

R E P O R T R E S U M E S

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URBANIZATION, PLANNING AND HIGHER EDUCATION EXTENSION,
GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS IN COMMUNITY ACTION. KANSAS STATE
UNIVERSITY SHORT COURSE SERIES IN PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT,
1.

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KANSAS STATE UNIV., MANHATTAN, AGR. AND APPL. SCI.

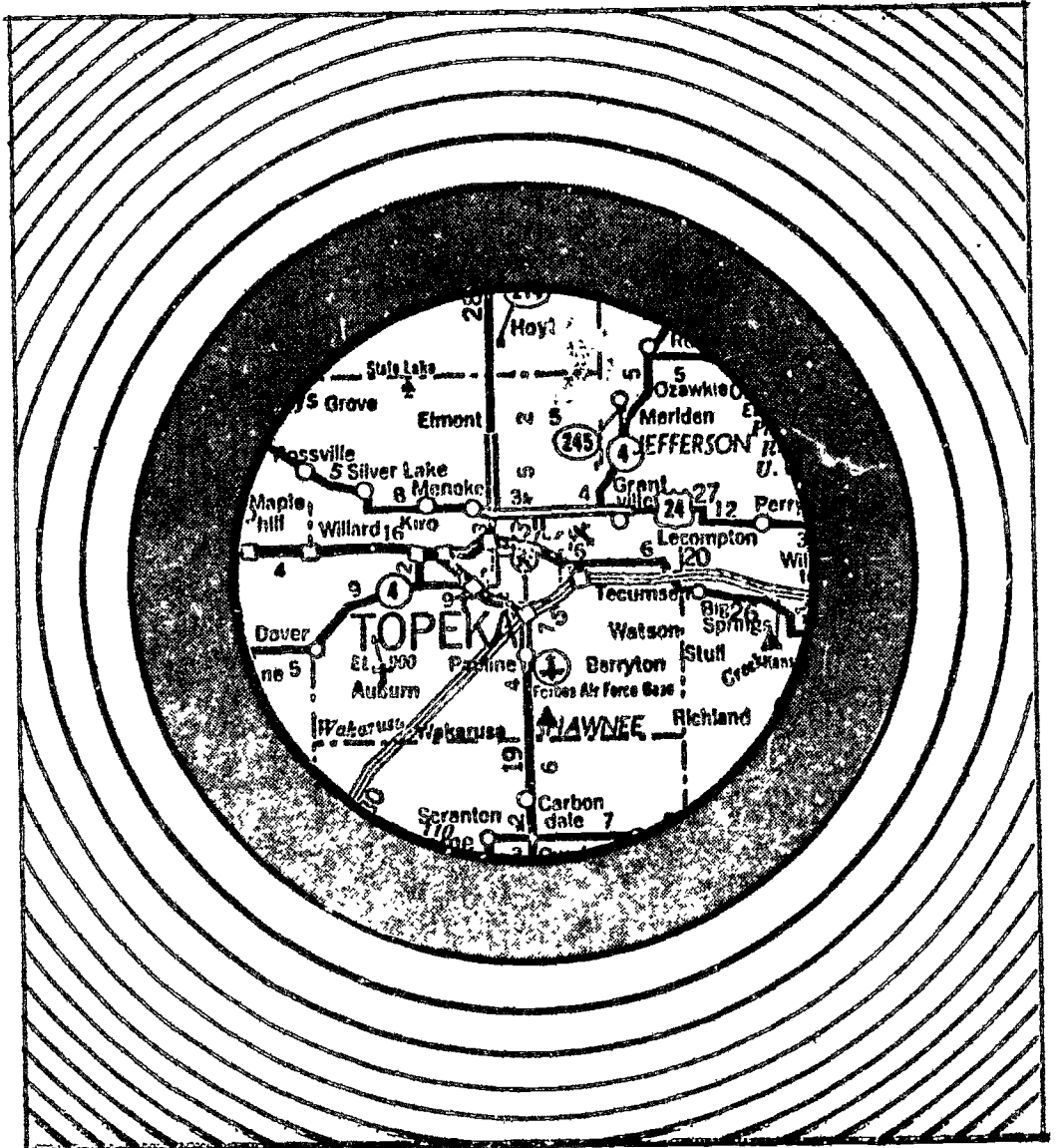
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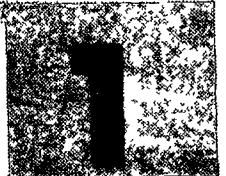
THE FIRST IN A KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY SERIES DESIGNED
TO DEVELOP AN UNDERSTANDING OF THE PROCESS OF URBANIZATION
AND TO ESTABLISH A DIALOGUE BETWEEN URBAN PLANNERS AND
PLANNING THEORETICIANS THROUGH HIGHER EDUCATION EXTENSION,
THIS ESSAY FOCUSES ON THE NATURE AND IMPACT OF URBANIZATION,
THE EXTENT OF THE NEED FOR URBAN PLANNING, THE PURPOSES AND
THE PROPER SCOPE OF URBAN PLANNING, AND THE ROLE OF
UNIVERSITIES IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT AND IN THE EMERGING,
HIGHLY PROBLEM ORIENTED FIELD OF URBAN EXTENSION. ALSO
DESCRIBED ARE THE ORIGINS OF URBAN EXTENSION IN AGRICULTURAL
AND UNIVERSITY EXTENSION, SOCIOLOGICAL RESEARCH ON URBAN AND
RURAL DISTINCTIONS AND INTERRELATIONSHIPS, AND THE CREATION
OF THIS MONOGRAPH SERIES AND RELATED CONFERENCES, WORKSHOPS,
AND REGIONAL SHORT COURSES (1966-67) UNDER TITLE 1 OF THE
HIGHER EDUCATION ACT OF 1965. THE DOCUMENT INCLUDES 32
REFERENCES AND A THREE STAGE DIAGRAM OF URBANIZATION AND
PLANNING RELATIONSHIPS. (LY)

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THE PROCESS OF URBANIZATION

Approach To Urbanization



KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
DIVISION OF CONTINUING EDUCATION
COLLEGE OF ARCHITECTURE & DESIGN
CENTER FOR COMMUNITY
PLANNING SERVICES K.S.U.

