recovery and mitigation roles have been gradually expanded to include disasters of all types, including man-made or human-induced disasters.

The Disaster Mitigation Act of 2000 tied future federal assistance and mitigation grants to the adoption of FEMA-approved, tribal and local government hazard mitigation plans.

The 2002 Homeland Security Act was passed in response to the 9-11 attacks and created the Department of Homeland Security to provide increased coordination between federal agencies dealing with law enforcement, border protection, civil defense, and disaster preparedness and recovery planning. Homeland Security now includes FEMA, INS, TSA, the Coast Guard, Customs Service, Secret Service, and a variety of other federal agencies.

**ARMY CORPS & FLOOD PROTECTION**

ARMY CORPS & FLOOD PROTECTION: The Army Corps of Engineers plays a number of national roles in flood control. They are in charge of planning, designing, building, and operating locks, dams and levees throughout the country, along with undertaking other civilian engineering projects such as preventive beach re-nourishment and waterway dredging. The Corps also designs and provides the engineering management of new military facility construction for all branches of the military and many federal agencies.
Lastly, they are directly involved in environmental wetland permitting and ecosystem restoration, including the cleaning up of former military installations contaminated by disposed munitions or hazardous waste and the reestablishment of their wetlands.

Examples of some Corps projects include reconstruction and expansion of the levee systems around New Orleans, rebuilding of the flood control dike around Lake Okeechobee, and the multiple decades restoration of the Everglades being undertaken in partnership with the state of Florida.

**HOUSING & ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT**

HOUSING & ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: Today, the federal government has important roles in housing that began with the Roosevelt administration and the initiation of a series of National Housing Acts, at first addressing home mortgages and subsequently evolving to address public and rental housing, housing discrimination and the homeless.

The 1940’s and 1950’s saw the federal government’s involvement with urban renewal that can trace its roots back to even earlier, more local, efforts such as Daniel Burnham’s 1909 Plan for Chicago. The Housing Acts of 1949 and 1954 began "urban renewal" programs that reshaped American cities. The 1954 Act even provided financial incentives to encourage regional planning and local government comprehensive planning in small communities below 50,000 in population.

Unfortunately, many of the early post-World War II urban renewal efforts had unintended consequences. Robert Moses, the “Master Builder”, undertook a number of urban renewal projects in New York City, some of which helped destroy existing ethnic neighborhoods and others were instrumental in the relocation of the Dodgers and Giants baseball teams to the west coast in the late 1950’s.

In response, the 1960’s under the Johnson administration’s Great Society effort saw the passage of the Economic Development Administration (which provided grants to economically distressed communities), the creation of HUD (the Housing & Urban Development agency), the Model Cities Program (a federal urban aid and anti-poverty program), and the 1968 Fair Housing Act which prohibited discrimination concerning the sale, rental, and financing of housing based on race, religion, or national origin.

**1974 – Section 8 Housing, CDBG**

Following President Johnson’s Great Society programs, federal government efforts continued to help evolve national housing and urban redevelopment planning. Many of these programs will be discussed in more details in other modules, but just to mention a few more federal programs:

- 1974 saw the passage of both the Section 8 Housing program that became the federal government’s main low-income assistance program, and the Community Development Block Grant (CDBG) program that allowed communities more flexibility in their use of federal grants.
- The National Affordable housing Act was passed in 1990, and established the HOME program to assist states and local governments in providing additional low-income housing.
- The federal Empowerment Zone/Enterprise Community program was created in 1993 to encourage redevelopment efforts in economically distressed urban and rural areas.
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice (Lesson 1)

- The 2008 Neighborhood Stabilization Program was passed in reaction to increasing national foreclosures, and provided grants to states and local governments to purchase and redevelop foreclosed and abandoned homes and residential properties.
- As the global recession continued the next year, the federal response was the passage of an American Recovery & Reinvestment Act (aka Stimulus), whose primary objective is to create jobs and, secondarily, to nationally invest in infrastructure, education, health, and renewable energy.

MORE NATIONAL PLANNING AREAS

MORE NATIONAL PLANNING AREAS: Federal planning roles cover a myriad of other areas as can be seen by the listing of a few more examples here. Just to cite a few, among the national acts and related issues that may appear on the exam are aspects of the:

- 1966 National Historic Preservation Act
- 1990 Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA)
- Telecommunications Act of 1996
- Religious Land Use and Institutionalized Persons Act (RLUIPA) of 2000
- National Parks & Statewide Comprehensive Outdoor Recreational Plans (SCORP)
- 2005 Defense Base Closure and Realignment (BRAC) & military base land use compatibility
- The exemption of certain Tribal lands from state & local regulations
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice

Lesson 2

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LESSON 2: Planning for multi-state regions

WATER PLANNING

LESSON 2: PLANNING FOR MULTI-STATE REGIONS. WATER PLANNING: Planning at the multi-state level is generally dictated by the need to address multi-state issues associated with geography, whether due to physical features like shared watersheds, common urbanized areas, or a shared history and heritage.

One of the most common multi-state planning issues involves the addressing of shared water issues, often requiring the involvement of multiple states and the federal government. A few examples are listed here:

- The Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) was sponsored in 1933 during Roosevelt’s New Deal by Senator Norris of Nebraska to provide flood control, navigation, power generation, and economic development in the Tennessee Valley, a region particularly hard hit during the Great Depression. Today, it serves the states of Tennessee, Alabama, Mississippi, Kentucky, and small areas of Georgia, North Carolina, and Virginia.

- The Hoover Dam is built on the Colorado River and lies on the border between Arizona and Nevada. The dam provides municipal and irrigation water throughout the region, helps control regional flooding, and produces hydroelectric power for a three state area.

- The Tahoe Regional Planning Agency was formed in 1969 through a bi-state compact between California and Nevada, subsequently ratified by Congress. The Tahoe RPA protects Lake Tahoe and its basin through land-use regulations and a capital improvements program.

- The 1983 Chesapeake Bay agreement was signed by the states of Maryland, Pennsylvania and Virginia, the District of Columbia, EPA, and by the Chesapeake Bay Commission to mutually address and plan for the pollution affecting the Chesapeake Bay watershed. Since then, the headwater states of Delaware, New York and West Virginia have signed on to the agreement.

- The Tri-State Water War is the name given to the decades long water allocation disputes between Alabama, Florida and Georgia over two major river basins that cross their borders (i.e. the Apalachicola-Chattahoochee-Flint River Basin and the Alabama-Coosa-Tallapoosa River Basin). The disputes involve conflicting water demands to meet water supply in Georgia (i.e. Atlanta) versus the natural system, fisheries and power needs in Florida and Alabama. The dispute represents a failure in coordination and planning at the multi-state level, with the parties continually attempting to address individual state concerns through the legal system rather than through collaboration and mutual planning.

- The 2008 Great Lakes-St. Lawrence River Basin Water Resources Compact is an interstate compact between the states of Illinois, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, New York, Ohio,
Pennsylvania and Wisconsin to manage the use of the Great Lakes Basin's water supply. The compact is part of a larger international agreement that addresses the region’s water resource management with the Canadian provinces of Ontario and Quebec.

TOURISM & ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT

TOURISM & ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT: Multi-state planning for tourism is typically oriented around a commonly shared history or heritage, such as the Civil War or historic New England. Multi-state planning for economic development is likewise based on similarly shared regional economic factors, such as particular industries or common economic challenges.

A few examples:

- The Appalachian Regional Commission is a federal, state and local government partnership initially formed in 1963 to create economic development in Appalachia in order to increase job opportunities, build regional infrastructure, and raise per capita income in Appalachia to parity with the rest of the nation. It includes 420 counties, 13 states and 8 independent cities, and is essentially a planning, research, advocacy and funding organization.

- The Delta Regional Authority is a similarly formed federal-state partnership established by Congress in 2000 to enhance economic development in the Mississippi Delta region. It includes 252 counties and parishes across eight states from southern Illinois to Mississippi in the most distressed areas of the country.

- The Multi-State Regional Tourism Entrepreneurship Project is a 2012 effort to help stimulate tourism-related businesses in the four state region east of Yellowstone National Park to the Black Hills and Badlands of South Dakota. The Project is funded with private, state and national economic development funds and is guided by the four states, EDA & Tribal representatives.

COMMUTING & TRANSPORTING

COMMUTING & TRANSPORTING: The need for multi-state planning to adequately address cross-state commuting patterns is obvious today, but it was actually a New Jersey-New York legal fight over rail freight that resulted in the 1921 interstate compact that established the first interstate port authority in the U.S., the Port Authority of New York and New Jersey. Besides operating many of the regional seaports, the Port Authority operates Hudson River crossings, a bus terminal, rail system and several airports, including JFK and LaGuardia. The Port Authority also owns the World Trade Center site that was attacked on 9-11.

Similar multi-state transportation authorities also operate in the greater Boston and New York City areas, and in the Washington D.C., Virginia, Maryland area.

An example of multi-state coordination on transport issues is the 1981 Multi-State Highway Transportation Agreement involving ten western states. This agreement addresses interstate coordination on a variety of highway-related issues including uniform truck operation standards, inter-modal transportation network development, air quality compliance, highway safety, and regional trade.
LES SSON 3: Planning for states

FEDERALISM & STATES’ RIGHTS

LESSON 3: PLANNING FOR STATES. FEDERALISM & STATES RIGHTS: State planning power arises from the Constitution and the States’ ability to make laws based upon their implied general “police powers”, conveyed by the 10th amendment’s states’ rights provision, which the federal government does not possess. However, under the Constitution’s federal supremacy clause, federal lands, and federal development on federal lands, are exempt from state taxation and regulation. This also applies to most tribal lands that are either part of a formal reservation or are lands held in “Trust” by the federal government for a recognized Tribe. One exception is where Congress passes a law that allows certain federal lands or developments to be subject to state or local regulation. One such federal law is the Coastal Zone Management Act, which requires federal projects and activities, through federal consistency review, to be in essence subject to specific agreed upon state laws and regulations in exchange for the state’s adoption of an approved Coastal Zone Management program.

Federal law may also “preempt” from state and local regulation a specific type of land use or development that is subject to the federal supremacy clause. An example is the local regulation of electromagnetic radiation from telecommunications, which is preempted under the Telecommunications Act of 1996 if the equipment complies with FCC standards.

Local governments are “creatures” of state government, and only possess those powers delegated to them by the state. In 1868, Judge John Forrest Dillon best summarized this in ruling that municipalities were treated as subordinate instruments of the state and were authorized to perform only those functions specifically permitted by state legislation. These are called “Dillon’s Rule” states. “Home Rule” states, allow their local governments to adopt any regulations provided that the regulation is: 1) not in conflict with a state or federal law and/or 2) is not preempted by state or federal law.

SIMILAR STATE-NATIONAL PLANNING

SIMILAR STATE-NATIONAL PLANNING. State governments share many planning concerns in common with the federal government, especially in such areas as transportation, environmental protection, housing and emergency management. However, state planning and regulation requirements address their individual state interests (e.g. State Roads), and may (or may not) be more restrictive, more specific or more encompassing than federal requirements.

For example, state wetland planning and regulations may address vernal ponds, prairie potholes, or other temporary wetlands, whereas national permitting standards do not due to their Clean Water Act’s legal authority to address only “navigable waters”.

