DEVELOPMENT OF A CONCEPTUAL DECISION MODEL AS AN AID IN INCREASING THE RELIABILITY OF PLANNING DECISIONS

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DEVELOPMENT OF A CONCEPTUAL DECISION MODEL AS AN AID IN INCREASING THE RELIABILITY OF PLANNING DECISIONS.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Planning is an accepted process in the majority of communities today.\(^1\) This process is a continual one which involves several persons within the community. The professional planner and the planning board, consisting of laymen, are generally the first persons involved in the process. They are charged with the responsibility of preparing and updating the master plan and its supporting documents. The preparation of these documents generally involves the scientific gathering and analysis of data and the projection of this data to provide an estimate of the scope of facilities and services that will be required by the community in the future. A professional planner may then use the analyzed data to formulate the planning documents. The planning process to this point has involved only the planners and their methods. The plans are not an end unto themselves; however, as the community will realize no benefit from the planning until the plans are implemented and the goals and objectives set forth in the plans are officially recognized.

The planning documents constitute the foundation of the next phase of the planning process, that of adopting the necessary public policies and legislation to implement the plans and start the community towards the fullfillment of the established goals and objectives.

At this point in the planning process, the process role shifts to the governing body. While the plans and decisions of the planners were based on scientific analysis and planning expertise, the decisions of the governing body are subject to different decision inputs. The governing body is subject to
political considerations, special interest pressures, and needs for compromise which do not affect the planners. The members of the governing body are normally laymen, so far as planning is concerned, who could not be expected to correctly interpret the planning documents and to properly evaluate the planning aspects of all the decision variables.

The effectiveness of planning is mutually dependent upon the plans and the implementation processes and documents. The shift in planning responsibility from the planners and their plan formulation role to the governing body and its implementation role constitutes a major problem in the planning process.

The purpose of this study is to formulate and test a conceptual decision model for use by governing bodies in analyzing planning related decisions.

A decision model which could aid in the evaluation of the decision inputs to determine their relevance to the planning process and to minimize the effects of considering an improper input, or incorrectly evaluating a proper one, would greatly increase the reliability of the governing body's decision. To demonstrate the benefits of the model, a case study will be made of four major planning methods or decisions from the city of Manhattan, Kansas. These planning methods or decisions will then be compared with the model to determine whether or not they are creditable methods or decisions which are consistent with the planning process and community goals.

It is understood that no model can transform the art of planning decision formulation into a science and that is not the intent; rather, if an individual decision maker has a model incorporating all the component elements affecting the decision and is versed in the use of the model within the decision field, he will have the utmost chance to make a creditable judgement which reflects the least public and personal bias.

REFERENCES

1. Rabinovitz - Pg. 3
CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Decision making has been the subject of numerous studies; these studies have been directed toward all types of decision makers and with several different objectives in mind. The specific purpose of the study will substantially determine the approach used and the form of the results. Many of these studies have focused on a specific decision input or variable, the most prevalent of which is the power structure.

The majority of the studies have as the primary goal the determination of how decisions should be made and generally the results are more theoretical than practical. Many of these studies are predictive in nature in that they attempt to extrapolate a given set of decision variables to determine how and to what extent future decisions can be predicted. Bolan's decision analysis framework attempts to determine how decisions are made rather than how they ought to be made.\(^1\) It is Bolan's belief, and a creditable one, that if one analyzes how decisions are actually made, he may tailor his proposal or presentation to the existing situation and thereby increase his chances of success.

The majority of the literature on decision making focuses on the scientific and analytical approaches to the decisions of business executives and organizations. Several techniques have been developed for analytically determining the constraints to a management type decision. These constraints in turn may be incorporated into analytical decision models. A few of the models are developed to the point that the irreducible elements of the decision inputs are the only significant ones left to human judgement. Such a scientific approach to management decision making is possible when there is a singular, tangible decision objective. Extensive use of business decision modeling is possible in
part due to:

1. The decision making organization is primarily interested in how the decision affects its own organizational goals, the normal goal being the highest profit.

2. Social considerations within the organization concerning employment stability, family displacement, etc. are practically non-existent.

3. The decision making executive or group does not receive input from all levels of persons concerned with the decision and the decision once made, is final and mandatory and not subject to general organizational discussion and publicity.

4. The evaluation of the decision is simple and the results are easy to determine.

5. The decision makers are generally emotionally detached from the decision in that it usually affects a group of persons other than those with whom they are closely associated or a community other than the one in which they reside.

6. There are considerably fewer irreducible elements in the decision inputs.

No decision model based on premises similar to those outlined above would be applicable to public decision making, but the use of models and particularly the development of constraints, is a proven method of increasing decision reliability.

Psychologists have made many studies of the individual decision maker with some emphasis on group interaction and dynamics. The psychologists' studies were somewhat less scientific than those of the business analysts, but still do not closely approach the complexities of public decision making.

Public decision making has five unique traits which set it apart from
other forms of decision formulation:

1. The number of people involved in the decision process and the vague boundaries of the authority of each. Each of the members of the planning body and the governing body are subject to decision inputs, which each will evaluate in accordance with his individual experience and character.

2. The nature of local governmental structures influences decisions. As opposed to most private organizational pyramids, a local governmental structure places the ultimate decision power in the hands of the layman rather the expert. The degree to which each individual decision maker will accept the advice and recommendations of the expert is dependent upon that decision makers personality. The part personality plays in decision formulation will be discussed later.

3. The decision maker is making the decision for all members of the community and the social and financial costs of his decision are borne by the community as a whole and not by the decision maker himself.

4. The decision is seldom guided by constraints to the extent of other types of decisions. Public decisions are often void of the background of experience and history which form a basis for evaluation of other types of decisions and which also provide the data for analytical analysis and the subsequent formulation and projection of decision constraints. The continuity of government generally does not exist to the extent that any individual decision maker has any substantial backlog of experience by which to guide his decisions.

5. The decision is made in a climate unfavorable to rational decision making. The decision maker is the focus of abundant input by citizens
of the community. Each taxpayer has, and deserves, the right to make his opinions known. It is understandable that some of these inputs are biased, conflicting or contradictory. Endorsement by influential citizens and the pressure from special interest groups can create an unfavorable climate for rational decision making. Publicity surrounding public decision making is desirable, but it can create obstacles to the formulation of unbiased public decisions.

These traits, singularly or in concert, have little effect on the specific data which may be considered in the decision processes, but provide latitude for non-tangible influences. These non-tangible influences constitute a part of what will later be referred to as the irreducible inputs to a decision. These non-tangibles are evaluated entirely by the decision maker as there is no way to analytically process non-quantifiable inputs. Studies of how individuals act and interact provide the only clues as to how these irreducible inputs influence the ultimate decision.

The irreducible inputs can be divided into two main subcategories:
1. Irreducibles influencing individual decision makers  
2. irreducibles influencing group actions of the decision making body.

The primary irreducible in the first category is the basic personality of the decision maker; this would most likely be a determinant of the physical and sociological environment of the individual and may be indicated by such attachments or activities as occupation, social organizations and political affiliation. This relationship of personality to decision making has been the subject of considerable study by psychologists and is mentioned here as an aid in understanding the factors which may not be subject to normal consideration within the decision model.

Several assumptions are made regarding the effect of personality on
decision making. The primary assumption is that personality traits are durable and relatively unchanging over time, so that the effects of personality on one decision will affect later decisions in a similar manner. Another assumption is that personality has generality such that its impact on one decision may allow prediction of its effect on later decisions of a similar nature. One argument supportive of these two assumptions is that personality determinants of an individual's actions are so strong that external situations and inputs do not significantly influence his behavior.

In the consideration of evidence, man's natural response is to develop a scale for the comparison of that evidence. It is natural that the initial scale against which the evidence is measured is the decision makers own environment, customs and mores. The individual is, therefore, likely to base his initial judgement on personal rather than objective principles. It is entirely understandable for a businessman to view the desireability of new industry differently from a person outside the business community. To further consider the evidence, the secondary scale of measurement is the system based upon the experiences and suggestions of close friends or respected individuals. The decision may eventually be based more upon the decision of another individual within the decision making body or upon an endorsement of the proposal by some specific group or individual. The last two influences mentioned generally enjoy a higher priority as the size of the decision making body increases. The hierarchy of these two influences is somewhat dependent upon the relative positions of the various decision makers; that is, they would likely be a more important consideration in a strong mayor-council form of government than in a commission type government where all commissioners are political equals.

The second group of irreducibles were those which influenced group action
of the decision making body. Prior to reviewing some of the studies on the dynamics of group action, it would be well to consider a few of the qualities of group decisions which are not present in individual decisions. The initial question could well be as to the advantage, or disadvantage, of group decisions as opposed to individual decisions.

Group decision bodies can produce more efficient decisions in some types of situations, this is especially true where overlapping elements of the decision can be handled in parallel by singular members of the body. Tasks which by their nature preclude more than one person at a time contributing his share to the solution are not aided timewise by group decisions. It has been concluded that the decision process can take longer when this type of problem is the subject for a group decision.\textsuperscript{7}

In general, group decisions are superior to individual decisions; this is particularly true when the decision involves either creative thinking, a broad range of knowledge, or cases where recall of prior data is required. This is not to say that a group decision is always superior to the best individual decision.

Dashiell conducted experiments involving staged incidents which were viewed by several witnesses. Each witness then wrote a detailed account of his version of the incident. A panel of members was selected to review the incident and to write a group report on their findings. The reports of the individuals were more complete than the group report, but the group report was more reliable and clearly more accurate than the individual reports by virtue of the fact that all members of the group had to agree, that is to come to the same conclusion, as to the act and its meaning, before any specific point could be included in the report.\textsuperscript{8}

Shaw conducted experiments on the way group members handled information
in arriving at group decisions. When two alternatives were present, the "leader" mentioned both alternatives and tried to sell the other members of the group on the alternate he thought best. When the possible alternates were increased to six, the "leader" would mention the six without trying to sell any one. He acted more as the custodian of the information without trying to lead the group decision. The participation of the non-leader members of the group thus increased in the instances in which more information and more alternatives were available.9

Two factors were not considered in the above experiments which may have affected the results somewhat. First, the group make-up was not established. A governing body would tend to consist more of individuals with stronger constitutions and beliefs than the average individual. Secondly, there was no mention in the experiment of decision inputs or pressures arising from outside the group itself.

The simple fact that one is working with others as a part of a group has an effect on his behavior. When a person works in the presence of other persons, a variety of social motives become relevant which are not evoked when the individual works alone. When an individual works with others, he may work harder to improve his prestige. He may wish to gain a reputation of getting along and being cooperative.10 The presence of others creates new implications for the decision maker.

Experimental procedures have evaluated subjects propensity for risk taking both before and after group discussion of the risk taking proposition. These experiments showed the subjects were more willing to take risks after group discussions. This was not attributed to a shifting of responsibility, but rather to the greater influence of those persons who were more prone to take risks; that is, those persons were more influential in the group processes than
the more conservative individuals.

No studies were found that incorporated the irreducibles of personal pressure on a decision maker. It would be difficult to adequately simulate pressure in a controlled experiment. Pressure, whether from within or outside the group, is undoubtedly one of the greatest irreducible factors in group dynamics. The extent of group interaction is dependent upon the individuals within the group and the nature of their task and proves exceedingly difficult to predict.