AC01 945

Short Course Series in Planning and Development

"THE PROCESS OF URBANIZATION"

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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URBANIZATION, PLANNING AND
HIGHER EDUCATION EXTENSION

General Considerations in Community Action

by

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Director, Center for Community Planning Services
Kansas State University

June 1967

This is one of six monographs on the process of urbanization produced by Kansas State University. It was financed partly under Title I of the Higher Education Act of 1965 which provided funds for continuing education programs and community service. It is part of the program of the Division of Continuing Education and the Center for Community Planning Services to help Kansas communities solve their problems through comprehensive community planning.

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PREFACE TO URBANIZATION,
PLANNING AND HIGHER EDUCATION EXTENSION

SCOPE OF THE
MONOGRAPHS

This monograph series is concerned with urbanization, planning, and the extension of higher education. The writer's interest in urbanization, planning and higher education extension has developed over the past decade from his participation as a planner and educator in both the affairs of the community and of the university.

The purpose of this monograph series then is: first, to develop an understanding of the process of urbanization, and second, to establish a dialogue between practitioners and the theoreticians of planning, basically by higher education extension. This will be undertaken by an exploration and evaluation of the social, political, economic, and physical factors of change underlying urbanization, and by study of the process of planning, which can minimize the problems due to urbanization.

It is essential that we understand and communicate the process of urbanization for future urban and regional development, so as to avoid the expediency of solving the problems of urbanization on a crisis-by-crisis basis. With this approach, we should be better prepared through planning to maximize our efforts in the solutions of the inevitable problems which are a result of urbanization.

To illustrate the impact of the phenomenon of urbanization, it has been estimated that within the next half-century the total number of people to be added to our urban areas will be equal to the number which have been added since the founding of the republic in 1776. Within our generation, increasing numbers of people are

becoming urbanites, or city dwellers, to such an extent that presently 75% of our population live in urbanized areas. Although this population growth has taken place in a relatively limited geographic area, equal to 2% of our total area, the cumulative effect of all this is that urbanism has become the dominant force in our society, rural as well as urban.

Urban areas are now the living environment for the majority of our nation's citizens. Urbanization has been so rapid that a host of problems have arisen in connection with it about which we have little knowledge and for which we have few solutions. These problems now compose the major domestic issues.

THE "TITLE I"
PROGRAM AT
KANSAS STATE
UNIVERSITY

Under the terms of the Higher Education Act of 1965, Title I, the institutions of higher education in the United States have been given the responsibility of assisting in community planning and development. The purposes of the Title I program are to assist in the solution of community problems such as housing, poverty, government, recreation, employment, youth opportunities, transportation, health, and land use.

The Title I program at Kansas State University is intended to help Kansas communities solve the problems of urbanization imposed by the conversion from a basically agricultural economy to one with a more industrial base. The Center for Community Planning Services of Kansas State University implemented the Title I program to help public officials, planning commissioners, local leaders and other interested citizens to develop an awareness of the forces and aspects of urbanization in the State of Kansas.

To do this, it was necessary to undertake the Title I program at Kansas State University on a comprehensive interdisciplinary basis with faculty from other university departments contributing specialized knowledge. This effort was coordinated among the Center for Community Planning Services, the Division of Continuing Education and the participating departments of Economics, Sociology, Political Science, Planning and Civil Engineering.

THE DEVELOPMENT OF
THE MONOGRAPH
SERIES

This series of six monographs on urbanization and planning originated in a meeting of the Interdepartmental Committee for Regional and Community Planning at Kansas State University on October 6, 1966, to formulate a framework for preparing instructional material for use in the 1966-67 Title I program. The original members of the committee included Ralph Dakin, Sociology; Vernon Deines, Planning; Louis Douglas, Political Science; Robert Ealy, Landscape Architecture; Jarvin Emerson, Economics; Eugene Friedmann, Sociology; John Kitchens, Continuing Education; Eugene McGraw, Planning; William Schultze, Political Science; William Siddal, Geography; and Bob Smith, Civil Engineering.

The study committee first discussed the basic frameworks for the process of urbanization as viewed by the disciplines and professions of its members. The interdisciplinary dialogue that resulted indicated that the process of urbanization could be best articulated by a focus on the four basic aspects: economic, social, political and physical. Individual assignments were then made to prepare monographs on these four aspects of urbanization, as well as one on the planning process and one of an introductory or overview nature.

THE COMMUNITY
DEVELOPMENT SHORT
COURSE SERIES

Based upon its past experience in community planning and development education, the Center revised its short course series to use the Title I monographs for presentation to public officials, planning commissioners, local leaders and other interested citizens in Kansas. Since 1962, over 30 communities had received the short course in "Community Development" with sponsorship from cities, counties or local civic groups. In 1965-66, community leaders in Oakley, Scott City, Phillipsburg, and Osborne participated in the short courses and meetings held in the state. As a result of the short courses and meetings, local leaders have had a better understanding of the planning process and can undertake planning programs with strong local support. The revised short course series with the Title I monographs takes the more comprehensive, interdisciplinary approach and can be used as an initial course for new participants or as a supplementary course for those who attended the earlier short course series.

1966-67 ACTIVITIES
UNDER THE "TITLE I"
PROGRAM

Four conferences and workshops were held on campus at Kansas State University during 1966-67, as well as six regional short courses, to emphasize problems and to suggest solutions for community planning and development.

1. In September of 1966, a Title I workshop on "Community Development" was held at Kansas State University with discussion of programs in the United States and England.
2. In December of 1966, the first Title I conference on "The Process of Urbanization" was held at Kansas State University. Panel discussions on the social, political, economic and physical aspects of urbanization were held, as well as a special presentation on gaming simulation of the planning process.

3. In May of 1967, the second Title I conference on "Community Planning, Development and Related Action Groups" was held at Kansas State University. Panel discussions on the role of higher education, government and private organizations in community programs were held.