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The Disaster Mitigation Act of 2000 requires State, Tribal, and local governments to develop hazard mitigation plan as a condition for receiving non-emergency disaster grants from the federal governments. The hazard mitigation plans must be reviewed and approved by FEMA and address:

- Potential natural hazards (and voluntarily, human-induced hazards)
- Assess the risks from those hazards
- Set community goals and actions to reach those goals

**UNIQUE STATE PLANNING ROLES**

UNIQUE STATE PLANNING ROLES: Planning at the State level includes many roles that are more unique to the states, than to the federal government. Foremost among these planning roles are the zoning and growth management enabling statutes that states have passed under their inherent “police powers”. These can be zoning enabling laws for local governments or enable state zoning, like Hawaii, or even mandated growth management programs for all or a portion of the state (e.g. Florida – statewide; Washington – western portion of the state). Additionally, states may enable regulations on a wide variety of related areas, such as building codes, subdivision regulations, local taxes, or, alternatively, preempt their local governments from planning/regulating specific areas like the transport or withdrawal of water (Florida) or local adequate public facilities regulation (Virginia).

Other traditional state planning roles include those associated with floodplain management and regulation, and statewide health regulations, such as those addressing the proper installation of septic tanks. At least 25 states have initiated State Food Policy Councils addressing a wide variety of statewide food-related issues, such as concerns about food deserts, obesity rates among children, the loss of prime agricultural lands, a dwindling farmer population, or environmental problems such as soil erosion and water contamination.

Thirty-four states have approved voluntary coastal zone management (CZM) programs that address coastal issues, such as coastal development, water quality, public beach access, habitat protection, energy facility siting, ocean governance and planning, coastal hazards, and climate change. A much newer federal-state coastal initiative, boosted by a 2010 executive order from President Obama, is the state to multi-state collaboration on Marine Spatial Planning, which NOAA defines as involving “the study of offshore waters and the drawing of plans for their use for purposes including protecting sensitive environmental habitats, fostering alternative energy uses, and avoiding user conflicts in offshore waters”.

Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice (Lesson 3)
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice
Lesson 4

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LESSON 4: Planning for sub-state regions

LESSON 4: PLANNING FOR SUBSTATE REGIONS. Planning at the sub-state level is often referred to as “Regional Planning”, although that term is sometimes confusingly used among planners to also refer to multi-state areas. For the purposes of this lesson, we’re equating the use of the term “regional” with sub-state areas. In that sense, much like multi-state areas, a sub-state region may be defined by its common geography, economic connections, transportation or shared cultural heritage. In the sub-state sense, regional planning addresses planning for an area larger than an individual city, county or parish, but smaller than a state.

The roots of regional planning are many, but are usually associated with the Scottish biologist Patrick Geddes, considered the “Father of Regional Planning”. Geddes introduced the concept of "region" to architecture and planning, and this 1915 book “Cities in Evolution” established his concept of the city as an instrument of evolution, and began his promotion of regional planning. In addition, his earlier work addressing the natural patterns of landscapes and man’s activities along those patterns (i.e. the “Valley Section”) foreshadowed today’s Transect Zoning concept popularized by Andres Duany and others.

Lewis Mumford was an early American disciple of Geddes and, together with Clarence Stein and others, founded the Regional Planning Association of America in 1923. He was involved with the 1920’s publication of the Regional Plan for New York and Environos, which laid out regional proposals for transportation, land use, and public facilities around metropolitan New York City. In his 1938 book Culture of Cities, Mumford acknowledged Geddes’ influence on the development of American regional planning.

Two subsequent federal actions that help promote sub-state regional planning in the U.S. were the 1962 Federal-Aid Highway Act that required the creation of regional MPOs, and the Office of Management and Budget's (OMB’s) 1968 issuance of Circular A-95 criteria that required regional clearinghouse reviews on federal projects. Both helped create the need for regional planning agencies throughout the country.

REGIONAL PLANNING AGENCIES

REGIONAL PLANNING AGENCIES: A variety of regional planning agencies exist in the U.S. Some are voluntary associations of local governments, such as a voluntary Council of Governments; others are mandated by federal or state legislation, such as MPOs or Florida’s eleven regional planning councils that review required local government comprehensive plans and plan amendments for consistency with their adopted Strategic Regional Policy plans.

Regardless of how formed, regional planning agencies play a multiple of planning roles, including intergovernmental coordination, collaboration and the provision of technical assistance on issues that cut
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice (Lesson 4)

across jurisdictional boundaries. They also prepare regional plans, assist in grant preparation, as well as carry out legislatively mandated roles like those played by MPOs for transportation.

SPECIAL DISTRICTS

Special Districts are usually independent units of local government, typically created by referendum, legislation or court action, that are created to perform specific governmental functions. These governmental roles can run the gamut from planning and operating transportation facilities (i.e. airports, water ports, highways, mass transit, parking facilities) to providing services (fire protection, libraries, cemeteries, hospitals, irrigation/water supply, power, sewage & solid waste management) to constructing recreation facilities or ensuring environmental protection (stadiums, parks, conservation).

Special district are usually separately run from local governments, often with their own funding or taxing authority, and in extreme cases, can even be provided with the legal authority to independently function as their own local government (e.g. Reedy Creek Improvement District, which is Disney World). It is estimated that there are more than 39,000 independent special districts in the U.S.

I retired from an independent special district, the South Florida Water Management District, several years ago. It was legislatively created, has a Governor’s appointed Governing Board overseeing its operations, has its own ad valorem taxing authority, has over 1,600 employees, and a geographic area that runs from Orlando to the Florida Keys. It is responsible for the scientific study, planning, permitting, management and protection of water resources within its boundaries in the areas of water quality, regional water supply, flood protection and natural resource management, including Everglades restoration. The agency produces a wide variety of plans, such as an annual strategic plan, 20-year regional water supply plans, 50-year flood control operational plans, and numerous watershed protection plans, plus a statutory review role in the state’s growth management laws. This special district works with local governments, other special districts (such as drainage districts), regional planning councils, state agencies and federal agencies such as the Army Corps of Engineers, EPA and the National Park Service.

AREA-BASED REGIONAL PLANNING

AREA-BASED REGIONAL PLANNING: Examples of significant planning for area-based, sub-state regions are prevalent across the U.S. Just to mention a few additional well-known examples: the New York Adirondacks, the North Carolina Outer Banks, Cape Cod, the New Jersey Pinelands, and the California Coastal area.

ISSUE-BASED REGIONAL PLANNING

ISSUE-BASED REGIONAL PLANNING: Sub-state regional planning also addresses specific issues that are important to a particular region. Some examples:

- Economic Development - Silicon Valley
- Air Quality - South East Coast Air Quality Management District (LA multi-co commuting area)
- Tourism – New York Finger Lakes region, California Wine Country
- Transportation - San Francisco Regional Transportation Plan
- Climate Change - Southeast Florida Regional Climate Action Plan
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice
Lesson 5

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LESSON 5: Planning at county level

COUNTY vs. MUNICIPAL PLANNING

LESSON 5: PLANNING AT THE COUNTY LEVEL. County governments (known as a parish in Louisiana and a borough in Alaska) usually have state delegated powers, and therefore often provide services and planning in parallel with municipalities. However, in very rural areas without municipalities, a county planning department may be all that exists. Other jurisdictions have consolidated municipal-county forms of government (e.g. Indianapolis, Louisville, and Philadelphia), while others have joint municipal-county planning departments. In some jurisdictions, counties have more limited powers than municipalities, or the municipalities themselves are legally independent of, and not within, any county.

Counties and their municipalities typically coordinate and cooperate on a daily basis on a wide variety of planning and development issues such as transportation planning. Generally, the most contentious planning issue that involves both a county and its municipalities is that of municipal boundary changes (i.e. annexations). We’ll cover this a little more in Lesson 6 addressing “Planning for urban areas”.

COUNTY PLANNING

COUNTY PLANNING: Depending on the locale and individual state laws (remember, counties are a “creature” of state governments), counties often engage in the local implementation of zoning and land use planning, especially for their agricultural and natural lands. Counties also engage in the planning for emergency management (e.g. FEMA approved “hazard mitigation plans”), parks and recreation, county roads, utilities (i.e. if they have any), environmental protection, and public health.

Counties that are primarily rural typically have very limited planning and regulatory staff. The focus of planning in such rural counties may most often focus on rural economic development, natural system protection, and support and protection of their ongoing agricultural industry. Some of the tools that may be used for natural system and agricultural protection include Transfer of Development Rights (TDR) programs, Purchase of Development Rights (PDR) programs, Land Trusts, Conservation Easements, Cluster Zoning, Large Lot Zoning, Down Zoning, Agricultural Zoning, and Urban Growth Boundaries. Counties are also involved with watershed planning, and are increasingly finding that their land use and watershed planning needs to address the federal mandate concerning TMDLs (or Total Maximum Daily Loads) that establish the maximum pollution loading that a water body can receive from a watershed without being adversely affected.

Counties that are more urban in nature, may focus on many of the same planning issues as their municipalities and, depending on locale, may even have planning and regulatory staff (and services) far exceeding the size and technical capabilities of any of their individual municipalities. In such urbanized locales, a county may be providing services (and the associated planning for) specific municipal areas.
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice

Lesson 6

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LESSON 6: Planning for urban areas

RELATIONSHIPS

LESSON 6: PLANNING FOR URBAN AREAS. RELATIONSHIPS: Urban areas may be defined by population (e.g. by Census Metropolitan Statistical Area) or by political boundaries. Regardless of how defined, urban areas have a multitude of intergovernmental connections with federal agencies, their own state government, any regional agencies, their own county (if in one) and nearby municipalities. For the purpose of this Lesson, we’re basically equating an urban area with an urbanized municipality. Like counties, municipalities are “creatures of the state”, having only those powers allowed to it, whether in a Home Rule or Dillon’s Rule state. Additionally, like counties, municipalities may be preempted in some of those powers by either the federal or state government, or in some instances, by even their own county. Also like counties, municipal planning may be directed by federal or state grants, funding or legal mandates.

As previously mentioned, perhaps the most contentious planning issue that involves both counties and municipalities is that of annexations. Although annexations are often a municipal response to urbanization in neighboring areas, they can often involve rural, undeveloped areas, and be perceived by counties as being more about future municipal property taxes and county-versus-city utility and infrastructure provision in the annexed areas, rather than about the legitimate need for reasonable expansions of the urban area. Additional county concerns may be expressed over the annexation’s area potential for sprawl, the loss of agricultural lands to development, or new development’s impacts on the environment and rural quality of life. Depending on the specific state statutes controlling annexations in a particular state, annexations may require citizen referendums, be allowed voluntarily, or even be solely under the authority of the municipality.

URBAN CHALLENGE & OPPORTUNITY

URBAN CHALLENGES & OPPORTUNITIES: Urban areas can face major planning challenges to their future sustainability. Older municipalities may face significant aging of their infrastructure and increasing costs for their maintenance, and even higher costs for their replacement or retrofitting. Portions of the urban areas may have become blighted or crime-ridden, resulting in a discouragement of needed private economic investment into the urban area. Additionally, the municipality may be experiencing major demographic change, or a shrinking population base and housing abandonment due to suburban flight or the decline of a major economic industry. Such cities are often referred to as “Cities in Transition” (APA PAS Report 568) and come in four basic types:

1. LEGACY CITIES, such as Detroit or Buffalo, where the urban area is shrinking in population due to a decline of the historic manufacturing base they were built upon;
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2. GATEWAY CITIES, such as Springfield, MA, with an aging industrial base, but with an active role as a gateway city for new immigrants;

3. BOOM-BUST CITIES, such as sunbelt Phoenix or Las Vegas, where past overbuilding has been hit hard by the collapse of the housing bubble and resulting recession; and

4. FIRST SUBURBS, such as Cleveland’s Euclid, which have inherited the problems of the declining central cities they surround, but typically lack their viable retail centers or university and technological assets that could assist them in recovering economically.