REFERENCES

1. Bolan, pg. 301
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3. Brim, pg. 233
4. Ibid, pg. 46
5. Ibid, pg. 47
6. Shaw, pg. 29
7. Dashiel, pg. 44
8. Collins, pg. 44
9. Ibid, pg. 29
10. Ibid, pg. 33
11. Ibid, pg. 44
CHAPTER III
THE CONCEPTUAL DECISION MODEL

Public decisions relating to planning are among the more difficult of public decisions. The five traits unique to public decision making, which were listed earlier, are generally present to the greatest extent in planning related decisions such as the determination of land use policy, social programs and the planning for major physical improvements in the community. Extreme examples would be decisions providing for planning implementation or changes such as financing of controversial projects and programs, or changing of zoning or street functions, for example, residential to collector, collector to arterial, etc. The decisions which result in tangible, visible entities tend to stimulate each citizen and require, to an extent, the individual citizen to evaluate the decision.

The planning process is a combination of the professional expertise of the planners, the judgements of the advisory planning body which may be composed of laymen and the political body which provides for implementation of the plans formulated. This process has been ideally formulated and would provide for an efficient and successful completion of the planning process. This ideal assumes full faith and compliance in the planning process by all individuals associated with planning; this is not always the case.

There are occasions when planning decisions may not be made in the normal manner. These exceptions occur when the normal planning processes would lead to land speculation, legal action or other situations which may cause additional expense to the community. Executive session actions and decisions exclude positive inputs, such as public opinion, as well as preventing the objectionable actions listed. The question of the propriety of executive sessions has been
debated at length with no consensus emerging. The question is rapidly becoming moot however, as the popularity of "open meeting" or "sunshine" laws increases.

The location of public facilities has historically been one of the primary tenants of community planning and today is increasingly important due to the social aspects of facility location. Hence, some of the basic community structural nuclei may not be located through the normal planning process without the possibility of considerable added expense. In some communities a notable lack of cooperation has precluded the handling of this function in the normal manner and has led each authority empowered to locate its own facilities to act separately; hence, school sites are determined by school boards, hospitals by hospital boards, etc.

Planning has become the recognized and accepted method by which order can best be brought to our growing communities. Planning may receive only tacit recognition from a majority of the community, but with a master plan, and in some instances additional special subject plans, being the mandatory prerequisite for federal monetary grants, the official recognition of planning is a community necessity. Unfortunately it is this mandatory recognition, and not the belief and objective analysis of the planning process, that prompts some communities to provide for the preparation of the necessary plans.

When the community preparing the plan has no staff planner to provide guidance, interpretation, updating and advocacy of the plan, the plan generally is considered to be a static document and loses much of its value. Plans are not an end unto themselves, but a guide in the continual planning process. When a plan is considered otherwise, it does not lend the proper perspective to the necessary implementation decisions.

The plan itself is the product of reasonably scientific methods of data collection and analysis and the considerable expertise necessary to transform
the input data, policies and goals into a viable document.

The completion of the plan does not terminate the planning process, but this event does represent a major shift in process roles. Prior to this shift, the major characters in the process have been the planners and they have made the major decisions by reasonably well established and accepted standards and practices. After the shift, the responsibility falls to the governing body to reach the decisions of implementation. The decisions of the governing body are subject to inputs of a different type and origin from those considered by the planners. The decision methods of the governing body are not as stable and definitive as those of the planners.

It would be wrong to assume that more than a few decision makers are capable of properly interpreting the theory and technicalities of a master plan. This task of interpretation is normally the duty of a staff planner, if one is available to serve the decision making body. Interpretations would unlikely be equally and unquestionably accepted by all members of any governing body. In the event no planner is available to perform this task there would likely be an even greater divergence of interpretations and resultant opinions since the position would represent a layman's judgement. The likely position of each decision maker would be based more upon his personal attitudes and mores than upon the planning implications of the decision.

A decision would be much more sound and defensible if it could be based solely upon the planning and community benefit factors involved. Any dichotomy which could separate the various decision inputs and establish a hierarchy for the individual elements of the decision would increase the reliability of the decision. Unfortunately, for this type of decision it is not possible to analytically determine decision constraints to aid in the evaluation of the numerous decision inputs. It is possible, however, to develop a conceptual
decision making model incorporating such empirical data as is available and using logic and planning expertise to formulate the model.

A decision model, to be useful, should be universal, simple and easy to evaluate. Such a model would be a valuable tool in isolating the relevant inputs to a decision while establishing a hierarchy for the inputs and also for emphasizing the full spectrum of implications of the decision.

The decision inputs of any situation may be separated and placed into four general categories: 1. Physical Elements 2. Social Elements 3. Economic Elements 4. Irreducible Considerations. These four categories of inputs will all be evaluated within the decision field. The ultimate decision could be any decision within the legal constraints; the decision is, however, guided further by the irregular constraints of ethics, and aesthetics. The decision model will aid in extracting the optimum solution from the number of possible solutions. It is recognized that there exists an interaction between the three major input categories of the physical, social and economic elements, but the relationship between these three fields is best judged by their relationship to the ultimate decision. For each type of decision, there will be a particular hierarchy among the three input categories which is dependent upon the specific type of decision. A proposal for a zoning change would normally have physical considerations as the highest priority of consideration; whereas a public housing program would normally require that the sociological element assume the highest priority.

The physical input category of input data will be analyzed first not because of importance relative to the other groups, but because it is the visible, tangible entity and the method by which sociological and economic planning programs are normally initiated. For the purpose of discussion, the physical proposals shall be considered to be in one or the other of two groups,
This book contains numerous pages that were bound without page numbers.

This is as received from customer.
EXPLANATION OF PLATE I

The Conceptual Decision Model illustrating the generalized decision process inputs and their relationships to each other and to the decision field.
THIS BOOK CONTAINS NUMEROUS PAGES WITH DIAGRAMS THAT ARE CROOKED COMPARED TO THE REST OF THE INFORMATION ON THE PAGE. THIS IS AS RECEIVED FROM CUSTOMER.
namely objective proposals or non-objective proposals. An objective proposal is defined as one which conforms to the goals and objectives of the master plan and or its supporting documents. A proposal will be considered non-objective when it is counter to the established goals and objectives or when it can not be shown to be supportive of them. The physical considerations may vary depending upon whether or not the proposal is an objective one.

Considerations in this physical input category would be the availability of, or potential of providing, power, water and sewer service, and the type and adequacy of the required modes of transportation. Street capacities and pedestrian safety, surface and sub-surface storm water drainage, and the methods of solid waste disposal must be considered. The distance from service functions such as fire stations, police stations, and maintenance facilities must be in conformance with good planning practices and the established community goals. Protection of air and water quality would be a consideration on certain types of proposals. An important, but often neglected, consideration of the physical category is the present relationship of the decision object to its future environment. If the decision object is viewed as an independent entity, rather than in relation to the present and future community, an important decision input has been neglected.

Several decision inputs would need to be considered for either positive or negative effects dependent upon the proposal being an objective or non-objective one. A paramount example of this type of input consideration would be site drainage. Would surface runoff damage the proposed facility or adjacent property? Would the drainage contribute to either surface or sub-surface pollution? Would the proposal change the surface drainage patterns or the porosity of the soil sufficiently to overburden downstream drainage facilities?

Service area dispersion is a prime decision input. A proposal should fit
EXPLANATION OF PLATE II

Physical variables within the decision model physical input category.
PHYSICAL ELEMENTS

1. Safety
2. Topography
3. Access To Transportation
4. Availability Of Service Functions (Services)
5. Availability Of Service Facilities (Utilities)
6. Compatibility Of Neighboring Land Uses
7. Relationship To Other Community Structural Elements
8. Relationship To Neighborhood And Community At End Of Term Of Service
into the overall community development plan. Services should be grouped at dispersed locations such that a nodular form of development occurs rather than strip development. This requires consideration of the location of similar facilities or services and also a serious consideration and analysis of the travel time and distance which would be eliminated by the development of the proposal. The elimination of traffic automatically eliminates the deteriorating blight that normally accompanies traffic on other than commercial streets and highways.

Safety considerations take many forms. Most pronounced and publicized of these considerations is pedestrian safety, particularly the safety of children going to and from school. Ingress and egress from properties, traffic volumes, highway geometrics and speed limits fall within this group of considerations.

Location of public facilities such as parks, schools and recreational facilities relative to the location under consideration may be important to some proposals.

Caution must be exercised when a decision maker is evaluating visual image as a decision input. A technique frequently used by the proposers of developments is to compare the present appearance of the site with the proposed appearance. This visual improvement approach should not supersede the planned objective for the community. This approach is commonly used when the proposal involves a change in land usage, particularly a change from residential to a less restrictive usage. Visual image as a decision input is more discretionary in nature than any of the others and does not lend itself to the establishment of any limitations by analytical methods. Accepted empirical processes of visual analysis are the only guidelines for visual evaluation. It is recognized that a passive comparison is the evaluation used by some decision makers; that is the simple comparison of the proposed with the existing. This evaluation is not a valid basis for decision as it may result in a decision
contrary to the established goals. This point will be the subject of further discussion later.

The sociological factors of decision input should be assessed for discrimination, disruption of home or neighborhood, displacement of individuals and recognition of age, language, health or similar conditions which may present unusual problems for certain elements of the community. The interaction of the people and their environment is an essential consideration, particularly with environmental factors of population density, poverty and inadequate housing contributing to the general urban problems of health and crime. Actions should guard against the invasion-succession process which tends to end in economic and to some extent racial segregation. A careful evaluation of these sociological factors is necessary to prevent what Stuart Chapin terms the "unplanned consequences" of human behavior.\footnote{Chapin presents a cyclic model of group behavior which begins with the social needs and wants; these needs and wants determine the formulation of goals and ultimately a plan. The implementation decisions cause unpredictable changes which alter the wants and needs, thus completing the cycle.}

To explore the consequences of these actions and the individuals involved would be worthy of volumes in itself and certainly is not within the scope of this text, but the situations mentioned will adequately serve to alert the decision maker as to the instances in which he must be aware of the sociological decision inputs.

As was the case with certain physical factors there exist both positive and negative considerations of economic factors. Objective analysis of economic factors may reveal investments to advance the economy, increase the tax base, or provide greater employment opportunities. Analytical analysis or economic modeling are methods which may be used to determine the true economic effects
EXPLANATION OF PLATE III

Sociological variables within the decision model sociological input category.
SOCIOLOGICAL ELEMENTS

1. Health Effects
2. Personal Safety
3. Non-Discriminatory
4. General Neighborhood Stability
5. Protection Of General Social Environment
6. Recognition Of Unique Situations (Age, Disability, Etc.)
EXPLANATION OF PLATE IV

Economic variables within the decision model economic input category.
ECONOMIC ELEMENTS

1. Economic Base
2. Multiplier Effects
3. Increases Services Required
4. What Groups Are Benefited
5. What Groups Must Pay Costs
of a decision. Economic impact studies may be run to properly evaluate the significance of a decision. A decision providing for new industry may be ill advised if the subsidiary obligations of the plant establishment negate the benefits from the same. A new industry will normally result in some increase in tax base, but the additional tax revenue generated may not offset the cost of providing public services required as a result of the new industry; hence, the increased community payroll may benefit some elements of the community at the expense of increased taxes to the remainder.

