To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a thesis written by James G. Wallace entitled "Local Land Use Planning in Appalachia: The Virginia Experience." I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Science in Planning.

George E. Bowen, Major Professor

We have read this thesis and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the Council:

Vice Chancellor
Graduate Studies and Research

LOCAL LAND USE PLANNING IN APPALACHIA:

THE VIRGINIA EXPERIENCE

A Thesis

Presented for the

Master of Science in Planning

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

James G. Wallace

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DEDICATION

To My Wife, Ann

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to assess the land use planning process currently practiced at the level of local government throughout the Appalachian Region of Virginia. The thesis determines the effectiveness of the land use planning that is being conducted; the effect that the Virginia mandate to plan has had on the local land use planning process; and the implications that the experience of the study area has for the remainder of Appalachia Virginia and perhaps all of Southern Appalachia.

The region chosen as a general study area included the 38 towns, 3 cities, and 13 counties included in the LENOWISCO, Cumberland Plateau, and Mount Rogers Planning District Commissions in Southwest Virginia. This represents more than one-half of the area in Virginia which is included in the Appalachian Regional Commission and nearly half of the area that constitutes the three physiographic subregions of Appalachia within the Commonwealth.

Means of gathering information for this thesis included literature review, questionnaires, interviews, and author observation. Findings of the thesis were weighted most heavily on the interviews, questionnaires, author observation, and literature review, in that order. A model of the traditional land use planning process was developed as a

basis for comparison of the local land use planning process in Appalachia Virginia.

The major findings of the research reflected that in localities where land use planning is being carried on seriously it basically conforms to the traditional land use planning process model. However, in the vast majority of localities local land use planning is not being carried on in an effective manner despite the fact that in Appalachia the level of compliance to the state planning mandate exceeds that of the state as a whole. One problem has been the fact that the state mandate has no provisions for penalizing localities that choose not to comply with land use planning requirements. This has resulted in a large number of jurisdictions ignoring the planning mandates. More importantly, it suggests that in those communities where the mandate was met but local land use planning has not continued in an effective manner, forced-feeding of land use planning through mandating does not guarantee that local land use planning will take place effectively.

The research indicated that a high correlation exists between local land use planning efforts and the policies of the planning district commission in which local jurisdictions are members. However, this correlation is limited to the adoption of planning documents and not necessarily the implementation of effective local land use planning processes.

Rather, this is dependent upon the local attitudes and opinions of local officials regarding the importance and need of land use planning in their respective jurisdictions.

Nevertheless, in Appalachia Virginia planning district commissions are a key element in the local land use planning process because they serve as a source of technical assistance in working with local jurisdictions in the development, adoption, and administration of local planning documents. For this reason, the continued existence of planning district commissions is a key element in the continued maintenance of effective local land use planning processes. This is because most Appalachian jurisdictions do not have the fiscal base and thus, the manpower and expertise, to maintain an effective land use planning process without the technical assistance provided by planning district commission staffs. Therefore, in light of impending cutbacks of staff and services provided by planning district commissions it would appear that the local land use planning processes in Appalachia Virginia, and perhaps all of Southern Appalachia, that will be occurring in future years will be limited to those jurisdictions that see the value and importance of maintaining a local land use planning effort and have the fiscal base to provide staff with the technical expertise necessary for such an effort to be effective.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

In discussing local land use planning in Appalachia, this study refers to planning of future land use that is occurring at the level of local government. The efforts by individual counties, independent cities, and towns to guide future development within their political boundaries constitute local land use planning. Appalachia is defined by those jurisdictions which are included in the Appalachian Regional Commission.