Fast growing, popular or highly successful urban areas can experience significant affordable housing cost issues due to income disparities that may necessitate public subsidies, mandated requirements for affordable housing, or public policies addressing the provision of workforce housing.

Opportunities

The existence of challenges in urban areas can lead to innovative planning opportunities. Planners can play key roles in helping declining or rapidly growing metropolitan areas find their way to a better future, despite the negative or positive uncertainties involved. Visioning/reimagining can be powerful consensus-building planning tools to help discover a desired future for an urban community. Some of the techniques to implement that visioning can involve reuse or redevelopment of existing urban developed, even on a smaller scale. For example, the 1970 photo on this slide is of the first regional mall in Tallahassee, Florida, that underwent a decline in the early1980’s as larger, more upscale malls were opened and the downtown area revitalized. By 1989, the mall, with its abundant parking, had been converted into a state office complex housing four state agencies.

Let’s take a quick look at some of the types of planning that occurs in urban areas.

REDEVELOPMENT

REDEVELOPMENT: As mentioned, reuse, redevelopment and the retrofitting of infrastructure are all traditional land use methods utilized in urban planning. Redevelopment may involve “Grayfield” sites (i.e. a formerly developed site with existing infrastructure in place, but whose development is now considered obsolete) or potentially contaminated sites, known as “Brownfields”, for which federal funding (and liability relief) is available to incentivize their economic redevelopment. Local governments often create special districts, agencies or corporations to carry out redevelopment, such as Community Redevelopment or Downtown Development Authorities. Depending on their individual state enabling laws, redevelopment financing options for these urban districts, agencies and corporations vary widely. They may involve bonding, special district assessments for redevelopment, federal grants, utility revenues, or Tax Increment Financing (TIF) which allows the use of some portion of the additional property taxes created by new development for projects and infrastructure within the designated area, or to pay back the bonding used for that redevelopment.

Likewise, local businesses may agree to voluntarily create their own special assessments on the businesses within an urban area, generally known as a Business Improvement District (BID), to help pay for common business services, or minor redevelopment.
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A federal program that is also used for the revitalization of distressed urban areas is the Empowerment Zone/Enterprise Communities/Renewal Communities program. This federal-state-municipal partnership program, created in 1993, but currently expiring at the end of 2013, targets highly economically distressed urban and rural areas, initially with grants, and subsequently with “tax incentives for businesses to locate and hire residents in urban and rural areas that have not experienced recent economic expansion”. There are currently around 58 urban areas designated in the program, all with populations less than 200,000.

“URBANISMS”

URBANISMS: Urban planning and urban design have utilized many differing philosophies. Today, the “isms” of urbanism are many, further popularized by the use of the term “New Urbanism”, by Duany, Plater-Zyberk, Calthorpe and others in the Congress for the New Urbanism (CNU). Just to briefly touch on a very few of the “urbanisms” being discussed in planning today:

1. New Urbanism promotes neo-traditional design of walkable communities, with a mix of housing types and other uses and incorporating the principles of transit oriented development (TOD). Early implementation of New Urbanism principles sometimes involved more greenfield-based, suburban style developments such as Seaside and Celebration, rather than true urban development. However, the recent development of urban form-based codes such as Miami-21 is helping to effectively translate the principles of New Urbanism, as well as Smart Growth, into urban zoning codes.

2. Agricultural Urbanism involves the integration of locally grown food and agriculture into cities, with the understanding that food production needs to be planned for as a system integrally related to urban development patterns. This planning may address provisions for urban community gardens, green garden roofs, farmer’s markets, food trucks and other strategies for increasing food access and eliminating food deserts.

3. Landscape Urbanism is often discussed as the concept of replacing architecture with landscaping as the fundamental basis for urban design.

4. Green Urbanism focuses on planning for (and minimizing) urban development’s energy, water and materials use at every stage of development, from their extraction, transport, and efficiency of use to their ultimate recycling.

5. Pop-Up Urbanism or “Temporary” or “Tactical” urbanism as it is sometimes called, is the creation of inexpensive ephemeral urban projects for food, entertainment, art, retail sales, sports, gardens, reimagining or other human activities.

TRANSPORTATION

TRANSPOTATION: Urban planning to address transportation aspects of urban life is one of the more traditional forms of planning for modern planners. For many urban areas, a major aspect of that planning centers around congestion management through the use of demand reduction, operational management strategies, and the planning of new facilities and alternative modes of travel to help alleviate that congestion.

To do this, urban planners are typically involved with mass transit issues, such as public subsidies, ridership issues and interconnections between various modes of travel (e.g. between bus and light rail),
extensions of mass transit to suburban commuting areas, or planning for other modes of travel such as the creation of elderly ride programs, bike lanes, bike sharing programs or European style “Woonerfs” where pedestrians and bicycles have a legal priority over motorists.

Many of these concepts are included in the design philosophy of “Complete Streets”, which advocates the planning, designing, operation, and maintenance of urban streets to ensure safe, healthy, convenient and comfortable travel and access for all users of all ages, disabilities and economic status, regardless of their individual mode of travel. This can result in demand reductions, air quality improvements, better community health, and a revitalized local economy.

In his 2005 book “The High Price of Free Parking”, Donald Shoup discusses how the oversupply of free or low cost parking in urban areas can be an impediment to mass transit and other modes of travel. One of his proposals is for employer created “cash-out parking” programs that offer workers cash in lieu of a free parking space as an incentive to utilize mass transit, other modes of travel or ride-sharing, thereby resulting in demand reduction.

**OTHER URBAN PLANNING ISSUES**

OTHER URBAN PLANNING ISSUES: Planning at the urban level also includes traditional planning issues like emergency management, utility planning, affordable housing and historic preservation that are covered elsewhere in more detail in these modules, and cross a number of spatial planning levels. However, there are other issues like aspects of public safety that involve planning more typically associated with urban areas. One of these is the concept of CPTED or Crime Prevention Through Environmental Design, which is implemented almost solely in urbanized and built environments, particularly in residential areas.

Two other related planning concerns unique to major urban areas are urban canyons and their contribution to urban heat island effects. Urban canyons are created in high rise urbanized areas like Manhattan and Chicago’s Loop, depending on solar orientation and other factors. The high rises can retain more heat during the day than less elevated, less confined development, thus creating a higher heat release at night and contributing, along with other urban impervious surfaces, to an urban “heat island effect” where the urban area may experience nighttime temperatures from a few degrees to as much as 22 degrees Fahrenheit higher than nearby rural areas (see graphic). Urban heat island effects can lead to modified temperature, wind, precipitation, and air quality patterns, even local climate change, as well as creating increased energy, and adverse health and environmental impacts.

Some of the planning considerations used to reduce the heat island effect include increasing landscaping and green infrastructure to elevate evapotranspirative cooling, the use of cool roofs and cool pavements, and the implementation of better urban geometry for new high-rise buildings to maximize their “sky view factor” and allow the increased release of long-wave radiation to the cooler, open sky, thereby reducing the amount of trapped heat that contributes to the urban heat island.

This concludes my training portion of the Spatial Areas of Practice module, and Alexis Williams will now cover the remaining Lessons. Please remember to also utilize this Module’s handouts and links to further prepare in more depth on the Spatial Area topics I’ve covered. And Good Luck on the exam!
Lesson 7: Planning for suburban areas

- **Overview**
  - A suburb is a low-density, outlying residential area of a city

- **History**
  - Post World War II migration to suburbs
    - Example: Levittown
  - Zoning
  - Influence of the automobile
  - Suburbs became “bedroom communities” to urban areas

Narrative:
A suburb is the outlying residential area of a city or urban area. Suburbs are within commuting distance of the city and have a lower population density. Suburbs in the United States are primarily characterized by single-family, detached homes.

Suburbs emerged in the U.S. in the years following World War II as returning veterans moved outside of the cities to build homes and settle down and start families. Federal support of the expansion of the highway system was a critical support of this growth pattern. A well-known post-WWII suburb is Levittown. Levittown is the name of four suburban developments created in the U.S. by Williams Levitt and his company Levitt & sons. The Levittown communities were built as planned communities featuring similar houses that were built quickly.

Public health officials recommended the suburbs due to perceived pollution in the cities. Zoning laws also encouraged growth outside of the city by creating separate zones for residential and commercial development. Also as vehicle ownership became widespread and road and rail transport improved, this led to more commuters. This gave rise to the term “bedroom community” which means that workers left cities at night to return to their homes in the suburbs to sleep. In the older cities in the Northeast United States, streetcar suburbs developed along train and trolley lines to transport workers to and from jobs in the cities.

- **Inner Ring (first ring) Suburbs**
  - Closest to city
  - Oldest suburbs
- **Outer ring (second ring) Suburbs**
  - Cul-de-sac development
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice (Lesson 7)

- **Outermost ring and Exurbs**
  - Rapid growth

Narrative:

Suburbs have grown outward from the central city. A way of looking at them is to think of growth of rings on a tree. Inner ring or first ring suburbs is a term for the suburban communities located closest to the city. These were established first, most before WWII, and often along trolley lines. These suburbs are more populated/compact, the infrastructure is older, there is often better access to transit and people living here typically have shorter commutes than the outer ring or second ring suburbs. Outer ring suburbs are further out than the inner ring ones and grew following WWII. These suburbs are low density and can be defined by cul-de-sac development. There is a third ring suburb farthest out that developed during the 1990s and today. It is low-density area of rapid growth characterized by lower housing costs but typically long commutes.

- **Suburban Sprawl**
  - Auto-oriented, low-density development
  - Segregated land uses
  - Development of greenfield sites on edge of metro area
    - Loss of natural forests, fields, and farmland

Narrative:

A term synonymous with suburbs is “sprawl.” Sprawl is the unplanned spreading of urban development into the areas adjoining a city and neighboring regions. Land uses are often segregated and therefore communities are not walkable and become auto-dependent. Sprawl is lower density than cities as the suburban community uses more land to supply the same given population. Sprawl results in the loss of natural forests, fields and other rural areas as greenfield sites on the edge of a metro area are developed. With time it has become apparent that the suburban pattern of the second half of the 1900s was largely suburban sprawl – auto-dependent and low-density – and it has negative impacts on natural resources, time spent commuting, and public health.

- **What other challenges are suburban areas facing?**
  - Loss of traditional community patterns
    - Lack of a “sense of place”
    - Lack of community amenities
    - Not walkable

Narrative:

Aside from the challenges created by sprawl, suburban areas face additional challenges, including the loss of traditional community patterns. A lot of residential development in the suburbs occurs through subdivisions where a developer builds a large, multiple-home development on a large plot of previously rural land. The homes and demographics of the subdivision are often homogenous, resulting in a lack of a
sense of place. Commercial development in suburban areas often consists of shopping malls or strip malls with large parking lots rather than walkable shopping districts found in urban areas. There is also often a limited number of parks, playgrounds, and other recreational areas, or access to those areas is auto-dependent. The lack of walkability in the built environment has negative impacts on public health, as physical activity isn’t built into the daily routine.