Irreducible inputs may be of any type and form and depend primarily upon the individual decision maker receiving them. Endorsement of proposals by influential persons, or persons in a position of influence, may be effective in altering the decisions of some individuals while having no effect on the decisions of others. Positive influences through offers of credit, job advancement or investment opportunities may influence some decision makers while others may be vulnerable to economic pressures such as refusal of credit, loss of job or other such recourses.

The type magnitude and effectiveness of pressures varies not only with the individuals involved, but with basic community structure and mores. The attempts at decision influence may come from individualists in some communities while originating with cohesive power groups in others.²

As important as the irreducible input to the eventual decision is the decision maker's handling of it. The effects of personality traits on decision making was discussed earlier in this text and will not be repeated here; however, the decision maker's personality is extremely important in decision outcome.

It is apparent that the irreducibles discussed thus far are individualistic rather than community wide in nature. The irreducible stimuli substitute influence in place of fact, and encourage unilateral consideration of
EXPLANATION OF PLATE V

Irreducible variables within the decision model irreducible input category.
IRREDUCIBLE CONSIDERATIONS

1. Pressure
2. Personality
3. Group Dynamics
4. Decision Environment
5. Decision Makers Mores
6. Endorsement Of Proposals
some specific data rather than comprehensive consideration of all the data. The obstacle to effective planning occurs when this attempt is successful.

One other type of irreducible input which deserves special mention here although referred to previously, is the excessive injection of the decision maker's personal experiences and beliefs. For example, a person who has been involved in a serious accident may have more pronounced concerns for safety.

It is recognized that the four decision input categories are subject to certain inter-relationships. It is obvious that the location of an industry will have physical, sociological and economic impacts, even though the primary objective in seeking the industry was to improve the economic base of the community. Similarly, urban renewal programs with the primary emphasis on the sociological considerations involve physical decision elements. While these elemental relationships are normally complimentary, they must be observed lest in some specific instance they would be incompatible.

From our conceptual model, it is observed that the four input element categories are considered within the decision field. The decision field is determined by the general community attitudes and philosophies coupled with the natural resources and structural form of the community. The quantity and type of natural resources, ethnic and racial composition of the population, existing types of industry and potential for future development are some of the permanent or semi-permanent conditions determining the structural composition of the decision field. The attitudes and philosophies determining a community's decision field may be either permanent or temporary. Attitudes on education, social customs and community growth are examples of permanent philosophies. Temporary attitudes may be the result of recent accidents, recent unpopular decisions, sharp rises in taxes and other items of a "timely" nature.
EXPLANATION OF PLATE VI

The decision field of the decision model within which the input variables must be considered.
1. Planner's recommendations
2. Community's goals and objectives
3. Natural resources
4. Industrial climate
5. Temporary attitudes
6. Structural form of community
7. Ethnic and racial composition
8. Community attitudes and philosophies
The decision field of each individual community is somewhat unique. An outstanding example of this difference in community attitudes would be the present attitudes on industry; while some communities actively seek new industries other communities discourage them. Another example of differences in community attitudes is that of safety considerations; traffic hazards are more prevalent and much less opposed in more urbanized areas than the smaller, quieter communities.

There are two major factors in the decision field which deserve special attention; these are the staff or consultant planner's recommendations and the community's goals and objectives as set forth in the planning documents. The importance of these two factors are among the most difficult to quantify of any within the decision field. The majority of the variables within the decision field are generally quantifiable, reasonably stable and unchanging over a time span measured in years. They are normally intangible and impersonal although the temporary attitudes may be emotionally charged.

The importance of the planner's recommendations is a variable within the decision field and is partially dependent upon the strength with which the planner is able to document and support them. Personalities can be either a positive or a negative factor to consider. It is a reasonable assumption that the irreducible inputs and the planning considerations within the decision field are reciprocals in their influence upon the ultimate decision.

The model has noted the primary considerations in each of the individual categories and has presented a cursory glance at possible relationships among those individual categories. The decision makers should extract those relevant arguments from each category for consideration within the decision field.

The decision field has one firm restraint, that being the legal limitations on the decision. A legal limitation could prevent an optimum decision.
Two additional decision field restraints are ethics and aesthetics. The first of these restraints is personally set, but is subject to some exterior determination. The community size and character and the mores natural to the region are basic determinates of ethics. An act considered unethical in one area of the country may be the accepted practice in another. The freedom from criticism, which may be due to financial status or community position, may result in decisions being publically accepted which would be considered unethical if the decisions were formulated by less influential persons. Group psychology and action may result in group decisions which would be considered unethical if they were formulated by any one of the members individually.

Aesthetics are virtually non-legislative. Visual concepts which may be aesthetically pleasing in one context may be extremely displeasing in another. Each individual establishes his own criteria for acceptable visual characteristics, and there is little response to exterior inputs. Aesthetics as a constraint of the decision field should not be considered coincidental with a judgement based on the before and after visual image of the area. Aesthetic constraints could have an influence on a decision in the event that the primary proposal was otherwise acceptable and conformant to the established goals. An example could be the acceptance of a proposal contingent upon certain landscaping without which the proposal would be unacceptable. A judgement made on the before and after comparisons would be an evaluation of a physical input; this is not always a valid judgement as it may result in a decision contrary to the established community goals.

The decision model as formulated would provide for an objective input analysis which would allow a member of the governing body to consider the decision inputs in a more professional manner. The model would tend to force the recognition of all input variables rather than only those which a decision
maker would normally recognize and evaluate as a result of his personal ability and interests.

REFERENCES

1. Chapin, pg. 31
2. Rabinovitz, pg. 18
CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF CASE STUDIES IN MANHATTAN, KANSAS

The remainder of this text is devoted to case studies of four planning functions in Manhattan, Kansas which represent the basic functions of city planning, namely, zoning, location of public facilities, locations of elementary school sites in conjunction with the neighborhood concept in city planning, and the location of community structural elements which are established by private enterprise. These study areas are intended to be viewed as representative of the general methods and procedures prevailing in the community for performing such tasks and not as the abstract act of establishing a particular site or processing of a particular rezoning request. Neither should the cases be assumed to be peculiar to Manhattan, but as cases typical of the medium sized community.

The first of these cases pertains to Poyntz Avenue, the main street in Manhattan, but more importantly a street in the transitional process from residential to other land uses. The two major incidents which mark any study of this avenue are two rezonings which culminated a series of attempts to initiate commercial land uses along the avenue. The first of these was the rezoning for a service station at the intersection of Poyntz and Seventeenth Street and the second was the rezoning for a supermarket a block to the east. Each of these cases demonstrates the reality of the initial premise of this text; that is the existence of differing decision inputs, and differing evaluations of the same inputs, which are considered by the planning board from those which are considered by the governing body.

The second case study demonstrates the method used in determining the location of public facilities. The two sites used in this case study are the
EXPLANATION OF PLATE VII

Map of Manhattan, Kansas. Numbered locations denote those involved in decisions of which case studies were made.
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location of the Manhattan Public Library and the location for a major park adjacent to the city of Manhattan, namely Ci-Co Park.

The third case study involves the method by which elementary school sites are determined in the Unified School District No. 383 (Manhattan). This study is of the methods used in site selection rather than the study of any one specific site. The reason for this change from the other two case studies is that the majority of the location effort is done in executive session so that the meeting minutes are not revealatory of the actual location processes.

The fourth case study is of the site rezonings for the city's two major shopping centers, specifically the Westloop Center and the Blue Hills Center. These two centers were chosen to represent the community structural elements which are established by private enterprise.

To begin with the abstract case studies would exclude much important physical and philosophical background. A prologue is included to present the studies in their actual community context.

PROLOGUE TO CASE STUDIES:

The city of Manhattan, Kansas is a city which is predominately dependent upon Kansas State University for its existence; the university is the major employer in the city. The city has several light industries, but their payrolls do not constitute a significant impact upon the city nor do they substantially affect the community attitudes.

The period covered by this study is from 1960 to 1970. This period of time was selected for three primary reasons:

1. In 1960 the community was just beginning to overflow the original valley in which it was established.

2. Professional planning was officially recognized about the beginning of this period.
3. This author was employed in the engineering department of said City during this period of time and is personally acquainted with the major decisions, both recorded and unrecorded, during this period.

The population of Manhattan in 1960 was 19,370 and in 1971 was 25,671. These are Kansas Board of Agriculture figures which do not reflect the change in status of university students that is reflected by the federal census. The Board of Agriculture estimates are also made annually which provides a better picture of Manhattan's growth during this period. (See Plate VII) The land area of the city more than doubled, increasing from 2335 acres in January of 1960 to 4836 acres in December of 1970. Most of the annexed land was developed within a short time after annexation except for the year 1962 when annexations were made to provide for extensions of water mains to allow for future development, and the year 1968 when an industrial park was annexed which remains predominately vacant today.

STATUS OF PLANNING:

The city established its first planning board over fifty years ago. These planning boards were composed of laymen and for the most part were primarily fulfilling a statutory requirement. A review of the minutes of the planning commissions as late as the mid 1950's does not give one the impression that the board was fulfilling an extremely vital role in the development of the community. There were earlier examples of planning in Manhattan in the form of special studies related to traffic, drainage and utilities, but there was nothing done in the way of a comprehensive planning effort. The initial drive for professional planning occurred in June of 1957 when a professional planner was hired on a part time basis. This individual resigned the position after four months, but was subsequently appointed to the planning board from where he continued to emphasize the need for a staff planning effort.
EXPLANATION OF PLATE VIII

Population increase of Manhattan, Kansas for the period 1960-1970 by (a) Federal Census and (b) Kansas Board of Agriculture Census. Variance for years in which federal census was taken is due to different interpretation of residency status of university students. Kansas Board of Agriculture figures are estimates, not actual counts.
The first full time staff planner assumed his position in September of 1959 with the title of Director of Traffic and Planning; this position was subordinate to the city engineer. This director resigned at the end of 1960 and the duties he had performed were assumed by the city engineer. This situation continued until the position of Planning Director was created in the 1972 budget with the position being filled in May of 1972.

During the decade of the 1960's the first concerted planning efforts were made despite the fact that there was no staff planner. The first master plan was adopted by the planning board in December of 1963 and transmitted to the city commission in January of 1964. It would be well to note at this point that the letter of transmittal accompanying the master plan was signed by Mr. Arthur Torluemke, the chairman of the Manhattan planning board. This master plan was prepared by the firm of Wilson & Company - Engineers & Architects and is frequently referred to as the Manhattan Guide Plan, or the Wilson plan. This firm also prepared a capital improvements program, a set of subdivision regulations and a new zoning ordinance.

The Wilson plan was updated in 1968 by Oblinger & Smith, a firm of planners and landscape architects. This update, referred to as the Oblinger and Smith plan or the Manhattan Land Use Plan was adopted by the planning board November 18, 1968. In addition to the Land Use Plan, Oblinger & Smith prepared, or were responsible for the preparation of, an economic base study, a neighborhood analysis and another new zoning ordinance which became effective in July of 1969. The mayor of Manhattan at the time of the Oblinger & Smith planning efforts was Mr. Arthur Torluemke.