A. Planning Literature in Nonmetropolitan America

For years scholars have debated the definition of urban and rural. Different elements of of these definitions have included occupation (i.e. farm verses non-farm), physical environment (i.e. isolation), population density, settlement features such as types of buildings, mobility, and access to various services and comforts of life such as libraries, museums, stores, schools, etc. As the economy of America has shifted from an agricultural base to a manufacturing base, many former farm families are now classified as non-farm families. Moreover, this shift has also changed many settlement features by injecting numerous formerly urban buildings such as factories into rural areas. In addition, transportation improvements have reduced greatly the

differences between the mobility of rural and urban residents.

Nevertheless, there are still many rural areas left in America in terms of population densities, physical environment, and access to various services and comforts of life. One such area is the Appalachian Region of Virginia. Despite the fact that many small urban areas exist within this region and the influence of these urban centers is beginning to spread into the adjacent hinter lands, the overall area remains one that is rural in character. Consequently, while acknowledging that the Appalachian area of Virginia is undergoing a steady transition from a rural area to one that is becoming more urban in character, the entire study area is still recognized as rural. Throughout this thesis the term nonmetropolitan is used synonymously with the term rural and likewise the terms metropolitan and urban are used synonymously. Although much has been written about the Appalachian Regional Commission (ARC) and its policies related to planning in Appalachia, most of the literature has centered around the region-wide policies such as growth center identification, the highway program, and financial assistance for health programs, public facilities, and education programs. Recent literature has addressed area-wide planning within ARC boundaries by discussing the Local Development District (LDD) concept promoted by ARC. The

LDD's were created primarily in an effort to provide technical assistance to local governments, to take advantage of grant-in-aid programs, and to meet the need for an areawide planning approach to offset the problem of economic development programs that were carried out on too small a scale with each town or county working on its own.[1] However, little has been written about planning, particularly land use planning, at the local level. Not only is this true in Appalachian America, which is predominately rural, but it is true for nonmetropolitan America in general. What has been written focuses largely on the inability of planners to get planning policy adopted, much less implemented.[2]

Perhaps the most logical explanation for this is that most local planning is carried on in urban centers. Not only is this where the majority of people live and most of the problems exist that necessitate planning, but early legislation provided cities with incentives and requirement to plan for such things as slum clearance and center-city redevelopment. As a result, large cities that were attempting to perform a formal planning function became the testing

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[1] The Appalachian Experiment: 1965-1970 (Washington: Appalachian Regional Commission, 1972), p. 89.

[2] See Allen J. Hahn, "Planning in Rural Areas," Journal of the American Institute of Planners 36 (August 1973): 44-49; Tennessee" (M.S.P. Thesis, University of Tennessee, 1967); Ann L. Strong, Private Property and the Public Interest (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins University Press, 1975).

grounds for innovative techniques, court actions, etc., thus becoming the focus of planning literature. At the same time however, it appears that planning at the local level in rural America occurs less frequently. In Virginia, prior to 1975 fewer than half the counties and towns in Virginia had adopted zoning ordinances and only one-third of the counties, two-thirds of the cities, and one-fourth of the towns had comprehensive plans.[3]

In explaining this apparent lack of land use planning, it must be remembered that the social, economic, and governmental setting in nonmetropolitan America is different than it is in metropolitan America. For one thing, the people are separated by greater distances. They do not yet face some of the critical urban problems such as crime, pollution, and overcrowding to the same extent as the people in metropolitan America. Their governments are still informal, relatively inexpensive, and uninvolved in people's lives. They provide few services, but few have been sought. As a consequence, a political philosophy of small government and individual independence unhampered by governmental restrictions has been more prevalent in nonmetropolitan areas than in

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[3]J. Paxton Marshall and Peter M. Ashton, eds., Land Use Issues: Proceedings of a Conference (Blacksburg, Virginia: 1974), p. 36.

metropolitan areas.[4] One product of these circumstances is a view of sovereign property rights held by many rural landowners, which has resulted in "rural residents [being] generally antagonistic toward legislation which prescribes the use of private land."[5]

B. Need for Land Use Planning in Nonmetropolitan America

But this is not to say that land use planning in rural areas is not needed. Many times land use planning practices are begun too late to avert adverse patterns of development that lead to physical, social, and environmental problems for rural areas. "Rural decisionmakers, like most public decisionmakers, do not respond to problems until they reach crisis proportions, in part because of their concern with existing programs, and in part because their constituents make no demands until crisis is near. One result is that the impact of urbanization on most rural townships must be quite far along and quite obvious before their decisionmakers will voluntarily look for planning assistance."[6]

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[4] Regional Decision Making: New Strategies for Substate Districts (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1973), p. 260.