- What other challenges are suburban areas facing?
  - Aging population
    - Provision of services
    - Aging in place
  - Aging infrastructure
    - Housing stock
    - Commercial development
    - Roads and local streets
    - Storm and waste water infrastructure

Narrative:

Suburban communities face challenges associated with an aging population. Seniors face challenges with mobility and access to affordable and convenient health and human services. Many adults are preferring to “Age in place” which means remain in their personal home as long as possible. Home retrofitting is an option to provide for aging in place through home modifications such as entry and exit ramps, home elevators, and additional lighting. Local government actions can support senior programs and improve transportation options to help provide for this demographic.

Older suburban communities have also experienced economic challenges associated with aging infrastructure. First ring suburbs, although closest in proximity to urban centers, have older infrastructure and housing stock. They have lost population to newer development further from a city’s center, resulting in an increased vacancy rate and a decline in property tax revenue.

It is important to make improvements to a community’s aging infrastructure such as streets, curbs, gutters, and storm drains to keeping it updated and to make communities attractive to new residents and businesses while retaining existing residents and business. This is however difficult for many communities with small municipal budgets and a limited tax base.

- What other challenges are suburban areas facing?
  - Access to jobs and services
    - Long commutes
    - Travel for basic services
  - Traffic congestion
    - Automobile crashes
    - Pedestrian and bicyclist injuries
    - Air pollution
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice (Lesson 7)

Narrative:

Residents of suburban areas often have long travel times to work and have to drive to access basic services such as shopping and health care. Roadways in suburbs are designed in a hierarchy rather than a grid pattern. This means that traffic from neighborhoods and subdivisions is forced onto a limited number of collector roads. If there is construction or an accident on one of the collector roads, the flow of traffic becomes even more inhibited. There are often limited public transit opportunities for suburban residents.

Suburban development is often not conducive to bicyclists or pedestrians because the necessary facilities haven’t been incorporated into development projects or roadway improvements. The lack of, or limited connectivity of crosswalks, sidewalks, and bike lanes or trails don’t promote walking or biking, and can lead to unnecessary pedestrian and bicyclist injuries.

- **Edge Cities**
  - More jobs than bedrooms
  - Located in a previously rural or residential area outside of a city’s downtown
  - *Edge City: Life on the New Frontier (1991, Joel Garreau)*

Narrative:

I wanted to also mention another type of suburban development here, edge cities. Edge cities are areas of a concentration of commercial and retail in a previously rural or residential area located outside of a city’s downtown. I.E. more jobs than bedrooms. Edge cities are the opposite of bedroom suburbs in that people commute into it in the morning and away in the evening.

The term Edge City became well-known from the book Edge City: Life on the New Frontier by Joel Garreau.

- **Edge Cities as defined in *Edge City: Life on the New Frontier (1991, Joel Garreau)***
  - "Has five million or more square feet (465,000 m²) of leasable office space."
  - "Has 600,000 square feet (56,000 m²) or more of leasable retail space."
  - "Has more jobs than bedrooms."
  - "Is perceived by the population as one place."
  - "Was nothing like a "city" as recently as 30 years ago. Then it was just bedrooms, if not cow pastures."

- **Example Edge City: Tyson’s Corner, VA**

Narrative:

According to Garreau, there are five characteristics of Edge Cities as noted here.

An example of an edge city is Tyson’s Corner, Virginia which is an unincorporated census-designated place and part of the Washington Metro Area. Tyson’s Corner is home to a large shopping mall and two other large shopping centers as well as a large concentration of office buildings.
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice (Lesson 7)

- **Edgeless Cities**
  - Cluster of low density office development
    - <5 million square feet
    - No clear boundaries
    - Not pedestrian friendly
    - Not mixed
  - *Edgeless Cities: Exploring the Elusive Metropolis* (2003, Robert Lang)
  - Example: Philadelphia, PA

Narrative:

In addition, edgeless cities are another type of suburban development and associated with sprawl. The term Edgeless City became well-known from the book *Edgeless Cities: Exploring the Elusive Metropolis* by Robert Lang. An edgeless city is identified as a cluster of low density, office development containing less than 5 million square feet of office space (as compared to an "edge city," which has recognized boundaries and contains at least 5 million square feet of office space). They are not pedestrian friendly and generally not accessible by transit. They are also not mixed use so opportunities for retrofitting them are limited. An example of an edgeless city identified in Lang’s book is Philadelphia, Pennsylvania.

- **Suburban retrofit opportunities**
  - Transit programs
  - Transit Oriented Development (TOD) retrofit initiatives
    - Higher-density, mixed use development centered around transit stops

Narrative:

There are opportunities to retrofit our suburbs to retain existing population and industries and encourage new residents and businesses. While suburbs are typically auto-oriented, planners should work to provide access to transit and develop and maintain regional transit systems. Transit options help reduce travel times for commuters and reduce congestion and air pollution. Complete streets is one concept that promotes making existing roadways more accommodating to a mix of users, rather than favoring auto use.

Transit-oriented development (TOD) is a tool that can encourage more compact development and walkable communities in suburban areas. TOD is the development of higher-density, mixed use areas near transit stops. A TOD neighborhood typically centers around a transit stop and is surrounded by relatively high-density development that decreases in density as distance increases. A one-quarter to one-half mile radius is generally considered an appropriate scale for pedestrians to walk to the transit stop. TOD can be accomplished in suburban areas through redevelopment of underutilized sites along transit routes.
Lesson 8: Planning for small towns

- Overview
  - Medium-density
  - Mix of uses
    - Jobs are often government, small businesses, farming, health care, or a single large employer
  - Diverse housing types
  - Often exhibit sidewalks, street trees, and on-street parking

- Small towns are not “scaled-down cities”

Narrative:

Small towns are often medium density. Housing types are diverse and small towns often exhibit a mix of uses. The jobs in small towns are often centered around government, small businesses, farming, health care, or a single large employer. Small towns are characterized by sidewalks, street trees, and on-street parking. While small towns may exhibit more of a mix of uses and be more walkable than a suburban area, they should not be thought of as scaled down cities.

- Small town planning challenges:
  - Limited infrastructure
    - Water and sewer systems
  - Access to jobs and services
  - Limited tax income
    - Municipal services (fire and police)
    - Waste management
    - Upkeep of public properties
    - Road condition
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice (Lesson 8)

Narrative:

Situations and concerns associated with small town planning can vary whether the small town population is growing or diminishing. Some challenges to small town planning are similar to those faced when planning for suburban areas, but have their own unique factors.

Small towns face include limited infrastructure. Many small towns have no community-wide water or sewer systems, or they are in need of improvement or expansion, which can be very costly. Homes may have individual wells and septic systems.

Well-paying jobs, economic development and keeping the young in small towns because of the lack of well-paying jobs is also an issue for small towns, where the main employer is likely to be government (e.g. schools, etc.) or a single large employer. People may choose to have very long commutes to work. Other working age residents may leave the town entirely causing a shift in demographics to older residents.

Small town residents may also have to travel significant distances to access needed supplies, shopping, to receive medical care (especially hospitalization), or to address governmental services (i.e. the county seat may be a long ways away, or the nearest social security office, etc).

In addition, a small tax base makes provision of sufficient municipal services such as fire and police; waste management; and upkeep of roads and communities facilities such as playgrounds a challenge. When planning for a small town, it is important to consider what is financially feasible given characteristics of such as a slowly increasing, or possibly decreasing, tax base.

- **Other small town planning challenges:**
  - Loss of farmland
  - Preservation of rural character and economy
  - Conflicts between agricultural and nonagricultural uses

Narrative:

Small towns that are experiencing growth, rather than contraction, faces issues similar to growing suburbs – impacts to farmland and loss of character.

Small town communities faced with growth need to choose a path forward carefully, protecting their natural resources and their community character, while ensuring that they can support the infrastructure needed for economic growth now and in the future. Appropriately locating growth is also critical. Mixing long established agricultural uses with newer residential uses can create conflicts as the noises and smells associated with farming could be considered a nuisance. For more information on “nuisance suits” please see the lessons in the Law Module.

- **Small town planning considerations**
  - Scale
  - Cohesion of landscape, buildings, and people
  - Intensity
Narrative:

When considering development in a small town, it is important to consider the scale, intensity, and cohesion of the development. The scale and intensity of a development is significant in understanding if it will “fit” the existing character. Think broadly in terms of population and area, and in detail in terms of building height, type of facade, parking, access, and other items.

Planners should also consider the harmony of the community’s landscape, buildings, and people. Small towns often have uniformity in the population (social and income) and business community (small, local services such as grocery stores or gas stations).

The pace of development in a small town may be slow so the impact of a single new development can be significant.

- **Rural/farmland preservation tools:**
  - **Agricultural Zoning**
    - Limit non-farm uses
    - Prohibit high-density development
    - Restrictions of subdivision of land
  - **Urban Growth Boundaries**
    - Promotes growth within the boundary and severely restricts growth outside

Narrative:

There are several planning tools to preserve rural areas and small towns.

Agricultural land can be conserved through effective agricultural zoning. Effective agricultural zoning, at its core, limits subdivision of agricultural lands and restricts development. Communities can use ag zoning to preserve their agricultural base and to protect farmland from incompatible nonfarm land uses. Effective ag zoning could include limiting non-farm uses, prohibiting high-density development, restricting subdivision of land into parcels that are too small for farming activity, and requiring buffers between properties.

Essentially an urban growth boundary is a line dividing land that may be developed from land that is to remain agricultural or rural. Urban growth boundaries work to ensure that existing infrastructure is best utilized and agricultural or forested lands are protected from development. Urban growth boundaries can promote development within the boundary by permitting higher density development, while heavily regulating growth and restricting access to public water and sewer beyond the boundary.

- **Rural/farmland preservation tools:**
  - **Transfer of Development Rights**
    - Sending and receiving zones
  - **Land Trusts**
  - **Conservation Easements**
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice (Lesson 8)

- **Down Zoning**
- **Cluster Zoning**
  - Concentration of buildings in a specific area

Narrative:

Additional rural/farmland preservation tools include: **Transfer of Development Rights** (or TDRs), which involves moving the development rights of a property where development should be discouraged to a location where development is encouraged. The area where development is discouraged is referred to as a sending zone, and has resources a community wants to preserve, which as farmland or critical natural resources. The area where development is encouraged is referred to as the receiving zone and has the infrastructure to support development. The total number of houses, or square footage of commercial or industrial development, built in the region does not decrease with TDR, it is just redistributed. Landowners in the restricted growth area who participate in the TDR program are compensated for their development rights.

A land trust is a nonprofit organization whose mission is to conserve land through conservation easements or purchases. A conservation easement is an agreement between a landowner and a land trust or government agency to permanently limit the type and density of land use to protect its conservation value. Landowners are compensated for the easement and can continue to use the land (such as continuing to farm it) and can sell it or pass it to future heirs; however, development is permanently restricted. Landowners often choose to receive compensation for the easement, but in some cases, easements may be donated.

Down zoning is the process of rezoning land to a usage that is less dense and less developed than its previous usage to conserve land, prevent sprawl, or retain the rural character of an area. It can limit development but can be controversial with landowners due to the decreased development options, which may translate to a decreased land value.