In May of 1966 and November of 1966, six months contracts were signed with the firm of Oblinger & Smith to provide consultant planning services for the city of Manhattan. These contracts called for the consultants to attend the
planning board meetings to provide guidance and counsel and to make recommendations when requested on any items of a planning nature. Oblinger & Smith also provided aid and guidance in the establishment of urban renewal and public housing programs.

A regional planning commission was formed in 1969 by Riley County, Pottawatomie County and the City of Manhattan. This commission must be considered a fledgling organization with none of the members of sufficient dedication to the organization to surrender any local powers to it; therefore, its effect on planning in Manhattan has been virtually nil at this writing, but it is a further recognition of planning by the city. The regional commission contracted, in 1971, for some studies to be made on a regional basis and in all probability the agency will continue to grow in stature and power. The agency has not as yet employed a staff planner.

This overview of the general planning climate will serve as a background for the case studies of planning methods and decisions to follow. The background is documented and constitutes a composite view, not the view of each individual who had a role in the planning process. There were individuals throughout the decade in many of the roles who were totally dedicated to the concepts of planning as well as those who were rather passive about its role in the community. It should be noted that the city was looking forward to capital improvements in the area of public facilities, transportation and environmental services which were eligible for partial federal funding. This situation inevitably gives rise to compulsory planning recognition on the part of some decision makers. The overall attitude on planning was not one of enthusiasm, but rather one of recognition.

COMPOSITION OF GOVERNING BODY:

The city of Manhattan adopted the city manager-commission form of govern-
ment by public referendum in 1950 with the ordinance establishing that form of
government being passed May 1, 1951. Under this form of government the city
manager serves at the pleasure of the city commission and is responsible for
administering the city organization in accordance with the ordinances and
policies established by the commission. The city commission is comprised of
five members elected at large on a non-partisan basis. The commission then
elects one of its members to serve as mayor; the mayor has no authority other
than that vested by virtue of his seat on the commission. As provided in Kansas
law, municipal elections are held in the odd numbered years with three commis-
ioners being elected at each election. The two candidates receiving the great-
est number of votes are seated for four years and the candidate receiving the
third greatest number of votes being seated for a two year term. Each new
commission, therefore, has at least two hold over members and may have more in
the case of candidates being re-elected to second terms.

During the period from 1960 to 1970 there were six different commissions
represented; the first and the last each being included in the study years
for one year each and the other four commissions for two years each. During
this interim there were nineteen different individuals serving city commission
terms; nine were businessmen, four were affiliated with Kansas State University,
three were self employed attorneys, two were insurance company officers and one
was a housewife. The commissions holding office on January 1 of each even
numbered year were composed as follows:

1960 - Businessmen - 3 University - 1 Insurance - 1
1962 - Businessmen - 3 University - 1 Attorney - 1
1964 - Businessmen - 1 University - 2 Attorney - 1 Housewife - 1
1966 - Businessmen - 2 University - 1 Attorney - 1 Housewife - 1
1968 - Businessmen - 3 Attorney - 2
* 1969 - Businessmen - 4  
1970 - Businessmen - 3  University - 1  Insurance - 1

* Attorney resigned in 1968 and a businessman was appointed to fill the unexpired term which ran until April, 1971.

The commissions during this decade have definitely been dominated by businessmen; in addition, two of the three attorneys holding seats were law partners who jointly owned business property within the central business district. With one exception, all commissions during this period had a plurality of businessmen and four of the six had a majority of businessmen. The complexion of the governing bodies during the decade of the 1960's was definitely business.

The general social make-up of these commissions was upper middle class who resided in the well established "better" neighborhoods. Since election of commissioners was on an at large basis, many areas of the community had no commissioners residing in the area. At one time four of the commissioners resided within the same elementary school district with the fifth commissioner residing in the adjacent district. The first commission member of a racial minority group was elected in 1969.

GEOGRAPHY OF MANHATTAN:

The original townplat of Manhattan, incorporated the area bounded on the north by Ratone Street east of Manhattan Avenue and by Leavenworth Street west of Manhattan Avenue, on the west by Manhattan Avenue north of City Park and by Delaware Avenue from Leavenworth Street south. The east and south boundaries were the old river channels. The south boundary has changed very little to the present day. The Blue River which formed the original eastern boundary changed its channel in the flood of 1903 and the present eastern boundary is coincidental with the new river channel.

Additions to the city prior to World War II accounted for most of the re-
remaining level land in the areas east and south of Kansas State University. Additions subsequent to World War II developed most of the remaining land in the original townsite drainage basin. The main development outside this drainage basin was the partial development of the "northview" area which began in the early 1950's. By 1960 the majority of the land in the "northview" area which could be developed within the service limits of the gravity sewer system had been developed, with the vast majority of the undeveloped land having already been platted and in the ownership of one developer.

In 1956 the first major development, College Hill Park Addition, outside the original drainage basin, except for the "northview" area, was begun. Rapid development of this area began in 1960 and an elementary school was constructed in 1961. College Hill Park Addition in northwest Manhattan is bounded by College Ave., Dickens Ave., Browning Ave. and Marlatt Ave.

The next major impetus to the development of the new drainage basin, that of Wildcat Creek, was the establishment of a county sewer main district in 1962 with actual construction of the sewer taking place in 1963. This sewer allowed for the development of approximately two thousand acres, the majority of which was gently rolling terrain with little or no rock present at a depth which would materially increase the cost of development. There are two main access roads to this valley development; Kansas highway K-18, a four lane highway which still exists in its same location and highway US-24 (Anderson Avenue) a two lane highway. Anderson Avenue is no longer a highway, but still exists in its same location; it was widened to four lanes in 1971. These two highways were connected by a two lane highway K-113 which ran along the west side of the creek valley. This highway was extended to the north in 1967 and now connects to the present highway US-24 approximately five miles north of Manhattan.
When the geography of Manhattan was considered, it was apparent that the emphasis on the development and continued growth of Manhattan was dependent upon the eastern portion of the Wildcat Creek drainage basin.

CASE STUDY NO. 1 -- POYNTZ AVENUE IN TRANSITION

The study of the transition of Poyntz Avenue in Manhattan, Kansas is significant not from the abstract view of one street in one community, but rather that it is a classic example of what has occurred, and continues to occur, in virtually every growing community in America. Increases in population, productivity and the number of automobiles have brought about a demand for more commercial area. The demand for more retail area is compounded by the need to accommodate the traffic to the areas and the parking of vehicles at their destination. The problem of providing for adequate vehicular traffic to the commercial areas while recognizing the deteriorating effect of this same traffic on certain types of land uses reaches an apex on the main streets of the community. The problem may also be stated as a conflict between the primary function of a traffic artery and its resultant visual image. A considerable degree of expertise is necessary to guide, within the economic restraints, redevelopment which will result in a pleasing visual image while at the same time not produce the self defeating side effect of reducing the traffic flow to the point where other streets begin to take on the primary street functions.

Poyntz Avenue is perhaps the best example of the differences between the planners decision inputs, methods of analysis and recommendations and those of the governing body. Poyntz Avenue is the main street in Manhattan; it bisects the central business district and at one time extended the entire distance from the eastern to the western city limits. The length from the eastern corporate limits, Wyandotte Avenue (1st street) to Seventeenth Street was
highway US-24 for many years; this route was moved in the fall of 1954. The portion of Poyntz from Third Street to Seventeenth Street still serves as highway K-18, a state highway of secondary importance. Seventeenth north of Poyntz was formerly the US-24 highway and south of Poyntz is still highway K-18. Seventeenth has for many years been an important and heavily traveled urban street.

Poyntz Avenue was constructed to carry four lanes of moving traffic in addition to providing for parking from Wyandotte to Seventeenth and two lanes of traffic from Seventeenth to Sunset Avenue. With the increased dimensions of the newer automobiles, the width can no longer provide this traffic flow comfortably within the central business district; this is the portion from Wyandotte to Juliette Avenue (7th Street).

Until 1954 the western terminus of Poyntz was at Evergreen Avenue, a quiet branch street which has a dead end leg to the south. The north leg connected to Sunset Avenue a lightly traveled street in the early 1950's, but one which became a major north-south street in the late 1950's. In 1954 Poyntz Avenue was extended to the west. This westward extension, coupled with Westwood Avenue, rejoined highway K-18. The city's only public high school was built adjacent to this westward extension of Poyntz in 1958 thus drastically increasing the importance and traffic volume of Poyntz west of Seventeenth Street. The former high school and the junior high school were located on Poyntz between Tenth and Eleventh Streets; therefore, the high school relocation did not substantially alter the traffic on the portion of Poyntz lying east of Seventeenth.

Also located along Poyntz Avenue are the public library, the two largest banks in the city, the municipal building and a major city park which is the site of the swimming pool. Interspersed among these buildings were older residences, many of them multi-family, office and professional buildings,
mortuaries, churches and four service stations. The service stations were the only land uses which could be considered to be major traffic generators; these were located at the corners of Eleventh, Twelfth, Sixteenth and Seventeenth Poyntz could have well been described, therefore, as an avenue in transition from residential to commercial. The commercial land uses existing in 1960 were strictly non-retail except for the service stations.

The attitude of the planning boards and those concerned with the essential movement of traffic along Poyntz was that the avenue should remain free from retail land uses to discourage further traffic generation and congestion. There was also much concern shown about the possible prospects of a linear central business district developing from Wyandotte Avenue to Seventeenth Street.

While the Wilson Guide Plan provides very little in the way of goals and objectives, and therefore makes no reference to the future of Poyntz, it was not surprising that the zoning ordinance which was written as a supporting document for implementation of the plan called for a B - residential zone to provide for multi-family residential redevelopment of Poyntz while restricting retail commercial activities.

In their 1969 Land Use Plan, Oblinger & Smith offered the following comments about Poyntz Avenue.

"It is recommended when residential uses are converted to other uses from Seventeenth Street to the downtown area along Poyntz Avenue, that the uses should be public uses, churches, offices, mortuaries or similar types of commercial activities. It is suggested that the types of commercial activity such as drive-in food facilities and service stations be prohibited along Poyntz Avenue as much as possible. Reasoning for prohibiting some types of commercial development along Poyntz is as follows:

1. Poyntz Avenue is one of the major traffic carrying streets between
the University and the downtown area. Thus, its traffic carrying capabilities should be retained as much as possible. If the street was stripped out with the drive-in food or service station types of facilities, left and right turning movements would appreciably reduce the practical capacity of this roadway.

2. Poyntz Avenue is an attractive major entrance to the downtown area from the west. It operates partially as a park boulevard in this section of the city with an attractive park located adjacent to the north side of Poyntz between Eleventh and Fourteenth Streets.

3. Residential property values would be depreciated by added traffic, noise and congestion in the immediate vicinity of the Avenue if high traffic generating commercial activities are permitted along this street.

It is recommended that offices and restricted commercial activities be contained in the areas along Poyntz Avenue as shown on the Land Use Plan.1

These statements were in agreement with their new zoning ordinance, adopted in July of 1969, which zoned property abutting Poyntz as C-1 Restricted Business from Juliette to Seventeenth to provide for business and professional offices while excluding retail commercial activities. There obviously was substantial agreement between the Guide Plan and the Land Use Plan on the future of Poyntz Avenue.