4. In August of 1967, a two-week institute on community affairs was sponsored under the Title I program. Participants included faculty from the colleges and universities in Kansas, as well as planners from consulting firms and public agencies involved in community planning and development.

5. From May through September of 1967, short courses in community planning and development were conducted at regional centers in Abilene, Arkansas City, Chanute, Coffeyville, Newton and Wichita. Over 20 other communities were represented at these regionally centered short courses.

In the future, the Center will continue to serve as the focus for community and regional planning services at Kansas State University in cooperation with other extension, research, and education units of the university, as well as state and federal agencies.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I wish to thank all of the individuals who contributed to this series of monographs. Primary acknowledgement is due to my fellow authors, Ralph Dakin, William Schultze, Ray Weisenburger, and, especially, Eugene McGraw, who served as monograph coordinator and contributed greatly to the successful completion of the project.

We are all indebted to our respective departmental chairman and college deans for their encouragement and support, particularly Dean Emil C. Fischer, College of Architecture and Design, who provided staff, space and equipment. Additionally we wish to thank our secretaries and graduate assistants who prepared and proofed various drafts, charts and figures, especially Mrs. Judy Rosebrook, Paul Phua

and James Adams, Center for Community Planning Services. Final appreciation is expressed to Dr. John Kitchens and his staff, especially William Swegle, in the Division of Continuing Education, for their assistance and guidance on administrative and financial aspects of the "Title I" program.

URBANIZATION

Urbanization can be considered as the change from rural to urban (or urban to more urban) and/or the difference (or similarity) between rural and urban. We must identify the major characteristics of the urban society, and by contrast the rural society. This will permit the understanding of change or difference in the process of urbanization.

NATURE OF CHANGE IN AN URBAN SOCIETY

The three basic reasons for the increased interest in change and the process of change in recent years have been cited by Lowry and Moe.

1. Change has been accelerated dramatically since World War II.
2. The evolving scientific attitude that says man need not be the victim of change, but rather he can understand it and direct it to his own advantage has been widely accepted.
3. The emergence of excitement and anticipation over what man can accomplish and the knowledge he can acquire has developed.¹⁹

These three reasons are at the very core of planning theory where change is viewed as the mechanism for the attainment of the goals of planning. The very word planning implies change directed by the rational action of man. Within this planning philosophy the process of urbanization should most certainly be accepted as an instrument of change to be directed by man.

Another consideration of change is in the process itself. The forces of change and the effects of change are often separated by a fine line. Lowry and Moe list six elements as the forces and effects of change.

1. The development of special interest groups
2. The trend toward large scale organizations
3. The high mobility of members in groups and organizations
4. The interdependence of groups and organizations
5. The conflict of attitudes and values
6. The transformation of rural life to a way of making a living 19

Any one of these could be defined as either a force of change or an effect of change. More important, though, is the recognition that these are the major elements of change in modern society.

The identification of the major forces that have shaped urban centers has been made by numerous investigators. Deming cites four quite inclusive forces.

1. The impact of population growth and movement with the urban growth rate higher than that of the nation and with immigration from rural areas and small towns.
2. The technological advances and impacts with the speed of movement of people and goods and with the changes in the standards of living which affect our ability to make value choices.
3. The emergence of new regional cities oriented multi-functionally to a large region with extension of service areas, "second story" type obsolescence, and suburban development and subcenters.
4. The impact of new capital facilities requirements with the needs of population and the response to change in technology, and the physical and technological obsolescence.⁸

Lowry and Moe have developed a quite similar list of forces that shape urban communities.

1. Industrialization
2. Transportation and communication

3. Sources of power
4. Interurbanization
5. Growth in the economy
6. Population growths and shifts
7. Rising level of living
8. Changing concept of education¹⁹

Although these are generally accepted as the major forces that cause the process of urbanization, no one as yet has analyzed the social system as Lord Keynes analyzed the economic system. Ylvisaker has raised the point that we assumed erroneously that a "market mechanism" device corrected this social change.³²

URBAN AND RURAL DISTINCTIONS

What is urban and what is rural? How are they different or alike? In order to answer these questions, consideration must be given to the findings of prior research. Gibbs has listed two requirements of urban research.

1. Regardless of the purpose of the analysis, one must provide an explicit definition of the kind of urban unit studies.
2. A second requirement of research calls for a detailed description of the method of delimitation.⁹

Gibbs also stated that the study of rural-urban interrelations has two ultimate goals.

1. The first is to arrive at an adequate explanation of variations in the character of rural-urban interrelations from country to country and from one epoch to the next.
2. The second goal is that of making use of knowledge of these interrelationships to account for variation in rural-urban differences in traits of rural population and in characteristics of urbanization.⁹

The questions that can be asked in respect to rural-urban phenomenon based on the approach suggested by Gibbs are:

1. What forms of rural-urban differences are universal?
2. Why are the two divisions dissimilar in some respects but not in others?
3. Why do the dissimilarities vary from place to place and from time to time?

In the United States "urban" is defined by the Bureau of the Census as a place having 2,500 or more persons, whether incorporated or not. The census division point of 2,500 population is viewed by Nesmith as seeming to define small and he suggested that it might be arbitrarily agreed that a "rural" place is one that is not in a S.M.S.A., or in a county adjacent to a S.M.S.A. county.²³

Another classification of urban-rural is based upon the administrative divisions and the presence or absence of certain institutionalized services, as well as size.⁹ In this classification the administrative divisions are a function of the kind of local government, the total number of inhabitants, and the characteristics not applicable to the whole area, i.e. agricultural employment. The presence or absence of certain institutionalized services is based upon those that are usually concomitants of urban life, i.e. mail delivery, schools, market place, churches, public transit, telephone, electricity, etc. These would apply to most areas classified as rural in the United States, but not in most other parts of the world, particularly in the underdeveloped nations.