[5] Subcommittee on Rural Development of the Committee on Agriculture and Forestry, United States Senate, Planning Frontiers in Rural America: Papers and Proceedings of the Boone Conference (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1974), p. 111.

[6] Hahn, p. 45.

In the Preface to Planning Frontiers in Rural America, Dr. Ole Gade of Appalachian State University sums up the necessity of planning in rural America.

> Approximately one-third of our people in the United States live in nonmetropolitan counties or rural America. Though that portion of the population which is functionally rural is still decreasing, it is a fact that the tentacles of urban America, through its expanding commuting range, are reaching into rural areas to the point of influencing recent increases in the total rural population. For many rural communities this has created a dichotomous situation with serious, if not fatal, effects. Many communities have experienced the gradual evolution of an either/or situation in which they are facing either a lack of employment opportunities, outmigration of young people, economic decay, and serious tears in the traditional social and family fabric; or they are facing, unprepared, the onslaught of suburban expansion with its accelerating demand upon community services and its all too frequent disruptive and negative impact on regional environmental resources and local ecological systems . . . [while much of rural America represents neither extreme] it does experience serious voids in the development of its human resource base; the provision of basic services like medical care or water and waste management; the availability of a broad base of competitive employment opportunities and the protection of the land and environmental resources.[7]

Thus, it is important to consider land use planning in nonmetropolitan America for two reasons. One, because of the many problems that rural areas encounter which require careful planning to resolve. It is also important in terms of the relationship of our rural areas to our increasingly urbanized nation. As W. L. Gibson said in setting the tone for a conference on land use issues in the state of Virginia,

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[7]Subcommittee . . ., p. VII.

"we have a society composed of urban and rural sectors; but each is a part of the whole, and without either, the whole cannot exist."[8]

The rural sector, which has been plagued by extensive out-migration of residents to urban areas since 1940, appears to be experiencing a population renaissance. Population data indicates that "people are moving back to the small towns and rural areas - including those not adjacent to metropolitan areas."[9] Population expert Calvin Beale substantiates this shift when he says that "many who moved to the cities to get work are going back 'home' - especially people from Appalachia."[10] By the year 2,000, approximately 5 percent of the nation's population will be living in Appalachia, with an additional 30 percent living within 75 miles of the ARC boundaries.[11]

The increased pressures to which the area may be subjected from increasing growth in coal production, tourism, recreation development, and manufacturing may require an increased emphasis in local and regional land use planning.

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[8]Marshall and Ashton, p. XIII.

[9]Harold S. Williams, "Smallness and the Small Town," Small Town 8 (October 1977): 9.

[10]"Expert Says Americans Returning to Rural Setting," The Bristol Herald Courier 30 October 1977, p. B7.

[11]Jerome Pickard, "Population in Appalachia and the United States: Year 2000," Appalachia (July-August 1972): 8-39.

The more that is known about the planning process and the environment within which it is taking place in Appalachia, the better off the region will be in addressing future problems and pressures of increased development. The need for land use planning in Appalachia was addressed at a conference on the growth and economic development of the Appalachian Region.