Cluster zoning is a type of regulation that allows buildings (typically residences) to be concentrated in specific areas to allow remaining areas to remain as undeveloped open space. Permitted density on the overall site is unchanged but lot size and setbacks are more flexible to allow for open space to encompass portions of the site reserved for agriculture, woodlands, or other critical natural resources.
Lesson 9: Corridors

- Overview
  - Area of land along a linear route (road, transit line, waterway)
  - Scale can vary
  - Can span multiple jurisdictions

Narrative:

A corridor is typically an area of land along a linear route such as a road or transit line. For example a commercial corridor may exist along a Main Street in a small town and may include businesses, civic uses (such as libraries and police stations), open space, streets, sidewalks, parking, and connections to adjacent residential areas and the surrounding community.

The scale of corridor planning varies. For example, a corridor may be a very large area, such as the area along Interstate 95 extending from Boston to Washington, D.C. Corridor planning most often involves several jurisdictions so it is important to involve all parties and stakeholders when planning.

- Corridor Planning Considerations:
  - Connectivity between development nodes and destinations
  - Compatible land uses
  - Consistency in design

Narrative:

There are many things that should be taken into consideration when doing corridor planning in the built environment. Physical connectivity between nodes is important to ensure safe access to and from destinations. In addition, wayfinding signage may also be necessary to direct people to certain destinations within the corridor.

While corridors may range in size, it is important not to have incompatible land uses in close proximity.

Design controls can be put in place to ensure consistency in design of facades, landscaped buffers, and plantings.
Corridor Planning Considerations

- Transportation Management
  - Access / demand management
  - Traffic safety and capacity
  - Freight
  - Multi-modal facilities / TOD
  - Parking
  - Pedestrian / bike accommodation

Narrative:

Since many corridor plans center around a roadway, transportation management is an important component. Corridor planning along a roadway should coordinate capital improvements and accessibility. Traffic flow should be managed, access points should be designed with safety and traffic flow in mind, and levels of service should be considered relative to roadway improvements or development proposals. Corridor planning may be specific to freight, and in that case should consider truck traffic routes, rail line potential, and port and airport connections.

One way to help manage and mitigate roadway congestion is through the inclusion of multi-modal facilities. This also helps reduce air pollution and provides people with transit alternatives. Transit oriented development is a development option that can encourage walkability and the use of the transit facilities, helping to improve movement within a corridor.

Location and availability of both on-street and off-street parking should be considered in a corridor, as well as regulations regarding shared or flexible parking and minimum parking requirements.

Corridors may be large but opportunities for pedestrians should be considered in planning. Sidewalks should be put in place wherever possible and practical. Bicycle facilities such as bike racks and bike lanes are also important.

Corridor Planning Considerations:

- Open space, natural features, and recreation
  - Parks, preserves, local and regional trails, golf courses
  - Provide connections between the corridor and open space/recreational areas

Narrative:

Corridor plans can also center on an open space of recreation feature such as a park or trail system or a river corridor. However, even in a commercial corridor, there should be an incorporation of open space and recreation opportunities. In addition, connections should be established between the corridor and nearby open space or recreational areas.
Lesson 10: Neighborhoods

- Overview
  1. Localized community within a larger city, town, or suburb
  2. Fosters face to face social interaction between residents

Narrative:

There is no universal way to define a neighborhood. They are generally considered localized communities. Neighborhoods foster social interaction between residents and create a sense of community. Neighborhoods often have a unique local character to set it apart from other neighborhoods, and cities are typically viewed by their own residents as a collection of unique neighborhoods.

- Neighborhood Unit Concept
  1. Developed by Clarence Perry
  2. Diagrammatic planning model for residential development in metropolitan areas

Narrative:

Within planning, the neighborhood unit concept was developed in part by Clarence Perry in a preliminary report in 1926 and elaborated on in a report published by Committee on the Regional Plan of New York and Its Environs in 1929. Perry’s Neighborhood Unit Theory was designed as a framework for planners to design self-contained neighborhoods within industrializing cities in the 1900’s. Examples of the utilization of Perry’s concept in neighborhood development include Lawrence Heights, Toronto, Tulsa, Okla., Southfield, Mich., Berkeley, Calif., Wichita, Kan., and Sunnyside, NY.

- Neighborhood Unit Concept, six principles:
  1. Major arterials and traffic routes should not pass through residential neighborhoods. Instead, these streets should provide the boundaries of the neighborhood.
  2. Interior street patterns should be designed and constructed through use of cul-de-sacs, curved layout and light duty surfacing so as to encourage a quiet, safe, low volume traffic movement and preservation of the residential atmosphere.
3. The population of the neighborhood should be that which is necessary to support its elementary school.

Narrative:

Perry’s neighborhood unit theory contains six basic principles as seen here and on the next slide. Note the 3rd bullet point which has to do with the population of a neighborhood necessary to support an elementary school. When Perry formulated his theory, this population was estimated at about 5,000 persons; current elementary school size standards probably would lower the figure to 3,000–4,000 persons.

- Neighborhood Unit Concept, six principles, cont’d:
  4. The neighborhood focal point should be the elementary school centrally located on a common or green, along with other institutions that have service areas coincident with the neighborhood boundaries.
  5. The radius of the neighborhood should be a maximum of one quarter mile, thus precluding a walk of more than that distance for any elementary school child.
  6. Shopping districts should be sited at the edge of the neighborhood, preferably at major street intersections.

Narrative:

These are the remaining neighborhood unit theory principles. Note that for #5 which has to do with the radius of ¼ mile for walking distance. Current practices of making larger individual lots, and proportionately lower population densities, have increased the "standard" neighborhood radius to one half mile.

- Neighborhoods defined by:
  1. History
  2. Geography
  3. Street boundaries
  4. Administrative boundaries
  5. Socio-economic factors
  6. Cultural factors

Narrative:

While Perry’s theory was the basis for neighborhood planning, actual neighborhoods don’t necessarily follow his six principles. There are many ways to define neighborhoods and determine neighborhood boundaries. Neighborhoods may be defined by:

History (old part of town), Geography/typography (the “valley” neighborhood), Street boundaries (may form physical boundaries), Administrative boundaries (such as census tracts), Socioeconomic factors or
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice (Lesson 10)

cultural traditions (such as identification of neighborhoods based upon the racial, religious, or national origin characteristics of its occupants)

Neighborhood attributes may include established organizations, schools, commercial activities, and recreational facilities. In addition to formal networks defined by established organizations, neighborhoods offer the potential for informal networks. The population of a neighborhood may be culturally and ethnically diverse or relatively homogeneous.

- **Neighborhood Planning Considerations:**
  1. Pedestrian scale and walkability
  2. Design / scale controls
  3. Place-making and preservation of traditional patterns of development
  4. Community services and infrastructure
  5. Access to jobs and services
  6. Recreational amenities
  7. Connectivity / integration with other neighborhoods

Narrative:

Neighborhood planning considerations include many factors. Neighborhoods should be scaled for pedestrians to promote social interaction. This can be done through design controls such as requiring sidewalks on both sides of the street and crosswalks. Design controls (such as façade requirements or maximum setbacks) can also be used to ensure that new/infill development is compatible with existing structures. This preserves the sense of place in the community.

Neighborhoods should also have adequate recreational amenities such as parks, trails, and greenspace as well as schools and community services. Connectivity to outside areas is also critical for jobs and services not available within a neighborhood.
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice

Lesson 11

Instructor’s Notes: In order to offer exam candidates the widest range of preparation tools and to accommodate various learning styles, this guide includes scripts or notes that instructors used while recording the instructional videos. Candidates should be aware that these unedited Instructor’s Notes are intended to complement videos, not replace them. To get the maximum instructional value from this guide, candidates should also watch the videos and read any accompanying resources.

Lesson 11: Waterfronts

- Overview
  - Land area bordering a body of water
  - Examples include the Baltimore Inner Harbor, San Francisco’s Fisherman’s Wharf, and Seattle’s Pike Place Market

Narrative:

A waterfront is the land area that borders a body of water such as a lake, river, or ocean. Waterfronts may be key economic areas if located within a town or city and home to industrial or commercial uses. Residential uses could also dominate a waterfront. Increasingly communities are working to restore public access to waterfront areas. Examples of intense waterfront development include the Inner Harbor of Baltimore, San Francisco’s Fisherman’s Wharf, and Pike Place Market in Seattle.

Diverse mix of uses

- Industry
- Commercial and retail development
- Residential
- Transportation nodes
- Recreation
- Water dependent uses

Narrative:

A waterfront generally features a variety of competing land uses and economic interests. These may include industrial production; commercial and retail development (i.e. hotels, shops, and restaurants); residential areas; transportation nodes; and recreational uses such as open space, beaches, and amusement parks. Also may include public infrastructure and institutional and educational structures.

Key uses in most waterfronts will include water dependent uses such as ports, commercial and sport fishing and marinas, or tourism-related development.
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice (Lesson 11)

- **Planning Considerations**
  - **Public access**
    - Access to many waterfronts cut off by highways, rail, or private development
    - Restore public access through redevelopment
  - **Tourism**
    - Land use impacts of tourism
    - Traffic management challenges
    - Management of seasonal economy
    - Preservation of historic character / natural features

Narrative:

Ensuring public access to a waterfront is vital. In many cities, major highways and train tracks were built along the waterfront because of the flat topography and to aid in the movement of freight from ports and waterfront industries. In doing so this cut off the public from the water body. However, today many communities are reinventing their waterfront with redevelopment.

Tourism can contribute significantly to a region’s economy. However, tourism can create negative impacts if not properly planned and managed. For instance, land uses geared toward tourism may neglect the needs of the local community. Tourism can also create traffic congestion during season peaks. If the economy of a town focuses too intensely on its waterfront attractions, it may suffer during an off-season or be upended through a single natural disaster. Finally, if proper controls are not in place, new development or redevelopment may conflict with the historic character or uses of a waterfront. For example, a waterfront dominated by commercial fishing may face development pressure from residential or tourism uses. An example of this is Key West, Florida. In the development process natural features such as dunes and wetlands may be lost.

- **Planning Considerations**
  - **Commercial Ports and Shipping**
  - **Environmental Quality**

Narrative:

Many cities arose along waterfronts as port cities and hubs for commercial shipping. Here unloading and loading of freight occurs as well as other uses such as ship building and repair or terminals for cruise ships. Additional detail on ports is contained in the Functional Module.

Historic industrial and shipping uses of waterfront areas have led to pollution and deterioration of the coastal environment. At the federal and state levels, and at times at the local level, regulations exist to address proposed impacts to waterways and wetlands. Many communities and non-profits have moved onto restoration projects, to restore functions lost through past impacts to waterways and wetlands.

- **Planning Considerations**
  - **Coastal hazard planning and mitigation**
Narrative:

Development along a waterfront increases the people and property subject to natural hazards such as flooding, storm surges, hurricanes, and landslides. In addition, there may be a risk from human-made hazards such as hazardous material spills or transportation accidents.

Waterfront planning should address the need to protect people, structures, and infrastructure from damage if the area is vulnerable to hazards. Hazard mitigation policies and programs have been put in place by FEMA, the Coastal Zone Management Act, and the National Flood Insurance Program to minimize loss of life and damages and encourage sustainable development through proper planning and mitigation techniques. Examples may include relocation, elevating homes and constructing sea walls.

Coastal hazard areas should have emergency management and evacuation plans in place so agencies can respond quickly to disasters and people can be mobilized to evacuate an area in a timely and safe manner when necessary.
Lesson 12: Historic districts or areas

- Overview
  - A group of buildings, properties, or sites that have been designated by an entity as historically or architecturally significant
- Districts versus structures
- First historic district – Charleston, South Carolina (1931)
- New Orleans established the Vieux Carré Commission in 1937 to maintain the French Quarter

Narrative:

Historic districts may be defined by architecture and cultural traditions. They are designated by certain national, state, and local entities (to be discussed further on next slides). Individual structures may also be designated as historic.