The first attempt to rezone Poyntz Avenue to a major retail commercial usage was the request from the J.S. Dillon & Sons food stores organization to rezone from B-Residential to C-Commercial a tract along the south side of Poyntz extending west three-hundred feet from Fourteenth Street. This request was heard by the planning board May 9, 1960, prior to the adoption of any plan, but during the period Manhattan's first full time Director of Traffic and Planning
was on the job. The planning board voted unanimously to recommend to the city commission that the requested rezoning be denied.

At the July 18, 1960 planning board meeting a letter from Mr. Richard Dillon, of the Dillon organization, was read in which Mr. Dillon inquired as to the possible extension of the central business district as they still desired to locate a new Dillon food store in Manhattan. The secretary was instructed to inform Mr. Dillon that the possible extension was under study and that the planning board expected to have a recommendation ready to present to the city commission by early September; such a report, if made, is not of record.

The next application to rezone property along Poyntz to permit retail commercial activities was in January of 1966 when the Dillon organization again requested the same tract to be rezoned from B-Residential to C-Commercial, with the only change being the addition of another fifty foot lot, at the west end, included in the request. It should be remembered that the planning board adopted the Wilson Guide Plan on December 19, 1963 and the city commission had adopted the zoning ordinance prepared by Wilson & Company in support of the plan on January 1, 1965. The planning board again voted to recommend to the city commission that the rezoning request be denied. The ordinance to rezone was considered at the city commission meeting of February 1, 1966 at which time the motion to rezone failed with Commissioner Torluemke voting no. The commission vote on the proposal was four to one; the one yes vote being cast by commissioner Stites.

The next attempt to rezone Poyntz for commercial activities was after the adoption of the Oblinger & Smith Land Use Plan with its definitely established goals for the development of Poyntz Avenue. The request to rezone was again for a supermarket, but this time by a group of local entrepreneurs. The rezoning hearings, decision and related proceedings constitute one of the
major dramas in Manhattan's local politics. One of the major points of contention was that the city governing body, public officials and advisory groups, particularly the planning board, had just completed five years of extensive efforts on informing the public as to the values and justifiable cost of planning and yet the governing body was ignoring the planners' recommendations.

The requested rezoning was from B-Residential and A-Residential to C-Commercial to permit the construction of a supermarket on the north side of Poyntz beginning at Sixteenth Street and extending two-hundred feet east.

The petition was first heard by the planning board in July of 1968, but the final governmental action was not taken until April 15, 1969; this was followed by legal action which drew out the controversy even longer. The public hearing began on August 12, 1968, but was continued until October 14. At the conclusion of the hearing, the planning board voted seven to zero, two members were absent, to recommend to the city commission that the request be denied. The city commission took action on the request at their meeting of November 5, 1968 at which time they immediately tabled the action until the following meeting which was November 19th. The meeting of the 19th resulted in a successful motion to return the matter to the planning board for further study with special emphasis on restrictive covenants. Of significance at this meeting was the presentation, by the petitioner, of a plan for street construction to allow turning lanes into the supermarket; this was an admitted recognition of the impact that commercial development would have on the traffic carrying capabilities of Poyntz Avenue.

The planning board again considered the supermarket, to be known as the Poyntz Avenue Pantry or P.A.P., request on December 16, 1968 and established the date of February 10, 1969 for a second public hearing. At the conclusion of this public hearing the planning board, with only one member absent, re-
affirmed its earlier position by a vote of eight to zero.

The city commission introduced an ordinance to rezone the Poyntz frontage and set the date of April 15, 1969 as the date for the final reading of the ordinance. The ordinance to rezone was finally approved, on second reading, by a vote of four to one.

There were two commissioners who had voted on the Dillon rezoning request in 1966; these were commissioner Stites, who voted yes on both proposals, and Commissioner Torluemke who switched from his no vote on the Dillon request to a yes vote on the P.A.P. request. Let it be stated emphatically that a sample of one does not constitute a representative sample, nor can broad and definite conclusions be drawn from a single example, but the voting record and change in attitudes of Commissioner Torluemke are a classic example of the differences in decision inputs between the planners and the governing body. The same individual, who as chairman of the planning board voted to approve the Guide Plan and signed the letter of transmittal forwarding the document to the 1964 city commission, and who as mayor in 1968 voted to approve the Oblinger & Smith Land Use Plan voted to rezone Poyntz Avenue frontage to retail commercial activities contrary to the advice of both plans and contrary to his earlier vote of record, as a planning board member, on the 1966 Dillon request.

A decision model analysis of the governing body's decision on the supermarket rezoning indicates that the irreducible elements determined the decision (see fig. 1). This conclusion can be drawn from the fact that no evidence was presented to indicate the community would benefit socially or economically from the proposal. Proposal submittals did confirm that the traffic capacity of Poyntz Ave. would be reduced; therefore, a major physical consideration would have yielded a recommendation against the rezoning.

The planners and the planning board evaluated the same physical, economic
and sociological factors as the governing body and recommended denial of the request; therefore, the irreducible inputs played the major role in the governing body's decision.

The intersection of Seventeenth and Poyntz is another location which provides an interesting example of the inconsistency between the decisions of the planning board and the governing body. As was mentioned, the intersection was until 1964 on highway US-24 and presently abuts highway K-18 and is one of the most heavily trafficked intersections in the community. This location has made the intersection a natural candidate for a service station. The intersection had a service station on the northeast quadrant, a motel on the southeast quadrant and residences on the two western quadrants. The period from 1964 to 1969 saw three requests to rezone the motel property from B-Residential to C-Commercial to permit the construction of a service station.

The first request was heard by the planning board on June 8, 1964. The planning board voted to recommend to the city commission that the request be denied. The city commission honored the planning board's recommendation and denied the request; there was no record of the yea and nay votes.

The next request to rezone the motel tract was set for public hearing on November 14, 1966. The petitioner, the Sinclair Refining Company, offered to grant additional street right-of-way to the city to allow for the construction of an additional approach lane on the south leg of the intersection if the rezoning were approved. The planning board again recommended denial of the request. The city commission acted on the rezoning request on December 6, 1966 and approved a motion which was seconded by Commissioner Torlumeke, to concur with the planning board's decision and to deny the rezoning.

Eleven months and twenty-three days after the city commission denied the Sinclair request, a new petition was filed to rezone the same tract for the
EXPLANATION OF PLATE IX

Fig. 1 Decision model analysis of governing body's actual decision making process in the Poyntz Avenue Pantry supermarket rezoning case.

Fig. 2 Decision model analysis of governing body's actual decision making process in the rezoning decision to permit a service station at the intersection of Seventeenth St. and Poyntz Ave.
PLATE IX

Fig. 1

Fig. 2
the same purpose. The planning board, at the public hearing on February 13, 1968 voted eight to zero to recommend denial of this request to the city commission.

The city commission, exhibiting a preference either for a local entrepreneur or Phillips gasoline, reversed their position of December 6 and returned the matter to the planning board for further study; under Kansas law the return to the planning board was required prior to overriding the planning board's decision. The planning board on their second study of the matter again recommended denial, this time by a vote of seven to one. After this statutory maneuver the city commission was legally entitled to override the planning board's recommendation which they did by the adoption of Ordinance 2587 on May 21, 1968 which rezoned the motel site from B-Residential to C-Commercial. The vote on the ordinance was four to one with Commissioner Torlueke voting yes, a change in position from the prior December as a commissioner and his prior votes as a member of the planning board.

The parallels between the service station and supermarket cases are not surprising when it is recognized that both anti-planning decisions were made by the same commissions. The decision model analysis for the two cases is identical. (See figs. 1 & 2) The fact that this was the same commission which had expended public funds and recognition to the planning effort is a major inconsistency. The history vividly demonstrates the differences in the decision possibilities when two public bodies, receiving different inputs, consider the same proposal data and facts.

CASE STUDY NO. 2 -- LOCATION OF PUBLIC FACILITIES

The location of public facilities is an important process that should fully utilize the traditional planning process. The physical and sociological inputs should dominate the selection process with the full implications of each
being carefully considered. The two major public facilities located in Manhattan during the 1960's were the new public library and a major park and recreation complex, Ci-Co Park.

Ci-Co Park is a 97 acre park located at the northwestern city limits of Manhattan. The park derives its name from the abbreviation of the words city and county; this is some-what of a misnomer as the joint ownership of the park rests not only with the city and the county, but the local school district as well. The main developments within the park are a prep school football stadium, a baseball diamond complex containing four diamonds, 4-H fairgrounds and a small playground. The total acquisition, development and maintenance agreements entered into by the owners is a tribute to the three bodies and an example of what can be accomplished by cooperation of governmental units. The overall planning of the park, including site selection, is a classic example of the negligence of planning in the expenditure of public funds.

The park is more of a happenstance than a preconceived entity. The park had its beginnings in 1960 when the county commission, by resolution, authorized a tax levy of one mill for two years to be used for the purpose of purchasing a tract to be used for county fair ground; the impetus for this act had come from the Riley County Extension Council. The levy was approved and subsequently the idea was formulated for a joint venture which would include the city, county and school board. The school board had been seeking a site for a new football stadium. No site had been selected during the preliminary discussions pertaining to a joint venture, but two or three sites were investigated during this period of time. The final site selection came when a corporate group with extensive land holdings in the area northwest of Manhattan offered a site lying west of Wreath Avenue and bounded on the north and south by Dickens and Kimball Avenues respectively. The unofficial final agreements
were reached and the land purchased. At this time the only "planning" which existed was the plan to construct a fairground, a football stadium, and a baseball diamond complex. This knowledge alone, however, was sufficient to warrant a thorough study of the rocky, ravine cleft ground under consideration. The land was purchased in three separate tracts to circumvent statutory restrictions, but an agreement was reached that the cost of all improvements of a general nature, such as grading, street construction, landscaping, etc. would be shared equally by the three bodies and the cost of all individual improvements, such as fairgrounds, stadium, diamonds, etc., would be borne by the specific body developing the facility.

There was no study of the desirability of the site from the standpoint of topography, accessibility, development cost or even necessity so far as the city's portion was concerned. This is not meant to infer that the park is unnecessary, but rather that existing park land, or new park land in other areas, may have been better suited to the development of facilities due to better topography and a more centralized location. The nearest point of public transportation was more than 2 miles away and this service did not operate during the hours that the majority of the park activities occurred. The cost of the initial grading amounted to an additional two hundred dollars per acre for each of the ninety-seven acres in the park. The official records of the planning board make no mention of any action in reference to the establishment of this park prior to the city's signing of a contract to purchase the land.

The establishment of this park was in 1962, one year prior to the adoption of the Guide Plan, but after the employment of the city's first planning director. Had consideration been given to the sociological aspects of site location, it would have been possible to re-develop and upgrade some of the
city's more depressed areas. The establishment of the park, or some functions of the park, in these areas would have made them more accessible to those to whom access presented the greatest problem. Had the parks been located in areas of greater population density, they would have been more heavily used at times other than the hours set aside for organized activities. A park established in these areas could have supplemented the small school grounds and the general shortage of open space.