Still another classification has been made by Macura. He distinguished an urban place from a rural agglomeration as having a

larger population, size of place, and a considerable degree of division of labor in both industrial production and services, i.e. the percent non-agricultural activity.⁹ Many others have formulated similar classifications. Wirth's definition of a "city" specified as minimal elements: size, density, and "social heterogeneity". Sorokin and Zimmerman, in their "compound definition", included these elements, and several others, among which they emphasized the importance of agriculture and occupations as a criterion of rurality. Thus a rural place would be some distance (50 miles?) from a major city and in an area primarily dependent on agriculture for its economic base.

There is a growing tendency in contemporary research to think in terms of a continuum rather than of a dichotomy when studying the urban-rural phenomenon.⁹ With this concept a specific place is treated as neither completely rural nor completely urban, but rather as a position somewhere between the two extremes. This questioning of rural-urban dichotomy suggests that attitudes and values may be measured along the continuum and that it is possible to assign weights to these factors. To date there is little research on operational definitions of urban attitudes and values. Previous research on urban-rural has focused on differences. Reissman has summarized a number of the more notable studies, as illustrated in the following table.²⁹

Researcher	Rural or Non-Urban	Urban
Becker	Sacred	Secular
Durkheim	Mechanical solidarity	Organic solidarity
Maine	Status	Contract
Redfield	Folk	Urban
Spencer	Military	Industrial
Tonnies	Gemeinschaft	Gesellschaft
Weber	Traditional	Rational

It is generally agreed by the various researchers that the urban-rural differences are a function of a greater change in the cities than in the rural places, and that the nature of the differences between the two varies from one culture to another and from one epoch to the next. The basic meaning of the terms "urban" and "rural" whether considered as a dichotomy or as a continuum, seems to be basically clear. Urban refers to the city and rural refers to the country. The actual patterns of settlement though are much less clearly definable than the basic concept implies. It is much easier to determine whether or not a place is an urban one than to determine how much more urban one place is than other, due to the lack of adequate measures of urbanization. This point is discussed at length by Reissman.²⁹

THE MEASURE OF URBANIZATION

It is generally recognized that a certain population size and density are minimum conditions for urban classification. In addition to these characteristics, the heterogeneity of population is usually included. The process of urbanization then is a dynamic expression of these three characteristics. Houser and Schnore stated that, "To the extent that size, density and heterogeneity of population have changed behavior in urban places they represent necessary, rather than sufficient, conditions for such a transformation."¹³ In the recent book on urbanization, they stated that the demographic concept of urbanization (the proportion of the total population resident in urban places) was transcended by many other uses of the term in which urbanization was recognized as a social process that has brought about great transformations in man's way of life. This higher transformation is what Duggar has termed "urbanitization".

The indices or measures of urbanization are described by Gibbs and include economic, social, political and demographic.⁹ The economic indices reflect the progress of industrial development in terms of the increases (or decreases) in production, trade, national income, etc. The social indices, as well as the political, reflect changes in such fields as education, health, living standards, political participation and the governmental organization. The demographic indices are indicators of rates of population growth, family characteristics, population mobility, age structure, size and composition of the economically active population, and the like.

Counter to the process of urbanization is the recent transfer of rural material culture and its associated values to the urban sector in the functions and forms of woodcarving, weaving, bread-making, folk singing and dancing, as well as the fireplace, the outdoor barbecue and the split rail fence. Buck has said that this is an outstanding example of a culture shifting from utilitarian definition to symbolic definition.⁶

A final consideration in the process of urbanization is some of the problems that arise. Deming has formulated nine problem areas.

1. The term "urban problems" includes a wide range.
2. The effect of the "spirit of a better tomorrow" is to mislead.
3. The impact of the "protestant ethic of the bad city" is critical.
4. The decline of individual democracy and the growth of government by concurrent majority is unfortunate.
5. The potential conflict between the power of proposal and the power of decision is increasing.

6. The central city-suburb dichotomy is more critical than the urban-rural one.
7. The impact of the social disaccomodations has conditioned response to urban problems in a negative direction.
8. The states' response to urbanization has not been realized.
9. The national response to urbanization has been atomistic, not unified.⁸

The writer recognizes that this section on urbanization has only described the basic definition, listed the measures of the process, and indicated some of the basic problems that arise as a result of the process.

A community may be defined, nevertheless, as a place (which is the physical setting), that is occupied by people (who have organizations), who are governed by rules (which establishes the authority structure), and who engaged in work (which provides the situation). Viewed from this perspective, a community must be physically balanced, socially real, politically stable and economically sound. Any attempt to study and plan communities without recognizing these elements would be inadequate. A diagram of urbanization and planning relationships is explained on page 28.

PLANNING

Our communities have served us well up to the present time. But now, due to the increasing pressures of urbanization, many of our communities have outgrown their original purpose intended by our forefathers. It is time to plan again, and this will take as much courage and faith, if not more, than that of the first planners - the settlers.¹⁰

THE IMPACT OF
URBANIZATION
ON THE COMMUNITY

The United States is rapidly becoming an urban nation. The urban population of the nation now represents two-thirds of the total population, a reversal of the situation a century ago. Further, the rate of change from rural to urban is increasing rapidly. While nearly all central cities of our metropolitan areas showed little gain or even losses in population, between 1950 and 1960, suburban communities surrounding the central cities gained population at a rapid rate. Many smaller communities such as retail trade centers, county seats, college towns and cities having an industrial base, are also growing at a high rate.

This growing urban population makes heavy demands on local governmental functions such as schools, streets, parks, recreation, water, sewer, gas, electric and telephone facilities and services. The provision of these facilities and services requires a substantial investment of both public and private funds. There is a need for response to conditions other than growth. Communities that remain relatively stable or actually decline still must preserve those things that contribute to a satisfying living environment; adjustment to conditions that are a result of internal or

external influences; or change those things that require adjustment. The problem of providing facilities and services in a declining community can be just as acute as in a growing metropolis.³

In order to survive and grow, a community must produce and sell enough products and services to outside areas to pay for what must be bought from outside the community. In brief, this is why communities are created, why they grow, and why they sometimes decline. For example, the retail trade center comes into existence because people in other areas need the livestock, grain, or other farm products that can be produced in this location. Soon a retail trade center develops around the farmers whose main work is producing food and fiber for others, and who receive in return the money they need to buy the goods and services which they cannot produce themselves.