In 1931, Charleston, South Carolina, established the first historic district in the United States. The city did so by enacting an ordinance which designated an “Old and Historic” District administered by a Board of Architectural Review. Other early local historic districts include those in New Orleans, Louisiana, and Savannah, Georgia.

- National Register of Historic Places
  - Department of the Interior – National Park Service
  - National Historic Preservation Act of 1966
  - Significance
  - Limitations
    - National Register status does not ensure protection

Narrative:

The Department of the Interior, through the National Park Service, designates historic districts and individual structures and properties at the federal level. Federally-designated resources are included on the National Register of Historic Places which is a list of districts, sites, buildings, and structures designated as historic by the federal government. The national register was established under the National Historic Preservation Act of 1966. The act also established a process and criteria for designation of resources.
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice (Lesson 12)

A listing on the national register is an acknowledgement and an honorary status. Individual properties listed on the National Register or within a National Register District may qualify for certain tax incentives. National Register listed status offers some protections if the threat is from a project that is federally funded, a federal action, or requires a federal permit (the Section 106 process of the National Historic Preservation Act). Additional protection can occur through local ordinances (to be discussed later).

National Register listed status does not place restrictions on what a property owner may do with the property.

- **State Activity**
  - State Historic Preservation Offices (SHPO)
    - Established under National Historic Preservation Act of 1966
    - Administer various historic preservation programs
    - Vary by individual state on rules and regulations

Narrative:

The National Historic Preservation Act of 1966 requires all states to have a State Historic Preservation Office (SHPO), which administers a variety of historic preservation programs. This can include distributing various grant funding for preservation and carrying out educational programs.

- **Local Historic Regulation**
  - Certificates of Appropriateness
  - Historic preservation commissions

Narrative:

Municipalities can also implement historic preservation at the local level. The specific method and tool will vary state to state, depending on enabling legislation. Municipalities may regulate through a zoning ordinance overlay or an independent historic regulation.

Committees or commissions are often appointed to handle regulation of historic resources. Some are the decision-making body, while others are limited to an advisory role to the governing body. A Certificate of Appropriateness (COA) is often provided to a property owner once a project impacting a historic resource has been approved. Demolition approvals can often be controversial. Guidelines can be developed at the local level to improve compliance with historic preservation guidelines.
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice
Lesson 13

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Lesson 13: Downtowns

- Overview
  - Main business or commercial area of a city or town
  - Cultural or historic center of town or city
  - Central Business District (CBD)

Narrative:

A downtown is the core of a city or town and its main commercial or business area. It is often referred to as the Central Business District.

While the image of high-rise office buildings dominating a downtown, attributes of a downtown area may also include a network of streets, specialty shops, entertainment, public spaces, sidewalks and street trees, commercial and retail buildings, dwelling units, civic structures, building facades, landmarks, and public art.

- Need for Downtown Planning
  - Passage of time
  - Changing economic conditions
  - Major new development
  - Changes in transportation
  - Image problems

Narrative:

Downtown plans are often prompted by a passage in time as infrastructure needs, demographics, or the business make up of a downtown may change.

In addition, changing economic conditions can also have a direct impact on downtowns. During times of economic hardship, downtowns may lose businesses and retail to sites in the suburbs. This may lead to high vacancy rates and less diversity in retail tenants. Attraction of new businesses and retainment of existing businesses becomes difficult and an important part of downtown economic revitalization.

Major new development such as the construction of a casino or high-rise office tower may also spur the need for a downtown plan as it may create impacts on traffic, neighborhoods, etc.
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice (Lesson 13)

Additionally, changes in transportation such as creation of a bypass or the opening of a new transit station can impact a downtown.

Finally, plans and marketing may be necessary if a downtown develops an image problem such as a high-crime area.

- **Downtown Planning Process**
  - Physical
  - Socio-economic
  - Historic
  - Public Policy
  - Political / Organizational
  - Market analysis
  - Public Input

Narrative:

In performing downtown planning it is important to first understand the physical and socio-economic environment as well as the influence of the city’s history. Public policy and political and organizational changes may be necessary to spur economic revitalization or reshape a downtown’s image.

Next a market analysis should be conducted for the downtown district to determine business and real estate development opportunities and understand the trade area for the businesses. The market analysis should focus on the strengths of the downtown and its history.

Finally, local participation and input will add to the success of downtown revitalization through sharing of ideas and community buy-in of proposed changes.

- **Downtown Plan Elements**
  - Transportation and transit
  - Pedestrian orientation
  - Parking
  - Infill/Redevelopment
  - Adaptive reuse
  - Signage
  - Public Spaces / Public Art
  - Place-making
  - Infrastructure Needs
  - Events/Tourism
  - Street Trees
  - Street Cleaning
Presentation Narrative: Spatial Areas of Practice (Lesson 13)

Narrative:

There may be many components of a downtown plan including those listed here.

- **Downtown Organizations**
  - Business Improvement District (BID)
  - Downtown Development Authority
  - Parking Authority
  - Main Street Organization
  - Chambers of Commerce

Narrative:

There are many organizations that play critical roles in the function of downtowns. Business Improvement Districts (BID) are areas where businesses within the boundaries pay an additional tax. The money generated from the tax is then used to fund improvement projects within the district boundaries. BIDs may also provide additional services such as marketing, security, street sweeping.

A Downtown Development Authority (DDA) can also be responsible for improvements in the downtown area. It is a decision and policy-making body that is established to manage a downtown area. Depending on what authorities are granted to DDA’s under state law they may have the authority to use tax increment financing to finance public improvements; finance projects through loans, bonds, and grant funds; and acquire property. They also build public-private investment partnerships to foster downtown growth.

Parking Authorities not only manage off-street and/or on-street parking and build and operate parking lots and garages in a downtown, but can also promote traffic improvements.

Main Street Organizations can be officially-designated Main Street programs through the National Main Street Center, a subsidiary of the National Trust for Historic Preservation. Or they can be local programs part of an existing economic development, historic preservation or planning program. They are often grass-roots groups that leverage local assets such as history or community pride to spur revitalization. The Main Street organizations build partnerships among groups in the downtown and recruit volunteers to do promotion, design, and economic restructuring in the downtown.

Chambers of Commerce are local associations formed to promote and protect the interests of the business community. It can be thought of as a business network or group of businesses working to together to improve the local economic climate, and therefore the downtown as well.
Spatial Areas of Planning

Interrelatedness of the spatial areas of Planning
- Planning areas are not mutually exclusive
- Similar concerns are often shared
- Mutual collaboration is needed
- The larger the area, the more complicated the issues
- The smaller the area, the less in-house expertise

1. Planning at the National Level:
- Planning at the federal level happens through:
  - Grants and money
  - Legislation
  - Permits
  - Land ownership
  - Development
- Federal Transportation Planning
  - History
    - 1913 Lincoln Highway
    - 1956 Interstate Highway system
    - 1962 Federal Aid Highway
  - Funding
    - Cost share
    - TEA Acts and Map-21
  - State Transportation Planning
  - Guided by: Continuing, comprehensive and collaborative (3 C’s)
  - Required preparation of State Transportation Plan (STP) and State Implementation Plan (SIP) in coordination with Clean Air Act and other federal laws
  - Role of Metropolitan Planning Organizations (MPO’s)
    - Prepare Regional Transportation Plan (RTP) and Transportation Improvement Plan (TIP)
    - Required of metro areas greater than 50,000
    - Requires Community Advisory Committee (CAC) to prepare plans
- Other non-motorized planning
  - Ports
  - Airports
  - Rail
- Environmental Protection Planning
  - History
    - 1872-Founding of Yellowstone National Park
    - 1902-National Reclamation Act
- 1905 – Establishment of the National Forest Service
- 1930’s – US Soil Conservation Service established
- 1960’s- explosion of the environmental movement
  - Rachel Carson, *Silent Spring* – impact of DDT on birdlife
  - Santa Barbara oil spill
  - Cuyahoga River in Cleveland caught fire
- **Federal Environmental Laws**
  - 1969-National Environmental Policy Act (NEPA)
    - EIS
    - Council on Environmental Quality (CEQ) in the executive office
    - Environmental Protection Agency (EPA)
  - 1970 – Clean Air Act
    - Stationary (industrial) and non-stationary sources (vehicles)-relationship to transportation planning
    - Non-attainment area
  - 1972-Clean Water
    - Regulations for point (pipes) and non-point sources (water run-off) of water pollution
    - Requires states to establish standards that measure total maximum daily loads (TMDL) for water bodies
  - 1972 – Federal Insecticide Fungicide and Rodent Act (FIFRA)
  - 1973 –Endangered species act
  - 1974- Safe Drinking Water Act
    - National drinking standards
  - 1975-Energy Policy Conservation Act
    - Fuel economy standards
  - 1976-Resource Conservation Recovery Act
    - Hazards waste
  - 1976-Toxic Substance Control Act
    - Chemical hazards
  - 1980- CERCLA/ Superfund
    - Response to Love Canal
    - Major hazardous sites
  - 1986 SARA-amendment to Superfund
    - Clean-up requirements
  - 1986 – Emergency Planning and Right to Know Act
    - Information about toxic and hazardous
  - 1990 – Farm Bill
    - Wetland right to reserve act
  - 1994-Environmental Justice
    - Begin with NC TCB issue in an African American community
- Requires assessment of federal projects to ensure that minority communities do not experience a disproportionate share of the impacts

- Emergency Management & Homeland Security
  - History
    - 1950- Federal Disaster Relief Act
      - Process states to ask for federal protect
    - 1969-National Flood Insurance Program
      - Federal insurance link to local government actions to reduce flood hazard
      - FIRM maps
    - 1979-Federal Emergency Management Agency (FEMA)
      - Disasters of all types
    - 2000-Disaster Mitigation Act
      - Tied to future federal support to local plans
    - 2002-Homeland Security
      - Increased coordination among federal agencies
  - Army Corp of Engineers
    - Construction of flood protection
    - Permit for wetland protection

- Housing, Community, & Economic Development
  - History
    - 1934-35-National Housing Acts
      - Home mortgages
      - Public and rental housing
      - Discrimination
    - 1940-50-Urban renewal
      - 1954 encouraged comprehensive planning for small cities
      - Unintended consequences
      - Loss of neighborhoods- Robert Moses
    - 1965-Economic Development Administration (EDA) and Housing Urban Development (HUD)
      - Grant to distressed communities
      - Response to urban renewal
      - 1966-Model Cities Program
    - 1968-Fair Housing Act /Civil Rights Act
      - Discrimination in housing
    - 1974 Section 8 Housing Program
      - Main program to assist low income housing needs
    - Community Development Block Grants (CDBG)
• More flexibility to communities in how federal funds are used
  ▪ 1990-National Affordable Housing Act
    • Established the HOPE program for low income housing
  ▪ 1993-Empowerment/enterprise zones
    • Redevelopment efforts in distressed rural and urban areas
  ▪ 2008- Neighborhood Stabilization Program
    • Help with abandoned and foreclosed housing
  ▪ 2009-American Recovery and Reinvestment Act – the Stimulus Act

• Other National Planning Efforts
  o 1966- Historic Preservation
  o American Disabilities Act (ADA) Social Justice
  o RUPLA
  o Telecommunications
  o Census and other data gathering
  o National recreation and parks
  o National defense- BRAC base closures
  o Education
  o Tribal affairs-exemption from state and local regulations
  o Immigration
  o Oil and mineral leasing
  o Energy