Considering the fact that the three bodies involved in the establishment of Ci-Co Park were all governmental agencies whose functions are service to the public, it is remarkable that the sociological aspects of the site selection were neglected. The sociological inputs should receive major consideration in the establishment of all public facilities and they should be especially significant when the specific facility is one for recreation. Application of the decision model to the record of the establishment of Ci-Co Park indicates no consideration of the sociological inputs. (See fig. 3)

The park as it exists today serves many community needs and could only be termed as a success, however, with sufficient recognition of planning, the park could not only have served the purposes presently served, but accomplished much more. The major advantages of the park as developed are the utilization of parking for more than one function and a slight savings in maintenance due to the single location.

Another case of establishing public facilities was the selection of the site for the new Manhattan public library; this case is considerably different from the park case in that the library site selection was guided by a professional effort.

The library governing board consists of seven members appointed by the
EXPLANATION OF PLATE X

Fig. 3 Decision model analysis of City, County, and Board of Education governing bodies' collective decision on site selection for Ci-Co Park.

Fig. 4 Decision model analysis of Public Library Board's decision on site selection for new public library.
PLATE X

Fig. 3

Fig. 4
city commission. This board has administrative authority in library matters, but does not have the authority to own property. The matter of site selection was handled by the library board although there is no record of why this group did so rather than the parent body which would ultimately own the building. The city commission did acquire the site by fee purchase and eminent domain and enter into the necessary construction contracts and grant agreements.

The Wilson Guide Plan makes one brief reference to the future library under the topic of community facilities.

"The library board is presently faced with a most important decision as to the ways and means for improving the Manhattan library facility. The effects of their decision will be with the community for many years to come and, for that reason, their plans should be fully coordinated with all appreciable elements of the guide plan."  

The library board's decision was to construct a new library facility; the board acted autonomously in arriving at their decision. Once the decision was made, the city, on the board's behalf, called an election for the purpose of approving a bond issue to finance the new facility; the electorate approved the bond issue. The next step was the selection of a site for the new building. The board's first step towards site selection was to employ Mr. Robert Rohlf of Minneapolis, Minnesota as a special consultant on library needs and location.

As this study is concerned only with site selection, and not building standards, only that portion of Mr. Rohlf's work will be considered here. Mr. Rohlf studied Manhattan data and visited the city to study the sites under consideration. Four sites were considered acceptable and these were ranked in order of preference with no consideration being given to cost. These sites were submitted to the library board in April of 1966 for their final decision.
The final site selection was the number two choice of the library consultant. The consultant's number one choice was diagonally across the intersection from the final site selected. This number one site was occupied by a church. It was the feeling of the library board that they would not want to take church property by eminent domain, but that they would consider the site if it was possible to purchase it by mutual agreement. The trustees of the Congregational Church were informed of the situation and were given a preliminary offer. The trustees felt they could not give a definite answer on short notice, but indicated they would probably not wish to sell their property.4

The library board then decided to recommend to the city commission that the consultant's number two recommendation be purchased for the construction of the new facility. There is no record of the library board consulting the planning board in reference to the site; however, the librarian at that time recalls that the board did inquire as to the one way status of Houston Street which abuts the library parking lot on the south. It was the feeling of the library board that Houston Street should continue to be a one way street west.

The report outlining the facility requirements which Mr. Rohlf submitted to the library board, makes the following comments on future site requirements:

1. "This building program is predicated upon a new library structure which could serve Manhattan only for the next twenty years, but could also temporarily accommodate any short term system needs until an addition could be built because of future system development."5

2. "The building is programmed for the future, and while the space requirements are for twenty years from now, the building will,
in all probability, be used for over fifty years."

3. "The preliminary architectural drawings should be developed so that a future addition in either one or two stages is shown in the manner and in the space relationships of such an addition to both the public areas and to the work areas. The future addition must be considered in relation to the placement of the building on the site, traffic patterns, as related to public parking, electrical service facilities, heating and cooling equipment specified and many other items. It is recommended that preliminary architectural plans show the development of a future addition or additions containing a total of 12,000 square feet."

Despite the emphasis on the future need of more space, there was no action taken in any way to insure or protect the possible expansion sites. No zoning, property options, or officially documented position statements were made to indicate the necessity of future acquisition of any property adjoining the selected site. The development of the adjoining property with commercial properties could substantially increase the cost of the necessary acquisition. The presence of local planning interests during the site selection and acquisition processes would have permitted planning for the eventual site expansion.

Comparison of the library site selection process with the decision model reveals substantial compliance. There is nothing in the records of the site selection to indicate any substantial influence of the irreducible inputs. Economics was not a substantial constraint on the selection of a site and therefore was not considered. The planning input within the decision field was that of the special library consultant and not that of recognized community planning. Issue could be taken with the lack of importance placed on
certain of the physical inputs as mentioned above, but this does not detract from the overall site selection process. (See fig. 4)

There is no doubt that the library site was, and is, an ideal site, judging both from the literature on the locations of library facilities and from the increased book circulation. The one physical factor that seems to have been slighted in the site consideration was the provision for expansion of the site, either for the enlargement of the building or for the protection from an adjacent land use which may not be entirely compatible to the library operation or environment. The site selection procedure, although highly successful, considered the site selection as the final objective and failed to recognize it as only one step in the continuing planning process.
CASE STUDY NO. 3 -- SELECTION OF PUBLIC SCHOOL SITES

The selection of school sites is recognized in both the Wilson Guide Plan and the Oblinger & Smith Land Use Plan, but neither report comments extensively on the subject. One comment worthy of special note, however, is the statement of Oblinger & Smith on the development of neighborhood parks contiguous to elementary school sites.

The sections of these two plans which comment on school sites and site selection are included here as a prelude to the discussion of the manner in which these tasks are consummated.

The Wilson Guide Plan commentary under Community Facilities - Manhattan Tomorrow reads as follows:

"The school board is prepared, as a result of up-to-date planning, to meet the demands of increased population and changing land use patterns. Their continued success is, of course, entirely dependent upon the financial support voted by the citizens. The school board can make its best contribution to the planning effort by carefully coordinating the selection of sites for new school units with the City Planning Board."

The Oblinger & Smith Land Use Plan is somewhat more conversant on the topic and states the following goals.

"All of the population of Manhattan should be provided with housing of good quality and of adequate size to produce a healthful and satisfactory living environment. Housing should be located in attractive and quiet neighborhoods which provide each housing unit with convenient pedestrian and vehicular access to an elementary school, churches and recreation areas located within the neighborhood unit. Each residential area should be located within convenient travel time and distance of work
centers, shopping areas and community recreational, educational and cultural facilities."

"Ideally, residential development should follow the neighborhood unit concept which would adequately provide for the needs of the people living in an area. A typical neighborhood should have sufficient local traffic systems which encourage easy access to abutting property and at the same time discourage through traffic. The neighborhood should have at its center an elementary school and park with recreational space for children and facilities for community gatherings. A typical neighborhood should have local shopping facilities at the periphery of its boundaries on major streets." 9

Further comments on the locations of schools from the Oblinger & Smith Land Use Plan may be found under the section which outlines the future land uses in the sub-section entitled Projected Low-Density Residential Areas.

"Unified School District planning indicates there may be needs for three additional elementary schools in the area west and north of the city. The most immediate needs appear to be for an elementary school north of Kimball, west of Seth-Childs Road. It is recommended that when the Unified School District Board constructs new elementary schools that the City would cooperate with the Board of Education in providing a neighborhood park contiguous to school sites."

"Another recommended residential growth area is that area north and west of Warner Park as shown on the land use plan. The Unified School District presently owns a site contiguous to Dartmouth Drive and Amherst Avenue. According to school authorities, as demands occur for an elementary school in this area, a plant would be located on this site. In looking at the long range development of the area around Warner Park,
it appears that a school site could be located in a better position than the present site in serving an area in the southwest edge of the city. The Land Use Plan map indicates a location southwest of the present site. A neighborhood park may not be needed in this area due to the location of Warner Park. It is possible that a portion of Warner Park could be developed and utilized for neighborhood park purposes."

"When that total area east of K-177 becomes developed as shown on the plan map, there will be demands for an additional neighborhood park near the north portion of the growth area. An elementary school site and the neighborhood park site should be located contiguous to each other and developed in conjunction with one another if possible."\(^{10}\)

The location of elementary school sites is one of the major functions reflecting the structural growth of the community, and one which has a marked influence on land values. The task of site selection is a specialized one as reflected by the methods employed by the Unified School District No. 383 (Manhattan). An interview with Dr. Robert Chalander, superintendent of said school district is the basis of the information to follow on the selection of elementary school sites.

Manhattan School District employed the firm of Englehardt, Englehardt and Leggett to serve as its educational consultant sometime prior to 1954. As a result of the Kansas unification legislation, the Manhattan School District subsequently became Unified School District No. 383. The firm of educational consultants previously named reorganized with Mr. Leggett forming his own consultant company. Mr. Leggett had been the partner in charge of the planning for U.S.D. 383 and was therefore retained as its consultant. Mr. Leggett's services include continual consulting in addition to preparation and updating of educational master plans. The need for future
educational facilities is estimated from extremely accurate ten year enrollment projections based upon cohort survival population projections. The projection of the additional facilities required, specifically new elementary school sites, is done with the aid of projected land uses and major street locations. By observing land ownership, utilities extensions, land platting patterns and similar indicators, general areas of the city's perimeter become the object of further study. The consultant is kept informed as to utilities extensions into the undeveloped areas.

The consultant will ultimately recommend a new school site within an area bounded by certain geographic limits such as particular streets, hills or creeks. At this point the board of education, in executive session, retains a realtor to study possible sites within the specified limits. The main criteria given to the realtor is the area required; this is ten acres in the case of elementary school sites.

After the realtor has completed his work, he submits to the Board of Education a list of the available sites within the specified limits and the cost of each; this report is based upon voluntary sellers and does not list sites which would have to be taken by right of eminent domain. The prospective sites are then referred to the educational consultant for his review and ranking. The sites are also reviewed by a landscape architect and ranked by an architect for building suitability.

The board then ultimately makes the final decision on the selection of the site. The site is then purchased from funds levied for capital improvement. After the purchase is consummated it is made a matter of public record, but not the other sites which were under consideration. The method of advance purchase obviously allows considerable savings in land cost.

The site selections are guided by specialized planning expertise which
is, in all probability, superior to any advice which could be given by a municipal staff planner. The confidential nature of the site selections and transactions precludes any major public involvement of the planner or planning board. The same confidence prevents any public comment or pressure on the Board of Education members.

The actual method of elementary school site selection is an efficient, economical and successful one. The system is predicated upon the willingness of the board members to accept the educational consultant's recommendation, which they have done to date. If the board members were unwilling to accept the guidance of the consultant or if the confidential nature of the system were breached either inadvertently or by a member with a strong disagreement, the whole task of site selection could change from a professional effort to a political one.

One criticism that may be made of the present method of school site selection is the one which may be leveled at the vast majority of decisions made by any process which does not give major consideration to the advice of a staff planner; that is, the object which is planned for, in this instance a school site, is considered the culmination of the planning effort and not merely one step in the planning process. In a dozen years of municipal service, this author has repeatedly seen decisions made and projects designed and constructed with total negligence of their relation to the overall community structure.