What happens if other areas no longer need the farm products, or if the fields gradually become depleted? The retail trade center either finds other products it can produce for other areas, or it declines. Many Kansas communities are like the skilled worker who loses his job because of the introduction of automation or a decline in demand for the product. Through no fault of their own, these communities find themselves in a situation in which they must "adapt or die".

There are those who believe that the "natural" forces of change should be allowed to operate and that people in declining urban or rural areas should just move to some other place where the situation is better. Other than the obvious hardships involved

when people must give up their homes and friends to start over again in a new area, there are sound economic reasons why moving out is not only the hard way of adjusting to change but often the most expensive way. A community has a big investment in its facilities; the schools, a water and sewer system, a police force, a fire department, the parks, the retail stores, the homes, and the cultural and recreational centers.

If a community takes no action to recover from its decline, it in effect, writes off this investment of time, energy, and money in these facilities. A community with a substantial investment in the basic amenities of life is worth trying to preserve and expand, but it must break with the past. It must learn to view the creation, operation, and expansion of growth generating activities as something which can be accomplished by its own initiative, imagination and energy. Many communities have been successfully applying this principle for years. A major reason for the dramatic growth of a number of our communities in the past has been the bold action of local leaders. Yet there are still some communities which rely on the "blind luck" or "natural forces" theory that views the growth or decline of an area as beyond their control. The lesson that progressive communities have to teach is that progress in the modern world is only possible for those who understand and make an effort to control the processes of growth.²

To understand your community, it is essential that we study the aspects of urbanization that cause change in a community, (e.g. social, political, economic, and physical). We do not view these aspects as independent or static, but rather as dependent and

dynamic. In other words, a change in the local economic activity will ultimately affect the social and political life of the community. These changes are not always directly proportional, but often quite drastic over a period of time. A classic example of this is seen in Kansas in the last 50 years with changes in the agricultural economy resulting from mechanization with the resultant reduction of farm labor, the decline of the rural trade centers, the consolidation of schools, and the reapportionment of the state legislature.

The previous example illustrates how a changing basic economic activity can and does have social and political effects upon a community, a state, a region or the nation. The transition of the United States from an agrarian society to the leading industrialized nation in the world during the past hundred years has had a dramatic effect in terms of the impact of urbanization on individual communities. It is the intent of this course to outline, evaluate and understand the aspects of urbanization in communities in the state of Kansas.

THE NEED FOR PLANNING

Why plan? The answers seem obvious. None of our communities just came into being, they were planned; secondly, we have an obligation to the future as we have to the past; and thirdly, planning is simply common sense. Even if we elect not to plan, that in itself is planning. Industrialization has altered our cities and countryside more in a short 200 years than have all the inventions and discoveries of the preceding 2,000 years. This one fact alone makes the need for planning so imperative.¹⁰

We have all driven down a street in one of our communities and wondered why the streets weren't wider for needed parking or perhaps we have asked ourselves why business enterprises locating in the downtown district weren't required to provide off-street parking space. As a result of the development of planning, communities now require any new commercial or residential use to provide off-street parking space in proportion to the number of customers or the number of residents.

We have probably all heard citizens of a community ask what can be done when a slaughter house locates its new plant in a residential neighborhood. As a result of the development of zoning as a tool of planning, zoning ordinances can now restrict the uses that can be made within various areas of the community. This is done by designating areas of the community to be used for industrial uses, commercial uses, and residential uses. Zoning does not prohibit the location of an industrial or other intensive use within a community, but rather restricts the area in which that use can be located and establishes the conditions under which the use can be performed.

With the rapid increase in population, we may often ask why we did not anticipate the increased load on the public school system. Planning may not solve this problem completely, but in analyzing past and present population trends in the community, the school enrollment in future years could be better anticipated. We can all cite the case where a new subdivision was built without regard to the existing street pattern, desirable building setbacks, side yard spaces, adequate sewer and water lines, and other amenities

necessary for daily living in an urban community. Through subdivision regulations, each new subdivider can be required to secure approval of his plat from the planning commission can assure that new subdivisions fit into the general pattern of the community. 18

THE SCOPE OF PLANNING

Planning exists on many levels. There is private planning, such as business planning for expansion, and there is public planning, such as community planning for schools. We live in a planning age. As far as public planning is concerned, the need exists on seven levels: national, regional, state, county, metropolitan, community, and neighborhood. Planning also applies on a rural basis as well as on an urban basis. Often the interactions of the economic, social, and political aspects of urbanization are not as apparent in the less densely populated rural area as they are in a city, but they require adjustment nevertheless.

It is likewise wrong to think of the city limits as the beginning or the end of local growth. This is an artificial boundary and as the community grows and expands it is important that residential, commercial and industrial growth in the fringe areas relate to an over-all community plan. In a community two sets of rules, such as building codes or zoning, often apply, one inside the city limits and the other outside the city. For all practical purposes these types of developments are an integral part of the total community and unless this is recognized, the resulting problems will have to be dealt with in future years.³

Probably many communities also feel that they are too small to warrant planning. On the contrary, none is too small to plan.

Communities can never be sure when something will occur that will cause them to undergo unexpected growth within a period of a few years. When this happens, planning will help that community grow in a logical and orderly fashion.

One factor that should not be overlooked by any planning commission is that the community for which it is going to plan is already there; it is a reality. Seldom do we get the chance to prepare a plan and then begin to build a total community. Rather, we must work with existing communities, accept what is there, and try to improve what will be there in the future. It would be desirable if we could rebuild many of our communities, but few, if any, urban communities can economically afford to rebuild themselves. Consequently, we are working with what can be done to improve the community in the future.¹⁸

THE PLANNING PROCESS

The first task for the community trying to move out of decline or stagnation is to get organized. This means getting together an organization representing all major community groups, such as business, labor, agriculture, government, religion, education, and public utilities. Individual leaders must be dedicated to helping the community. Every community has people who can make a success of community growth, but they must get involved. Because planning is a relatively new field, lack of experience is not a serious handicap. It is important that the people who get involved be willing to study and learn as they work.