2. Planning for Multi and Bi-state Regions
• Regional Watershed Planning
  o Most common multi-state issue
  o Shared water issues
  o Examples:
    ▪ 1933 Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) – flood control, power generation and economic development
    ▪ 1938 Hoover Dam – water, control flooding and hydro-power
    ▪ 1969-Tahoe Regional Planning Council – land use regulations
    ▪ 1983-Chesapeake Bay Agreement- plan for pollution
    ▪ 1990-Tri-state Water War- water allocation wars between SE states (Georgia, Florida, Alabama)
    ▪ 2008 –Great Lakes Compact – interstate compact to manage Great Lakes water basin
• Tourism and Economic Development
  o Examples
    ▪ 1963 Appalachian- federal, state and city to promote economic development
    ▪ 2000- Delta (Mississippi) Regional Authority


• 2012 Multistate Regional Tourism and Entrepreneurial Commission – east of Yellowstone National Park includes local and tribal

• Commuting and Transport
  o New York and New Jersey Port Authority-freight, port, airport.
  o Transit authorities in Massachusetts and Washington DC

• Multi-State & Multi-Regional Multi-Level Disaster Response
• Multi-State & Regional Planning

3. State Planning
• Federal and States Rights
  o State authority comes from their implied police powers-10th amendment to the constitution, States Rights
  o Federal supremacy clause government is exempt from state laws
    ▪ Exception are enumerated in federal law. Example is Coastal Zone Management Act (CZM) where state law consistent with federal guidance allows for local control
  o Tribal lands are also exempt
  o Federal Law may also pre-empt state and local control
    ▪ Telecommunications
    ▪ RLUIPA
  o Home rule vs Dillon rule states
    ▪ Dillon rule state: local government has only those powers explicitly granted to them by the state
    ▪ Home rule states: local can adopt their own rules as long as no conflict or pre-empted with the state

• State and National planning have a lot in common.
  o State can adopt more restrictive regulations
  o State must comply with federal mandates to receive funding

• Unique Role of State Planning
  o Growth Management
  o Flood Plan Management
  o Health Regulations
  o Food Planning
  o Coastal Zone Management

4. Sub-state Regions or regional planning – less than a state but bigger than a city
• History
  o 1909-Patrick Geddes
    ▪ considered the father of regional planning,
    ▪ 1915 Cities in Evolution promotion of regional planning
  o 1915- Lewis Mumford
• 1923 With Clarence Stein Started regional planning association of American
• 1938 *Culture of Cities*
• 1922-29 authored Regional Plan for New York and its Environs
  o 1962 Federal Highway Act required MPOs
  o 1965 OMB A-95 review required regional clearing house (MPOs) for use of federal funds

• Regional Planning Agencies
  o Some voluntary (council of governments), some mandated (MPOs)
  o Functions:
    ▪ Clearinghouse, coordination
    ▪ Grants administration
    ▪ Mandated responsibilities (transportation)
    ▪ Technical assistance on issues across inter-jurisdictions
    ▪ Regional plans

• Special Districts
  o Independent units of local government
  o Created by referendum or through legislation
  o Types: water, sewer, airports, ports, mass transit, fire protection, parks and recreation, libraries
  o Separate funding
  o More than 39,000 in the US

• Area based regional Planning
  o Examples: coastal areas, special areas of interest

• Issue based regional planning
  o Examples: economic development, air quality, tourism, transportation, climate change

5. **County (also known as Parish or Borough)**

• Variety
  o Planning services parallel to cities
  o Consolidated with cities
  o Joint planning departments
  o Restricted powers
  o Independent jurisdiction
  o Coordination and cooperation

• Planning functions
  o Land Use planning and zoning
  o Economic development
  o Emergency management
  o Parks and recreation
  o Roads
  o Utilities
  o Public health-septic systems
Natural systems – watersheds
Agricultural protections
Urban County and rural county focus will be different

6. Urban Areas
- Defined by jurisdictional boundaries or urbanized municipality
- Most contentious issues with counties are related to annexation.
  - More focus on taxes than development
  - Sprawl
  - Impact on rural quality of life
- Urban challenges
  - Old and deteriorating infrastructure
  - Blight, crime and investment
  - Changing demographics
  - Shrinking population-suburban flight
  - Affordable housing
  - Income disparities
- Cities in Transition
  - Legacy Cities- Detroit or Buffalo in decline of traditional industry
  - Gateway cities-active role for new immigrants
  - Boom bust cities – hit by recession
  - First suburbs – around declining central cities
- Opportunities
  - Visioning, reimaging
  - Re-use or re-development of existing development (Big box and malls to other uses)
- Types of planning
  - Re-development
    - Greyfield sites
    - Brownfields
    - Financing: bonding, tax increment financing, special districts, special assessments, and Business improvement districts (BID).
  - “Urbanisms”
    - New urbanism- promoted neotraditonal walkable communities, mixed use, transit oriented development
    - Agricultural urbanism-integration of agriculture in urban settings (food trucks, community gardens, farmers markets, rooftop gardens)
    - Landscape urbanism- replacing landscaping with agriculture
    - Green urbanism- planning for minimizing energy
    - Pop-up urbanism – activities that are ephemeral art, theater, food
  - Transportation
    - Congestion Management
- Demand reduction
- Operational management
- New facilities
- Promote alternative modes

- Mass transit
  - Money
  - Ridership
  - Inter-relationship between modes
  - Extension to suburbs

- Complete streets
  - Urban streets with access for all

- Multi-modal
- Parking
  - Over supply of free or low costs parking discourage other nodes
  - Cash out program to employees to use other modes

- Other Issues unique to urban planning
  - Crime prevention through urban design
  - Urban heat islands-urban canyons form high rises. Higher temperatures, wind, local climate change
    - More landscaping
    - Cool roofs
    - Better design of high rises

7. Suburban Areas
- Background
  - Defined as outlying primarily residential area from city
  - Grew substantially after WWII with GI bill and federal financing for highways.
  - Popular, well-known suburb is Levittown

- History
  - Grow out from city in rings
  - First ring are the suburbs closest to the city developed before WWI along trolley lines
  - Outer ring after development, lower density, cul de sac
  - Third ring, faster growth, lower costs, higher commutes.
  - Edge cities.
    - More jobs than houses
    - Developed in the last 30 years
    - 5 million square feet of commercial
    - Tyson’s Corner Virginia is an example
  - Edgeless Cities
    - Cluster of low density of office development
- No recognized boundaries
- Philadelphia is an example

- Sprawl
  - Auto –oriented, low density development
  - Segregated land uses
  - On the edge of urban development
  - Loss of agriculture and green spaces
  - In efficient use of public infrastructure

- Challenges
  - Sprawl
  - Lack of a sense of place
  - Lack of community amenities (parks, playgrounds, access only on autos)
  - Not walkable
  - Homogeneous demographics
  - Health
  - Aging population with lack of access
  - Aging infrastructure and housing stock
  - Inner ring may loss of populations and abandoned homes
  - Limited tax base
  - Traffic because of limited street system (lack of connectivity), lack of public transportation, few bike and hike.

- Retrofits
  - Transit expansion
  - Transit oriented development (TOD) high density mixed use around transit stop.
    - ¼ mile is ok to walk
    - Decreasing density form TOD
  - Complete streets

8. Small Towns
- Characteristics: Medium density, mix of uses and housing types, street parking, street trees and sidewalks.
- Challenges:
  - Limited infrastructure
  - May lack community wide systems
  - Economic development, well paid jobs, keeping young people
  - May travel distances to jobs and services
  - Limited resources for government –decreasing or slow tax base
  - Different issues of town is contracting or growing
  - Mix of farming and small town edge
- Considerations
  - Scale of development
- Harmony of development within the context of the existing community.
- Pace of development is slow so impact from one development can be significant.
Spatial Areas of Practice – Suggested Reading List

Lesson 1: Planning at the National Level
Planning and Urban Design Standards
• “Clean Air Act”, p. 566
• “Clean Water Act”, pp. 567-568
• “National Environmental Policy Act” (NEPA); pp. 569-571
• “Comprehensive Environmental Response, Compensation and Liability Act”; pp 572-573
• “Endangered Species Act”; pp. 574-575
• “Safe Drinking Water Act”; pp. 576-577
• “Resource Conservation and Recovery Act”; p. 578
• “Current Federal Transportation Laws”; pp. 579-580
• “Federal Housing and Community Development Law”; pp. 581-583
• “Federal Disaster Law”; pp. 584-585
• “Other Federal Laws”; pp. 586-588 (RUILPA, Telecommunications Act of 1996; ADA, NHPA, etc.)

APA Links
NEPA & National Environmental Laws
Endangered Species Act
https://www.planning.org/planning/2010/oct/lawevolves.htm

NON-APA Links (Subject to Change)
Transportation
Metropolitan Planning Organizations (MPOs)
State Implementation Plans (SIP)
http://www.fhwa.dot.gov/environment/air_quality/publications/air_quality_planning/aqplan04.cfm
Federal Highway Act of 1956
http://nationalatlas.gov/articles/transportation/a_highway.html

NEPA & National Environmental Laws
NEPA Process
http://www.epa.gov/compliance/basics/nepa.html
Council on Environmental Quality (CEQ)
http://www.whitehouse.gov/administration/eop/ceq/about
Clean Air Act
http://www2.epa.gov/laws-regulations/summary-clean-air-act
Clean Water Act
http://www2.epa.gov/laws-regulations/summary-clean-water-act
FIFRA
http://www2.epa.gov/laws-regulations/summary-federal-insecticide-fungicide-and-rodenticide-act
Resource Conservation and Recovery Act (RCRA)
http://www2.epa.gov/laws-regulations/summary-resource-conservation-and-recovery-act

CERCLA (Superfund)

SARA (part: Emergency Planning & Community Right-to-Know Act)
http://www2.epa.gov/laws-regulations/summary-emergency-planning-community-right-know-act
http://www2.epa.gov/epcra-tier-i-and-tier-ii-reporting/what-epcra

Safe Drinking Water Act
http://www2.epa.gov/laws-regulations/summary-safe-drinking-water-act

Toxic Substances Control Act
http://www2.epa.gov/laws-regulations/summary-toxic-substances-control-act

Environmental Justice
http://www2.epa.gov/laws-regulations/summary-executive-order-12898-federal-actions-address-environmentaljustice
http://www.epa.gov/environmentaljustice/basics/index.html

Lesson 2: Planning for Multi-State Regions

Planning and Urban Design Standards
- “Regionalism”; pp. 77-78
- “Urban Growth and Environmental Concerns”; pp. 84-85

APA Links
Chesapeake Bay
http://www.planning.org/planning/2004/feb/chesapeake.htm

Tri-State Water War
http://www.planning.org/planning/2010/apr/georgiawater.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2012/aug/waterwar.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2014/jan/waterwars.htm

Planning for Megaregions
http://www.planning.org/thenewplanner/2012/win/megaregions.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2011/dec/megopolitan.htm

NON-APA Links (Subject to Change)
Tennessee Valley Authority
History
http://www.tva.com/abouttva/history.htm

Hoover (Boulder) Dam
http://www.history.com/topics/hoover-dam

Chesapeake Bay Commission
http://www.chesbay.us/about.htm
http://www.chesbay.us/history.html