The Board of Education considers the objective to be a school site; the Land Use Plan establishes the object as a school site with a contiguous neighborhood park. The major disadvantage of the present method of school site selection is that it excludes, for all practical purposes, the possibility of locating school sites and neighborhood parks adjacent to one another,
a situation which was also deemed desirable by the school superintendent. Once the school site has been selected and announced, the municipal governing body is in a poor negotiating position to attempt to purchase adjacent ground. It would be preferable to have the municipality involved in the original negotiation and site selection process to the extent necessary to provide for the park needs concurrently with the school needs.

The differing requirements of a school site and a park site could have an influence on the final determination of the site. The fact that the park must be established adjacent to a particular parcel of land presents an unnecessary and perhaps insurmountable burden on the municipality.

The passage of House Bill 1699 by the 1972 session of the Kansas Legislature would change the process now used for selection of school sites by requiring all business transactions by the Board of Education to be conducted in open meetings.

The statute states in part, "all meetings for the conduct of affairs, and the transaction of business by, all legislative and administrative bodies and agencies of the state and political and taxing subdivisions thereof, including — receiving or expending and supported in whole or in part by public funds shall be open to the public and no binding action by such bodies shall be taken by secret ballot." Any action taken in executive session could be ruled unlawful if taken to court by a protesting citizen.

Bringing the school site selection process into the public arena will probably not change the basic process as currently practiced, but it will undoubtedly result in many more irreducible inputs to the decision process. The conceptual decision model should prove to be an aid to the school district's governing body.

The present site selection process conforms to that derived from use of the
model with one exception. As with the library site selection, the recognized community planning is absent from the decision field except to the degree it may be reflected by the recommendation of the special consultant. (See fig. 5)
EXPLANATION OF PLATE XI

Fig. 5 Decision model analysis of Board of Education's decision process in selection of school sites.

Fig. 6 Decision model analysis (based on available recorded information) of County Commission's decisions to zone case study tracts for shopping centers.
PLATE XI

Fig. 5

Decision Field

Fig. 6

Decision Field
CASE STUDY NO. 4 -- ESTABLISHMENT OF SHOPPING CENTERS

The fourth type of planning decision that affects the structural development of a community is the location of commercial areas. Manhattan has two commercial areas which were established during the 1960's. These were the Westloop Shopping Center and the Blue Hills Shopping Center. These are the two major shopping centers in the community and they would both be classed as neighborhood shopping centers under the Urban Land Institute classification system. Both of these centers were established outside the city limits, but adjacent thereto. The Westloop center was established by an investment group and the Blue Hills center was established by a farmer-dairyman who had owned the property for many years.

Since both of these centers were established through county zoning, there is little documentation as to the facts surrounding their establishment; this lack of documentation also bespeaks a lack of substantial consideration on the matters. The county zoning ordinance during the period of time in which the two centers were established had only one business zone, so the decision on rezoning was a simple choice of residential or commercial land use.

The Westloop center was rezoned in 1961. The south end of the site abutted Anderson Avenue and the west side abutted the highway right-of-way of K-113. The highway at that time extended from highway K-18 on the south to Anderson on the north, but the extension of the highway north approximately five miles to new highway US-24 was accomplished in 1967. The property to the north of the site was owned by the same investment group and they dedicated a roadway easement to permit the extension of a major thoroughfare, Claflin Road, along the north boundary of the shopping center tract. The east edge of the site abutted private property, much of which was owned by one of the
partners in the investment group. This site, although small, was obviously a prime site for a shopping center.

As the county zoning ordinance provided only for a commercial use, with no control on the interior development, the site was rezoned to be commercially developed in any way the investors chose. The J.S. Dillon organization, which had failed in its 1960 attempt to get Poyntz Avenue frontage rezoned, eventually selected the Westloop center for the site of their new store. The Dillon supermarket was constructed in 1961 as the nucleus of the new shopping center.

The interior planning of the center was, for all practical purposes, nonexistent and the eventual development of the center left something to be desired. This development is not of particular interest per se, but only as it again demonstrates the breach between the planners and the decision makers. In this case the county commissioners rezoned a tract to permit the establishment of one of the community's major structural nuclei without any recorded consultation or advice from the city planning body. The city annexed the area in 1962 and made the existing county zone the official city zone, C-Commercial.

The Blue Hill center is a small shopping center which serves the "northview" area of the community. The center is bounded on the east by highway US-24 which forms the western boundary of the "northview" area, and is bounded on the south by Manhattan Avenue, a major traffic artery. The areas to the north and west of the center were undeveloped agricultural ground belonging to the shopping center owner.

The site was rezoned in 1959 to provide for the construction of a supermarket, the nucleus of the center. The city planning board was notified by the owner of his intention to develop the center and a site plan, which was not followed, was filed with the secretary of the planning board in 1960. The
planning board, as a body, however, took no official action on the county zoning request.

As in the case of the westloop center, the general location is an excellent one for a shopping center. This particular site, however had serious access problems from the beginning. The topography to the south and west, the undeveloped area to the north and the restricted highway access to the east prohibit adequate access to the center. The entrances as constructed were difficult and dangerous and their condition has not improved with the development of the center.

The highway US-24, Manhattan Avenue intersection at which the center is located was heavily trafficked even prior to the shopping center establishment. The encroachment of the shopping center quadrant, which was the only undeveloped quadrant of the intersection, has forever prohibited the construction of a grade separation at the intersection, an improvement which had been recommended by the Kansas Highway Department. The major trade area of the shopping center lies on the east side of the four lane highway.

The establishment of the Blue Hills Shopping Center is another example of considering only the case in hand and not the continuing character of the facility and its place in the entire community. A complete master plan giving consideration to all existing and possible future accesses to the site could have resulted in a safer, more desirable center providing for the necessary grade separation which in turn would have made the center more desirable and given it greater potential.

There is no recorded information to indicate either shopping center rezoning was based on other than irreducible inputs. Each center did have a prime physical location so a model analysis of the rezoning decisions would indicate physical inputs even though there were no master plans to show adv-
vantageous, or non-detrimental, development of the locations. (See fig. 6)

REFERENCES

1. Oblinger & Smith, pg. 53

2. Source of information was personal interview with Dr. Bob Newsome who was the Director of the Riley County Extension Council at that time. The information is not of record.

3. Wilson Report, pg. 137

4. Source of information was author's service of the Board of Trustees of the Congregational Church at that time. The information is not of record.

5. Rohlf Report, pg. 1

6. Ibid, pg. 2

7. Ibid, pg. 27

8. Wilson Report, pg. 137

9. Oblinger & Smith, pg. 49

10. Ibid, pg. 50
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

When several individuals evaluate a given set of data, differences of opinion would not be surprising. Given any specific set of decision inputs, the individual members of a decision making body may show a reasonable variation of individual decisions, despite the fact that each of the members is sworn to be making the decision he deems best for the community. Consistent with the dictionary definition of reasonable, a reasonable decision may be exemplified as a decision which would be reached by a consensus of any group of individuals evaluating the same decision inputs. The phrase "best for the community" means the course of action from which the total of the social and economic benefits are greater than the total social and economic costs.

It is possible neither to determine a person's reasoning processes in arriving at a decision nor to determine the motives for his eventual decision. There are however instances which may arise to indicate that decisions have been arrived at which are not reasonable. These indications may be quantitative or non-quantitative. The quantitative indicators are the statements or documented exhibits which would indicate a decision contradictory to that rendered. The non-quantitative indicators are the inconsistencies of the decision makers, for example the reversal of positions on specific issues or decisions contrary to professional recommendations.

The disparity between reasonable decisions and actual decisions constitutes a major barrier to implementation of planning goals. The disparity is logically attributed to the presence of an irreducible input which has exerted considerable influence.

The making of community decisions by political and economic pressure is not compatible with constructive planned change. In the absence of decision
models or guidelines, the chances for undue influence are substantially increased and the planning documents and recommendations are not given the proper consideration in the decision process.

The decisions of the four case studies were made in a recognized planning environment, yet an examination of the four decisions gives little or no indication that the comprehensive planning process was influential in the ultimate decision.

The study of Poyntz Avenue reveals opposite decisions on each of the two supermarket rezoning cases studied. The decision inputs for the Dillon and Poyntz Avenue Pantry rezoning requests were essentially the same in that the locations both fronted on Poyntz Avenue and were only one block apart. The requested changes were both from multi-family residential to commercial to allow construction of a supermarket. The physical, social and economic inputs were, therefore, virtually identical. Ironically the only difference was that the unsuccessful request was prior to adopted city comprehensive plans and contract planners recommendations while these planning guides did exist, and recommend against, the successful request.

The Seventeenth and Poyntz history is a parallel to the supermarket history. Repeated denial of requests were overturned with the approval of the requests against the recommendations of the aforementioned planning guides.

No planning aspects of the cited examples had changed that would warrant a change in the decision outcome. The essential difference in both cases was the local ownership at the time of the successful request. The existence of the conceptual model as presented in this paper would not guarantee that such a decision reversal would not have occurred nor could have it have prevented it if the decision makers were committed to a definite decision
regardless of the planning aspects of the request. The model as presented
would have provided an evaluation tool which could have aided the decision
makers resistance to political pressure. It also would have provided an
adequate measuring device against which the two cases could have been
compared for community impact. Most importantly, no decision maker could
logically justify opposing decisions on the two requests if each had been
evaluated by the model for planning compatibility.

The second case study, that of the location of public facilities, illus-
trates the marked difference in methods used in determining the location of
Ci-Co Park and the public library.

The establishment and development of Ci-Co Park represents one of the most,
if not the most, outstanding case of a total neglect of comprehensive plan-
ing in the establishment of community facilities. The project throughout
was guided by the singular and combined governing groups and their ad-
ministrators. No recorded advice was sought from the planning boards,
the resident or consultant planners or any other group familiar with
comprehensive community park needs. No thorough consideration of the so-
cial and economic factors of comprehensive planning could have yielded the
decision to create Ci-Co Park as it exists today.

The park was established without consideration of the comprehensive plan-
ing aspects of the establishment of community facilities. The fact that
more than one governmental agency was involved in the project would have
made the presence of comprehensive planning even more significant.

The library location was essentially an individual effort on the part of
the professional library planner retained by the library board and was
void of local planning input and public opinion. It is assumed the library
planner considered all pertinent information prior to his selection and
ranking of sites and as stated earlier his eventual site selection has proven successful. There is a doubt, however, as to the ability of a person from a distant metropolitan area to evaluate the local decision environment and to view his action in its proper position on the planning spectrum rather than as one specific action. This evaluation and determination of position had to be assumed by the proper local bodies. The exclusion of local planning from the planning process excluded these inputs.

In essence the entire process was one of a specific site selection rather than one of comprehensive planning for community library facilities.

The conclusions one would draw from the study of school site establishment is in many ways parallel to the preceding conclusions on the library site selection. The model of the actual decision processes in the two cases was nearly identical.

A study comparing the former method of school sites selection with the "open meeting" method as required by House Bill 1699 to determine effectiveness, economics and results would be a creditable one and perhaps one which could provide answers to questions on the merits of open and closed meetings. The required change, in all probability, will not substantially effect the selection of elementary school sites as they are usually selected prior to development of an area. Elementary school locations also tend to be more of neighborhood interest than city wide concern. Secondary school sites, which are of interest to a large segment of the community, will probably be affected by the required new procedures.

The requirement of open meetings should allow for better cooperation and planning in the establishment of neighborhood parks.