As soon as the local community organization is formed, it must tackle the job of gathering and analyzing all the facts about the

community's economy, people, public utilities and services, resources, and other data bearing on the potential for growth. Much of the information will already have been collected and published by local, State, and Federal agencies, and by college and university and private research groups. The job of the local community organization is to acquire it.

In time, the real reasons why the community began, grew and prospered, and then declined will become obvious. The local community organization will come to know the strengths and weaknesses of the community. It will learn which of the business firms are primary employers (bringing outside money into the area) and which are secondary employers (providing goods and services for the local market). It will discover what resources it has; human, physical, economic; which can be used to create growth. It will know what are its most important assets, and how they can be utilized.

Since the objective of community development is a lasting improvement in the life of the community, the local group must work out a plan and a program for implementing it. It must decide on its general goals and broad strategy. It must determine priorities; for example, are school improvements more urgent than expansion of the water and sewerage system? It must develop standards by which to judge proposed actions. A practical approach in developing specific plans is to find out as much as possible about the needs of specific elements and what the community has that meets or can be developed to meet these needs.² Although the development of a community is in large measure determined by the community's existing and potential resources, planning is maximized by a rational-scientific approach.

The "rational-scientific" approach to planning has been accepted for at least three reasons. First, it has become increasingly apparent that planning problems are societal problems, and that every effort must be made to incorporate into the planning process developments in knowledge contributed by academic fields concerned with societal issues. Second, planners have come to realize that a "plan" is of no value unless it can be implemented, and implementation requires knowledge of the consequences a plan would have on the economic, social and political aspects of society. Third, the plan itself has come to be regarded as a set of policies and programs which will enable a community to achieve its economic, social and political goals. Planning is no longer viewed as a static plan but as a flexible, continuous process.

The planning process is the evaluation of the long and short range consequences of alternative actions in an attempt to make a more rational choice among them. The planning process is thus a method whereby, with the use of foresight and analysis, the spectrum of behavioral and organizational problems can be resolved. In the urban situation, the planner applies his knowledge to the formulation of realistic alternatives, the evaluation of the consequences of proposed actions, and the successful integration of relevant policies and programs, all of which are to achieve a better urban society.²⁷ This course is not intended to train you as planning technicians, but rather to provide you with an understanding of the basic social, political, economic, and physical aspects of urbanization. Additionally, it is intended to provide you with an awareness of the need for planning our communities.

Planning will not work miracles overnight and perhaps not over a longer period of time. But in the course of a generation, planned growth in a community should help to make it a better place in which to live, work, and play.¹⁸ While community survival is possible if facilities and services are acquired on a hit-or-miss basis, experience has shown that planning helps to assure more orderly development at less cost to public and private interests. The major concerns in planning include:

Efficiency and economy in government,
protection of public health and welfare,
economic development,
protection of property values, and
citizen participation in local government.³

Urbanization creates many problems for the community, but planning can minimize the impact of these problems. It is not a question of whether to plan, but how and when to plan! An explanation of the relationships between planning and urbanization is illustrated on page 28.

HIGHER EDUCATION EXTENSION

Much of the current emphasis on urban extension has developed from beginnings in cooperative (agricultural) extension and university (adult education) extension. A better understanding of urban extension should develop now from a review of these two enterprises.

COOPERATIVE
EXTENSION

The roots of cooperative extension extend back over a century with the enactment of three federal acts:

The Morrill Act of 1862, creating the basis of our system of land grant colleges, the Hatch Act of 1887, creating aid to research in agriculture, and the Smith-Lever Act of 1914, establishing the Extension Service, were the beginnings of rural extension.¹⁶

The land grant colleges and universities established by the Morrill Act and provided for in subsequent acts of Congress, perform three basic functions: resident instruction, research and extension. Cooperative or agricultural extension, as it is often classified, is the cooperatively financed and developed programs of the extension services of the colleges of agriculture and home economics of these colleges and universities, the U. S. Department of Agriculture, and various units of the local government.²¹

Agricultural extension responsibility in education has been defined to include all of the people of the United States interested or involved in agriculture, home economics, and related fields. With the significant changes taking place in American society and with the recognition that agricultural and rural problems cannot be solved in isolation from the rest of the nation, the distinctions based on place of residence or of occupation have been modified in

reference to the clientele of the agricultural extension services. The primary responsibility is presently defined as the people living on farms, but it is not restricted to them.¹⁷

The basic reason of relating the origin, functions and scope of the cooperative extension service is to establish the "roots" of university extension, particularly the urban university. Kelsey and Hearnese have said that the majority of 4-H members are not on farms and never will be, so that the program is becoming distinctly urban.¹⁶ In discussing the goals of rural extension work, L. D. Farrell, then president of the Kansas State College of Agriculture, mentioned the following five objectives as the major components of extension:

- To develop understanding and appreciation of rural values,
- To promote an understanding of rural problems,
- To develop practical methods of solving rural problems,
- To make rural life more satisfying and beautiful, and
- To promote improved integration of farming and rural life with other activities and interests of the nation.¹⁶

It is interesting to note that with a subtle change of the term from rural to urban, the above statement could easily serve as the basic goals for urban America!

UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

The origin of university extension in the United States has been traced to England with the period of initial efforts occurring from 1880 to 1890. The American Society for the Extension of University Teaching was established in 1890 and lasted until 1916. During this period some thirty colleges and universities began university extension activities.³¹

University extension includes those functions of colleges and universities which are intended primarily to serve the educational needs of adults not engaged in full-time resident study. Basically, the term means literally an "extension" of campus activities to adults who have not had the opportunity for higher education.³¹

University extension in 1960 comprised about 5% of the adult education activity in the United States. This adult education enterprise includes all of the organized work in the United States directed towards providing adults with opportunities for continuing their education so as to more fully realize their potentialities as members of a democratic society.³¹ University extension also includes research and public service, in addition to the teaching of adult students, with public service being the major element of focus and the one to be dealt with here.