Lesson 3: Planning for States

Planning and Urban Design Standards
- “Statewide Land-Use Planning Programs”; p. 86
- “State Enabling Legislation”; p. 589
APA Links
Marine Spatial Planning
http://www.planning.org/planning/2011/dec/seascience.htm

NON-APA Links (Subject to Change)
Dillon’s vs. Home Rule

Lesson 4: Planning for Sub-State Regions

Planning and Urban Design Standards
• “Regional Plans”; pp. 14-15
• “Regionalism”; pp. 77-78
• “New Regionalism: Environment, Politics and Planning”; pp. 91-92
• MPOs; pp. 27, 102

APA Links
Regional Planning
http://www.planning.org/growingsmart/guidebook/six01.htm
MPO Planning
http://www.planning.org/planning/2010/feb/regionalsustainable.htm

NON-APA Links (Subject to Change)
Example: FLORIDA’S SPECIAL DISTRICTS

Lesson 5: Planning at the County Level

APA PAS Quick Notes
• 36 – The Farmland Protection Toolbox. 2012
Planning and Urban Design Standards
• “Farmland Preservation”; pp. 618-620

APA Links
Farmland Protection
http://www.planning.org/policy/guides/adopted/agricultural.htm
Health Planning

Lesson 6: Planning for Urban Areas

Planning and Urban Design Standards
• “Renewed Neighborhoods, New Towns, and New Urbanism”; pp. 89-90
• “Heat Islands”, pp. 105-106.
- “Zoning Regulation”; pp. 593-596
- “Urban Growth Areas”; pp. 606-608
- “Brownfields”; pp. 633-634
- “Empowerment Zones and Enterprise Communities”; pp. 639-640
- “Tax Increment Financing”; pp. 641-643
- “Business Improvement Districts”; pp. 646-647
- New Urbanism; p. 90

APA Links

Brownfields
https://www.planning.org/research/brownfields/
https://www.planning.org/planning/2013/mar/resurrectinganicon.htm

Tax Increment Financing

Urbanisms
http://www.planning.org/planning/2011/apr/60urbanisms.htm
New Urbanism – Miami 21
http://www.planning.org/planning/2011/apr/bestpractice.htm
http://www.planning.org/awards/2011/

Green Urbanism

Pop-up Urbanism
http://www.planning.org/planning/2012/nov/frompopup.htm

Blue Urbanism
https://www.planning.org/planning/2011/jan/evergreen.htm

Transportation
Complete Streets
https://www.planning.org/tuesdaysatapa/2012/chicago/nov.htm
https://www.planning.org/research/streets/resources.htm

High Price of Free Parking (Donald Shoup)
https://www.planning.org/planning/2013/may/thisparkingspot.htm

NON-APA Links (Subject to Change)

Heat Island Effect
http://www.epa.gov/heatisland/

Lesson 7: Planning for Suburban Areas

Reference Materials

APA Reading List Books: Planning and Urban Design Standards
- “Planned Suburbs”; pp. 68-69
- “The Challenges of Sprawl”, p. 84
- “Edge City”, p.407

APA Links
http://www.planning.org/planning/2007/dec/6steps.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2007/nov/ranch.htm

EDGE CITIES
http://www.planning.org/planning/2008/mar/softening.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2008/feb/housingedge.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2011/apr/burnham.htm

SPRAWL
http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/mar/implementation.htm

SUBURBS
http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/oct/poorrelations.htm

MIXED USE PLANNING
http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/jan/revolution.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/jan/revolutionside.htm

MASTER PLANNING COMMUNITIES

NON-APA Links (Potentially Subject to Change)

SPRAWL
http://www.smartgrowthamerica.org/measuring-sprawl
https://www.cnu.org/sprawlretrofit
http://users.auth.gr/~alagaria/LAGARIAS%20ERSA%202007.pdf
http://faculty.geog.utoronto.ca/DiFrancesco/GGR220Lec4.pdf (slide 29)
http://www.sprawlwatch.org/health.pdf

DECLINING MALLS

TRANSIT ORIENTED DEVELOPMENT
http://www.ctod.org/
Lesson 8: Planning for Small Towns

Reference Materials

APA Reading List Books: Planning and Urban Design Standards
- “Farms”, pp. 384-386
- “Feedlots”, pp. 387-388
- “Main Streets”, pp. 444-446
- “Delineating Urban Growth Boundaries”, pp. 607-608
- “Transfer and Purchase of Development Rights”, p. 610
- “Smart Growth Audits”; pp. 611-612
- “Mandatory Dedication and Cluster Development”, p. 617
- “Farmland Preservation”, pp. 618-620

APA Links
http://www.planning.org/planning/2012/aug/lastingvalue.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2007/nov/kansas.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2007/nov/uglyduckling.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2005/apr/pitchingin.htm

RURAL PLANNING
http://www.planning.org/planning/2010/feb/lastinglandscapes.htm

RURAL ZONING

AGRICULTURAL LAND LOSS
http://www.planning.org/planning/2012/aug/bythenumbers.htm

AGRICULTURAL & RANCH LAND PRESERVATION
http://www.planning.org/policy-guides/adopted/agricultural.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2007/nov/ranch.htm

BIG BOX IMPACTS
http://www.planning.org/resourceszine/articleview.htm?ArticleID=9022

MAIN STREET PROGRAM
http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/oct/saturdaynight.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/oct/saturdaynightside.htm

NON-APA Links (Potentially Subject to Change)
SMART GROWTH PLANNING IN SMALL TOWNS
http://www.epa.gov/smartgrowth/topics/rural.htm
http://www.smartgrowthamerica.org/complete-streets/implementation/factsheets/rural-areas-and-small-towns/

FARMLAND PRESERVATION
http://www.farmlandinfo.org

http://www.farmlandinfo.org/farmland_preservation_literature/index.cfm?function=article_view&articleID=31159
http://www.nrcs.usda.gov/programs/frpp/
http://www.nrcs.usda.gov/programs/fppa/
http://www.farmland.org/about/default.asp?gclid=CNPu2cm6l5oCFQNFQodSU3W7w

CONSERVATION EASEMENTS
http://www.landtrustalliance.org/conservation/landowners/conservation-easements

MAIN STREET PROGRAM
http://www.preservationnation.org/main-street
Lesson 9: Corridors

Reference Materials

APA Reading List Books: Planning and Urban Design Standards

- “Corridor Plans”, pp. 23-24
- “Corridor Plans” (Transportation), p. 28
- “Riparian Corridors”, p. 118
- “Success of Corridors” (Habitat), p. 140
- “On-Street Bikeways”, pp. 259-260
- “Multiuser Trails”, pp. 261-264
- “Greenways and Trails”, pp. 372-375
- “Commercial Corridors”, pp. 418-420
- “Transit-Oriented Development”, pp. 450-452
- “Wayfinding Systems”, pp. 488-490
- “Rails to Trails”, pp. 635-636

APA Links

http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/mar/2projectprogramtool.htm

GREENBELTS

http://www.planning.org/planning/2008/mar/greenbelts.htm

GREEN TRAFFIC CIRCLE PLANNING

http://www.planning.org/planning/2008/mar/gardens.htm

NATURAL HERITAGE CORRIDOR / TRAILS

http://www.planning.org/planning/2008/apr/navigating.htm

SCENIC VIEWS


TRANSPORTATION CORRIDOR PLANNING

http://www.planning.org/planning/2008/mar/pedalpushers.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2008/mar/pedalside.htm

NON-APA Links (Potentially Subject to Change)

GREENWAYS & NATURAL RESOURCE CORRIDOR PLANNING

http://www.tompkins-co.org/planning/vct/4.html
http://www.tompkins-co.org/planning/vct/tool/greenwayplanning.html

TRANSPORTATION CORRIDOR PLANNING

http://www.tompkins-co.org/planning/vct/tool/trailrouteplanningbicyclists.html

TOURISM CORRIDOR PLANNING

http://www.tompkins-co.org/planning/vct/tool/tourismcorridorplanning.html
http://www.tompkins-co.org/planning/vct/tool/scenicviewshedprotection.html

UTILITY CORRIDOR PLANNING

http://www.muni.org/planning/UtilityCorridorPlan.cfm
Lesson 10: Neighborhoods

Reference Materials

APA Reading List Books: Planning and Urban Design Standards
- “Neighborhood Plans”, pp. 16-17
- “Neighborhood Conservation”, p. 89 [Clarence Perry’s Neighborhood Unit]
- “Neighborhoods”, pp. 409-411
- “Neighborhood Centers”, pp. 412-414
- “Walkability”, pp. 478-480

APA Links
http://www.planning.org/planning/2012/mar/herescomesneighborhood.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2011/nov/neighbors.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2008/jan/greatneighborhoods.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/feb/neighborhoods.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2005/apr/greenville.htm

APA POLICY GUIDE
http://www.planning.org/policy/guides/adopted/neighborhoodcollaborative.htm

NEIGHBORHOOD UNIT CONCEPT
https://www.planning.org/pas/at60/report141.htm

LIVABLE STREETS
http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/oct/athome.htm

GROCERY STORES

HOMEOWNER ASSOCIATIONS
http://www.planning.org/planning/2005/apr/hoa.htm

SWEAT EQUITY – URBAN HOMESTEADING
http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/dec/everythingold.htm

GREAT NEIGHBORHOODS

NON-APA Links (Potentially Subject to Change)

COMMUNITY TOOLBOX
http://www.sustainable.org/Placemaking_v1_pt4.pdf
Lesson 11: Waterfronts

Reference Materials

APA Reading List Books: Planning and Urban Design Standards
- “Hurricanes and Coastal Storms”, pp. 154-155
- “Seiches and Tsunamis”, pp. 171-172
- “Waterfronts”, pp. 425-429

APA Links
  - http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/nov/riverfront.htm
  - http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/feb/sanantonioiside1.htm
  - http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/nov/riverfrontside.htm

NON-APA Links (Potentially Subject to Change)
  - http://www.fema.gov/
Lesson 12: Historic Districts or Areas

Reference Materials

APA Reading List Books: Planning and Urban Design Standards
- “Historic Districts”, pp. 421-424
- “Historic Structures”, pp. 627-630

APA Links
http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/nov/fifty.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/aug/somethingold.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/mar/burnham.htm

CHERRY HILL PLAN
http://www.planning.org/planning/2005/oct/historicpres.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2005/oct/historicpresside1.htm

REUSE / RENOVATION / REHABILITATION
http://www.planning.org/planning/2007/nov/uglyduckling.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/dec/modernism.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/aug/somethingold.htm

NON-APA Links (Potentially Subject to Change)
NATIONAL REGISTER OF HISTORIC PLACES
http://www.cr.nps.gov/nr/
Lesson 13: Downtowns

Reference Materials

APA Reading List Books: Planning and Urban Design Standards
- “Downtown Plans”, pp. 18-22
- “Redesigning Downtowns”, pp. 87-88
- “Physical Structure of Downtowns”, pp. 415-417
- “Art Districts”, pp. 435-436
- “Convention Center Districts”, pp. 437-439
- “Infill Development”, 456-457
- “Streetscape”, pp. 491-500
- “Redevelopent Agencies”, p. 645
- “Business Improvement Districts”, pp. 646-647

APA Links

DOWNTOWN HOUSING
http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/dec/reforming.htm
http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/dec/reformingside.htm

DOWNTOWN PLANNING
http://www.planning.org/planning/2006/dec/innercircle.htm

DOWNTOWN LIVING

TOWN CENTER PLANNING