> William K. Riley, president of the Conservation Foundation, told the conference, that Appalachia has lagged far behind the rest of the nation in land use control. "Nationally 13 states require that all local governments prepare comprehensive plans - only one of those, Virginia, is in Appalachia. Ten states require all local governments to have subdivision controls - again Virginia is the only Appalachian state" . . . Appalachian governments must realize that if land use controls don't come from within the region, they are not going to come from without. If other states can realize that growth is a mixed blessing, and formulate controls to ease the side effects, the effort can be made by the Appalachian states as well.[12]

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[12]"How Will Appalachia Grow?", The Washington Post 7 November 1977, editorial page.

CHAPTER II

STATEMENT OF PROBLEM

The amount of research devoted to the land use planning process in rural America is limited, particularly in Appalachia. In the spring of 1975, the Virginia General Assembly amended the state planning legislation by requiring all governing bodies within the state to institute a comprehensive planning process for physical development into the local decision-making system. This undoubtedly resulted in many towns and counties in the Appalachian Region of Virginia, as well as other non-metropolitan jurisdictions across the state, to establish land use planning programs for the very first time.

The purpose of this thesis is to assess the land use planning process currently practiced throughout the Appalachian Region of Virginia. This assessment proves beneficial in determining the effectiveness of the local land use planning process carried on in a mountain area, the effect of the state mandate on that process, and based on the experience in the study area, the implications for local planning in other parts of the Virginia Appalchian Region.

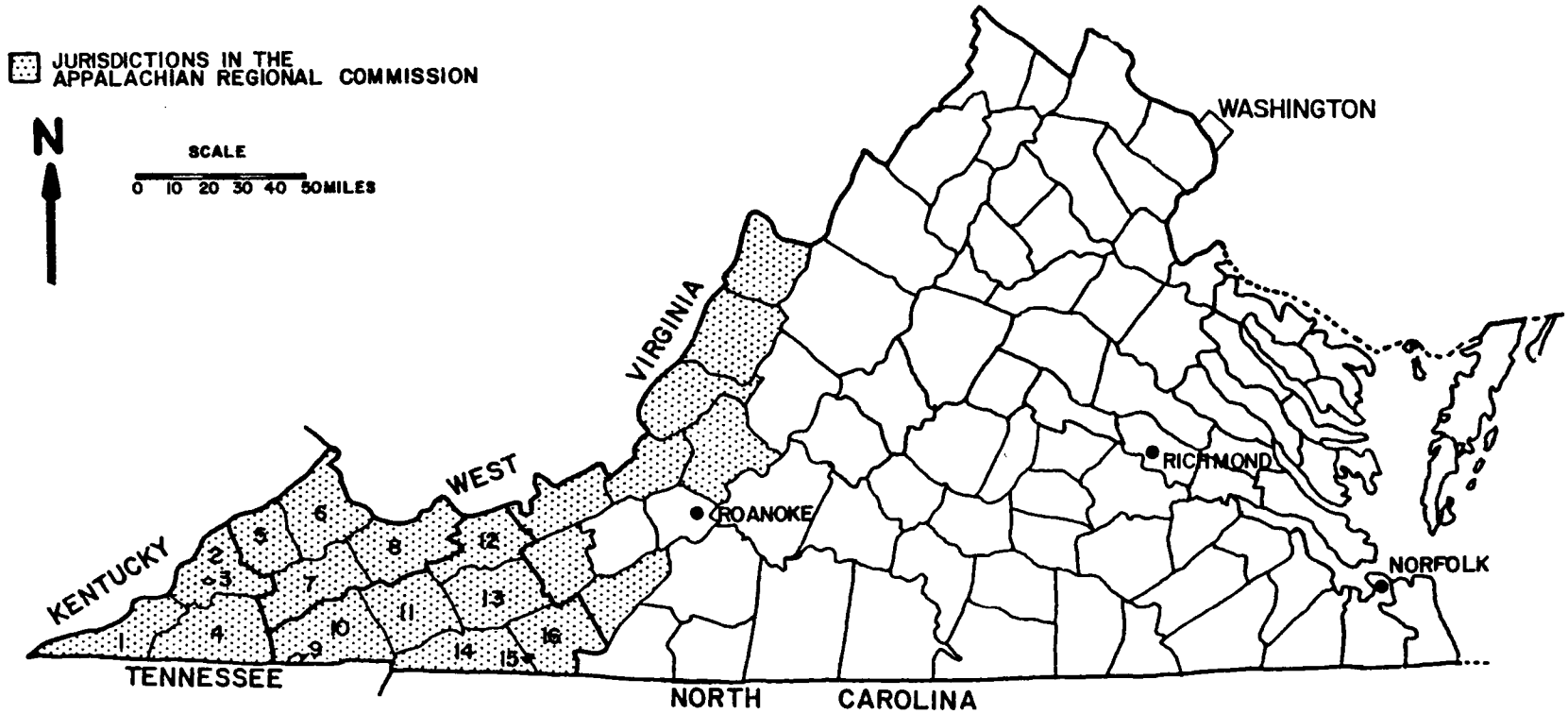
The primary focus of this study is land use planning, as opposed to comprehensive planning or functional planning. Comprehensive planning refers to planning that