In the most extensive study of university extension done to date, Morton has identified three influences which have accelerated the growth of university extension since the early 1900's. These are the popular drive to know and understand what is going on and to base action on valuable information, the increasing demands placed on people by the complexities of urban civilization, and the great concentration of educational resources and technical knowledge in the universities.²²

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT

Every extension center has developed some distinctive programs or activities as a result of its leadership and the needs of its clientele. One type of activity that has almost universally developed in American extension centers is community development.

Here again the uniqueness of local leadership and area needs has formulated a variety of configurations of the community development process.

The literature indicates that a variety of approaches in community development have been developed. A study of small communities in Virginia shows that the basic purposes of the process are to help communities to help themselves and to plan with the local leaders.²⁴ In his book on community development, Poston reported his experiences as director of two university community development centers. He urged that communities consider their problems within a highly organized framework of self-study and action with wide citizen support and participation.²⁸ Hoiberg suggests from his work in Nebraska that a project method can be used to solve separate problems.¹² In another study of community development, Miller found that successful programs were related to a high degree of citizen participation, an absence of sectional interests, low turnover of leaders, and attempts to involve large numbers of citizens.²⁰

It should be pointed out that all of these approaches are based on the application of university extension to small communities. No methodology has yet been developed as a model of extension in large urban areas. Nevertheless, as the extension of university programs and activities continues, it will be necessary for the organizations to continually and diligently examine and evaluate their programs so as to not duplicate or negate the efforts of other public or private agencies.

URBAN EXTENSION

Briefly, urban extension is, in its present form, a quite recent development. In a recent article by Adams and Hodge on early city planning instruction, a statement on urban extension cited its influence from the land grant colleges and universities offering city planning courses.¹ The roots of urban extension in the cooperative and university extension enterprises is again emphasized. The recent Ford Foundation report suggested that universities should test the feasibility of providing urban areas with services analogous to those offered by the land grant colleges and universities to the rural, agricultural communities.²⁶

Other individuals and agencies have supported the need for an urban extension service. Notable among these have been the President of the United States, Lyndon B. Johnson, in his speech at the dedication of the Irvine campus of the University of California on June 20, 1964. He stated that he could foresee the day when an urban extension service would be established to do for urban America what the cooperative extension service did for rural America.¹⁵

A plea for an educational service to improve urban life was voiced a few years ago by Eugene Johnson. He recommended an urban life service similar to the cooperative extension service to provide an unifying philosophy of urban life, to facilitate planning for development, to improve urban agencies, and to satisfy individual needs in the city.¹⁴ Rogers has supported this recommendation with a proposal for citizenship education through urban affairs centers.³⁰ Osman, the Brookings Institution, advocated urban university professorships of individual cities, and Heald, Ford Foundation, stated

that urban universities should expand their services to their cities by research, conferences, and institutes on city problems; services to the public school system, hospitals, local industry, the professions, and cultural institutions; and training of city planners and other urban specialists.⁴

Research, education and extension activities in urban studies have expanded considerably since 1961. The explosion of literature in the urban field in this period is equal in quantity to all that published in the past up to that time. This proliferation of knowledge and data has been propagated more by university related urban studies agencies than by any other factor. It is significant to note that the majority of these urban studies centers have been established in the past decade.

Deming has cited the forces shaping our urban communities as the impact of population growth and movement; the immigration from rural areas and small towns; the technological advances and impacts; the changes in standards of living; the emergence of new regional cities; and the impact of new capital facilities requirements.⁸ The problems facing our cities had been listed by Cox as resulting from the technological changes occurring faster than man's ability, or willingness, to deal with the results in a planned and sensible manner.⁷

The cities have not sat idly by while decay set in and destroyed them, although one must admit that much is left to be desired with the present condition of many of our American cities in respect to traffic congestion, slum housing, inadequate public

facilities and services, unemployment, and many other urban problems. Nevertheless, efforts have been made to alleviate and solve these serious conditions that blight and constrict our urban places. The federal government has been active for a number of years with programs in slum clearance and urban renewal, transportation development, public facilities loans, housing programs, and economic development projects. The major problem is still one of renewal of the dwellers of the cities. Until this is done, there will be little improvement in the situation of our cities.

The contention of this writer is that the urban universities and colleges must become partners with the cities in alleviating the problems of urbanization. Private foundations would also be involved, as well as the federal government. Patton supports this proposal with a claim that higher education in the future is going to be shaped by the small group of great urban universities, public and private, that become involved in the life of the urban areas about them.²⁵

Gutman and Popenoe conducted a study of urban studies centers in urban universities and determined that the best known centers were those that focused primarily on influencing policy over the long run and indirectly through development of basic knowledge about the structure and function of cities. They also found that the organizations most concerned with the direct extension of university knowledge were guided by three emerging models of extension: an emphasis on applied research; an involvement in educational programs; and involvement in direct service to the community.¹¹

The diversity of types of urban studies centers, as well as the many models of urban extension, indicate the need for a study of organizational structure and functions in urban extension. This study of urban extension would have to consider the many variations that are indicated by the Gutman-Popenoe study and based on the experience of the recent Ford Foundation efforts in urban extension. This program was the support of ten university institutions by Ford grants to provide a laboratory for university social science departments like those with which medical groups work.