The scarcity of records relating to the location of shopping centers makes it impossible to determine what factors were considered in the rezoning
decisions. From the limited records available one would draw the conclusion that the decision was essentially formulated solely on the basis of the developer's request. More explicitly, the developer was in possession of land with the necessary physical characteristics, primarily location, so his rezoning request was processed and granted without full consideration. There was no full Master Developmental Plan submitted with either rezoning request, so it would have been impossible to fully evaluate the community impact of the centers.

The readily apparent discrepancy when viewing the community's planning efforts during the decade was that while planning was officially recognized by the governing body and while large sums of money were expended on planning, there was actually very little positive action which was consistent with the community's goals. The overall planning was extremely fragmented with major process roles being played by five groups. These groups, the city commission, county commission, board of education, library board and the extension council considered their actions independently and did very little to consult or acknowledge the planning interests of any other group. All the groups, with the exception of the extension council, had recognized the need for planning either by their actions in establishing planning boards or by hiring consultants on their planning matters.

Each of the decision bodies tended to view their roles more as accomplishing single tasks rather than contributing to one span of time on the continuum of community evolution and development. The board of education, the library board and the Ci-Co Park decision makers were performing the process roles of planners and decision makers jointly; there was no community planning stage separate from the decisions of site acquisitions and development.
The conceptual decision model could play a unique and important role in the planning process in the city of Manhattan or any city with a comparable planning process. The model could result in planning considerations making major contributions to governmental decisions that would otherwise be based primarily on political aspects. Whether the decision be reached by the city commission after a complete cycle of the traditional planning process or whether it be a single and independent decision by an autonomous city board, the model would force recognition of the planning aspects of the decision. There are several autonomous boards or agencies which have the authority, or may assume it by default if the city governing body does not get involved, to make substantial community structural decisions; among these are urban renewal agencies, public housing authorities, park boards, port authorities, township boards, state and federal agencies and others. Many of these bodies are composed entirely or partially of laymen with little or no knowledge of planning and community development.

Use of the decision model itself makes one assumption, that the decision maker is desirous of making an impartial judgement. Given this logical assumption, the case studies of the planning processes in Manhattan indicate that there does exist a need for a decision guide and the model could be used to increase the reliability of planning decisions which must be formulated by decision makers not versed in planning procedures.

- f - i - n - i - s -
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APPENDIX

77 - 80 Rohlf letter to Manhattan Public Library Board regarding selection of new library site.

81 Data Sheet reflecting growth of Manhattan, Kansas in the period from 1960 to 1970.

82 Proposed Land Use Plan for Manhattan, Kansas as prepared by Oblinger & Smith.
ILLEGIBLE DOCUMENT

THE FOLLOWING DOCUMENT(S) IS OF POOR LEGIBILITY IN THE ORIGINAL

THIS IS THE BEST COPY AVAILABLE
TO: Manhattan Public Library Board  
FROM: Robert H. Rohlf  
SUBJECT: Summary of site survey recommendations

This memorandum is intended to review my site survey recommendations which I made to you at your meeting of March 23. I have read the "Manhattan Guide Plan, 1964-1965" and the board of education report, both of which discuss in detail recent and future Manhattan area growth. I have also studied the report on the library prepared jointly by the state librarian, Mr. Fox, and several Kansas librarians.

On my visit to Manhattan March 22 and 23 I re-studied the city maps in detail, particularly the large scale lot and block maps furnished by the city engineers office. In addition a great deal of time was spent in personal inspection of possible library sites throughout certain areas of the community. In all, over two dozen possible sites were considered for recommendation or rejection.

Of primary concern were all of the criteria listed in "The Effective Location of Public Library Buildings" by Joseph Wheeler (University of Illinois Occasional Paper #52). This has been discussed before and will not be repeated here. Of even greater concern throughout the investigation was the size of the property needed to allow proper building planning and adequate parking of even a minimal nature. It is only honest to state that potential price or availability also was a concern because we cannot recommend just the ideal site, it must also be a practical site from point of view of availability or effect on neighboring area and of potential cost.

I would like to discuss your present site first. I recommend against any consideration of your present site for use as the
site of a new building. It is much too small and restrictive in its present size and expansion either west or north appears to be prohibitively expensive. There would also be the problem of temporary re-location of the library service and two moves rather than one. However, the merits of the site and costly expansion of it do not warrant the additional problems of re-location also.

The question of the size of the site area necessary for an adequate building is of prime importance. The report made by Mr. Fox recommended a building of 25,000 square feet, at least half of which should be on the main floor. I believe this to be a minimum figure and would hope that even greater main floor space could be provided. If this minimum figure is used, we are discussing a building which at a bare minimum would cover 13,000 square feet of ground area. In the survey conducted by the library to discover the manner by which people travelled to the library (car, bicycle, walking, etc.), over three-fourths arrived by automobile, even though the library is close to the retail center. It appears therefore that the library must provide adequate parking on its site OR be adjacent to available parking provided by others. As a minimum therefore, the library must provide parking space of at least 12,000 square feet (30 cars plus allowance for driveways, turnaround, etc.), and even more would be highly desirable. Therefore, a minimum site if the library must provide parking (in addition to street parking) would be 25,000 square feet. If the library can use adjacent parking for its patrons it must still provide some parking and would need a site of at least 20,000 square feet. All of these figures are absolute minimums and sites of 30,000 or 25,000 respectively would be more suitable. The city should also provide area for long term expansion and this increases site requirements by at least 7,000 square feet.

There are five possible sites, any one of which would be an acceptable location, three of which I feel would be superior locations. These sites are:

1) Poyntz and Juliette - Northwest corner
2) Poyntz and Juliette - Southeast corner
3) Houston and Juliette - Northeast corner
4) West side of north 8th Street between Poyntz and Humboldt (300' on 8th, 100' on Poyntz, and 150' on Humboldt, plus vacated alley)
5) Juliette and Humboldt - Northwest corner (150' on Humboldt and 200' to 250' on Juliette, plus vacated alley).

The two sites at the intersections of Poyntz and Juliette rate almost equally on some aspects. Number one above has certain advantages to
those using Juliette or Humboldt as access to the library. It has disadvantages to those going east on Poyntz because of turning restrictions. This site would have to be a large site because the library would have to provide all of its own parking. There is also the considerable problem of the availability of land here because of the church. While condemnation is possible, it is not recommended for this site and negotiations would be the method by which to acquire at least the major portion of this site. A building here should face south, a very desirable feature.

The second site listed above meets virtually all criteria of a good library site for Manhattan. It is at a major north-south and east-west intersection as is site number one above. The property is all privately owned and thus could be acquired either by negotiation or condemnation. It is possible, if not probable that future parking being developed by the banks on the west side of Juliette could be used for overflow parking by library patrons during the evening hours when the bank is not open and thus a somewhat smaller site is possible.

Site number three presents some advantages over the first two while suffering somewhat by not being directly on Poyntz. This location probably has advantages of price. A location here would also allow use of future bank parking for overflow evening use. The site would also allow more convenient street parking than would sites one and three. A major advantage of this site is its closer proximity to the retail center of Manhattan and the upgrading of Houston. In effect it would be a vote of confidence in the future retail strength of the downtown area. A building located here should front on Juliette.

Site number four while being further removed from the retail area than the others does provide a Poyntz location and probable price advantages. Because no public parking is immediately accessible a large area would have to be acquired here and the alley should be vacated. This site suggests a building facing east with parking to the west and north. This site would also be very accessible to vehicle traffic from Humboldt, Poyntz and also Juliette.

Site number five provides major exposure on Juliette and is next to newly developing commercial areas. It is the furthest site from the retail area and would be the least accessible from the major traffic flow, but the most accessible from Juliette because of less traffic congestion. This site would also have to provide all parking needed by the library.
I feel sites number one, two and three would be superior library sites, each having some advantages over the other. Sites four and five would be acceptable sites. In the final analysis, price and availability will play a factor and this information can be accurately obtained only on the local level.

If a site cannot be obtained in its entirety before any bond election, I would recommend that during the pre-election period it be announced that a specific site has not yet been obtained, but that it will be located between Humboldt and Houston and Fifth and Eighth. An informal appraisal can be obtained to be used as a cost figure for the election.
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DUE TO THE COLORATION OF THE FOLLOWING MAP, SOME AREAS MAY BE ILLEGIBLE.

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DEVELOPMENT OF A CONCEPTUAL DECISION MODEL AS AN AID IN INCREASING THE RELIABILITY OF PLANNING DECISIONS

by

KEITH LEON BELL

B.S., Kansas State University, 1959

AN ABSTRACT OF A MASTER'S THESIS

submitted in partial fulfillment of the

requirements for the degree

MASTER OF REGIONAL AND COMMUNITY PLANNING

Department of Regional and Community Planning

KANSAS STATE UNIVERSITY
Manhattan, Kansas

1973
The planning process is an accepted process in many communities today. This process is a continual one which involves several persons within the community. The professional planner and the planning board, consisting of laymen, are generally the first persons involved in the process. They are charged with the responsibility of preparing and updating the master plan and its supporting documents. The preparation of these documents generally involves the scientific gathering and analysis of data and the projection of this data to provide an estimate of the scope of facilities and services that will be required by the community in the future. A professional planner may then use the analyzed data to formulate the planning documents. The planning process to this point has involved only the planners and their methods. The plans are not an end unto themselves; however, as the community will realize no benefit from the planning until the plans are implemented and the goals and objectives set forth in the plans are officially recognized.

The planning documents constitute the foundation of the next phase of the planning process, that of adopting the necessary public policies and legislation to implement the plans and start the community towards the fulfillment of the established goals and objectives.

At this point in the planning process, the process role shifts to the governing body. While the plans and decisions of the planners were based on scientific analysis and planning expertise, the decisions of the governing body are subject to different decision inputs. The governing body is subject to political considerations, special interest pressures, and needs for compromise which do not affect the planners. The members of the governing body are normally laymen, so far as planning is concerned, and could not
be expected to correctly interpret the planning documents or to properly evaluate the planning aspects of all the decision variables.

A decision model which could aid in the evaluation of the decision inputs to determine their relevance to the planning process and to minimize the effects of considering an improper input, or incorrectly evaluating a proper one, would greatly increase the reliability of the governing body's decision. This text formulates such a conceptual decision model. To demonstrate the benefits of the model, a case study will be made of four major planning methods or decisions from the city of Manhattan, Kansas. These planning methods or decisions will then be compared with the model to determine whether or not they are creditable methods or decisions which are consistent with the planning process and community goals.

The four cases are studied as the functions of city planning rather than as abstract cases. The first case is that of Poyntz Avenue which is a typical main street in the process of transition from residential land use to commercial land use. The second case is that of the location of public facilities which is represented by the location and establishment of the public library and Ci-Co Park. The third study is of the location process of new elementary school sites. The fourth study is of the establishment of community structural elements by private enterprise; this process is represented by a study of the establishment of the Westloop and Blue Hills shopping centers.

It was concluded that such a model could guide a conscientious decision maker in the evaluation of the planning aspects of the decision inputs. The case studies showed that for the location of a majority of the community's structural elements the present process was successful, but that in some cases the process disregarded the community's goals as established in the adopted
planning documents. The present processes also tended to view their specific contribution to community development as an abstract and independent step rather than as one step in the continuum of the planning process.