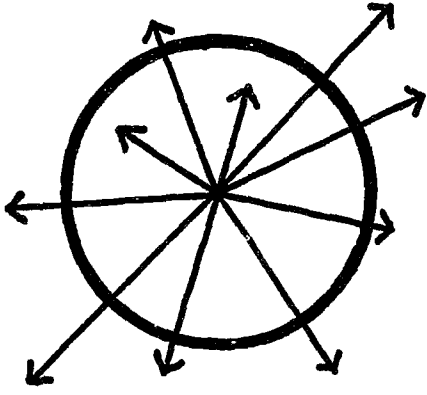
With the establishment of the federal Department of Housing and Urban Development and the enactment of the Higher Education Act of 1965, the impetus for urban extension activities by universities has been forthcoming in strong measure. The Higher Education Act calls for the establishment of a National Advisory Council on Extension and Continuing Education, consisting of the commissioner and one representative from the Departments of Agriculture, Commerce, Defense, Labor, Interior, State, and Housing and Urban Development, and the Office of Economic Opportunity, and other federal agencies with extension responsibilities. The Act provides for the assistance in the solution of community problems such as housing, poverty, government, recreation, employment, youth opportunities, transportation, health, and land use. The programs of the Department of Housing and Urban Development include many of the same functions, as well as special programs in urban renewal, community planning and metropolitan development.

Bebout developed a list of seven types of urban extension functions in a study several years ago in connection with the work

of Gutman and Popenoe. These functions included clearinghouse, consultant, convener, conferences, special education, public information and demonstrations. He also extracted six types of urban "agents" involved in urban extension. These were the urban adjustment agent, the community development agent, the neighborhood civic secretary, the area coordinator, the urban specialist in extension, and the urban general agent.⁵

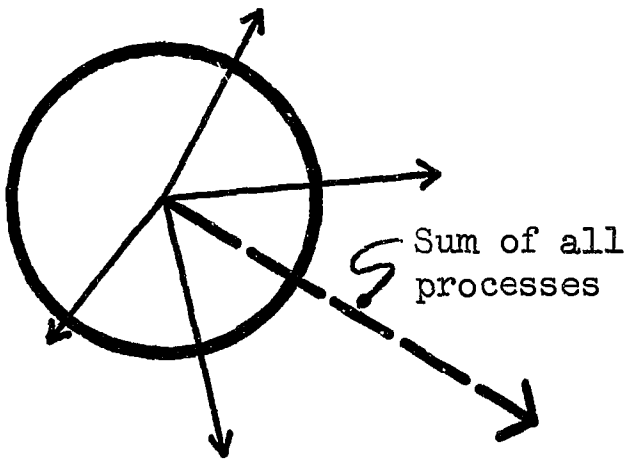
Another consideration in urban extension is in the realm of values and goals. Since urban extension is problem oriented, it offers a variety of ways in which the university could make its resources available to those seeking to define and solve problems that are characteristic of urbanization. Bebout also found that urban extension is differentiated from a great many activities that have long been bringing specific kinds of knowledge from the university to the urban users, but it is still an idea seeking more precise definition to test its potential.⁵ Petshek defined the role of urban extension for city universities as becoming clear as different institutions experiment in a variety of communities and by thoughtful analyses and discussions gradually formulate a pattern.²⁶

Although it is recognized that urban extension as a program includes activities of a type that for a long time have been bringing useful urban knowledge from the university to the community, it is the writer's view that urban extension is a separate and distinct process in contrast to cooperative (agricultural) extension and to university (adult education) extension. It is recognized that the process requires extensive study and testing, particularly in respect to "community development" and "planning" concepts.



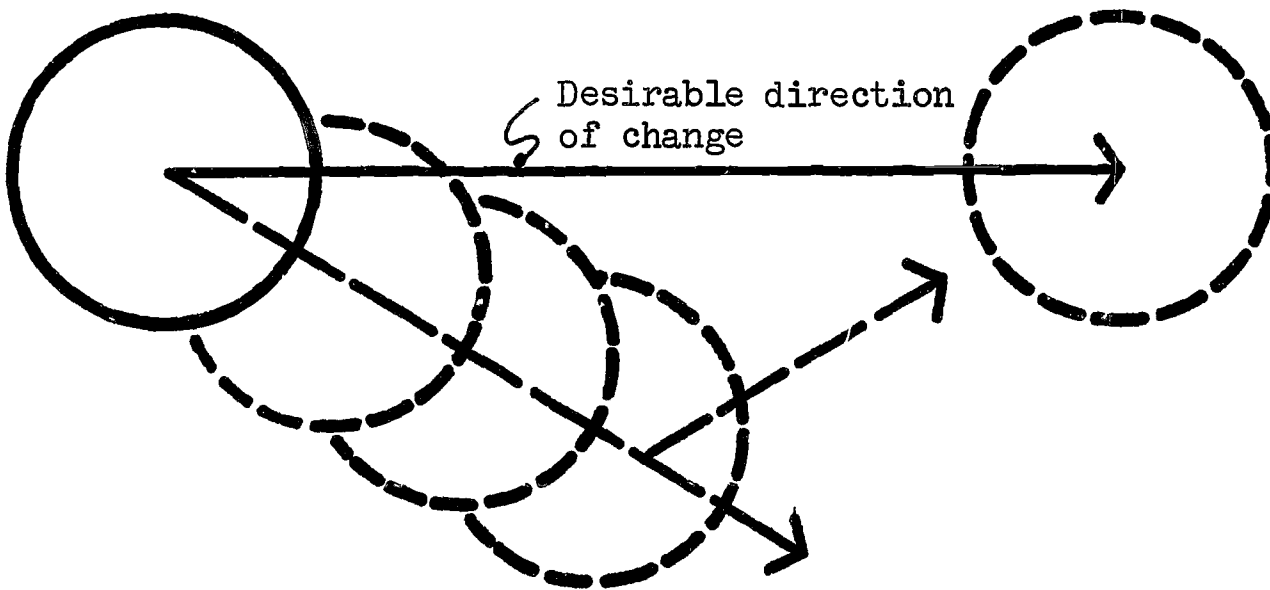
STAGE ONE

The community is a setting of many complicated processes, acting simultaneously, to cause change



STAGE TWO (URBAN THEORY)

The planner must simplify these processes into four basic aspects; social, economic, political and physical, to understand the direction of change in the community



STAGE THREE (PLANNING THEORY)

In understanding the basic direction of change of the community and its components, the planner may propose action which will modify one or all components to achieve desirable change

FIG. 1 DIAGRAM OF URBANIZATION AND PLANNING RELATIONSHIPS

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