encompasses, in addition to land use, other areas such as finance and budgeting, utilities, transportation, recreation, housing, economy, the arts, and other services and facilities such as police, fire, health, and social services that are provided by local governmental agencies. Functional planning entails the specific planning that is often done for any one of the above areas, including land use. While many of these other functional areas are included to varying degrees in land use planning, they are done so in a limited manner in terms of their influence on future land use patterns.

A. Study Area

The analysis is conducted in the form of a case study. It will involve approximately one-half of the area in Virginia which is included in the Appalachian Regional Commission. This area includes 13 counties, three cities, and 38 towns (see Figure 1) which is all of the 53 jurisdictions in Planning Districts 1, 2, and 3. A questionnaire survey was conducted among local elected officials, planning commission members, and staff administrators in 42 of the 53 jurisdictions.

This area was chosen because it is representative of the entire Southern Appalachia region which consists of three distinct physiographic sub-regions, the Pleateau, the Ridge and Valley, and the Mountain. The Plateau sub-region which extends from Sand Mountain, Georgia northward through



LENOWISCO PLANNING DISTRICT	CUMBERLAND PLATEAU PLANNING DISTRICT	MOUNT ROGERS PLANNING DISTRICT
1- LEE COUNTY	5- DICKENSON COUNTY	9 - CITY OF BRISTOL
2- WISE COUNTY	6- BUCHANAN COUNTY	10 - WASHINGTON COUNTY
3-CITY OF NORTON	7- RUSSELL COUNTY	11 -SMYTH COUNTY
4-SCOTT COUNTY	8-TAZEWELL COUNTY	12—BLAND COUNTY
		13-WYTHE COUNTY
		14-GRAYSON COUNTY
		15-CITY OF GALAX
		16-CARROLL COUNTY

STUDY AREA INCLUDES JURISDICTIONS 1-16.

Figure 1. Appalachian Region of Virginia

eastern Kentucky, southwest Virginia, and West Virginia is that part of the region most people stereotype as Appalachia. It is here where the economic conditions have been extremely severe, with the coal industry being the dominant economic activity. For several decades this area has suffered from high unemployment, low average family and per capita incomes, and environmental degradation. The heart of this area of economic and environmental decay is Eastern Kentucky, southern West Virginia, and portions of southwest Virginia.

The Ridge and Valley sub-region which extends from the Valley of East Tennessee northeastward through the Shenandoah Valley in northern Virginia possesses the most fertile soils for agriculture, with tobacco and livestock products being the major cash crops in this region. Manufacturing is a major economic activity through the Ridge Valley also. Many of the land use problems in this area stem from sprawl development that has occurred along the I-81 corridor. Loss of prime agricultural land to subdivision and industrial development is not uncommon.

The Mountain sub-region consists of the Great Smokey Mountains in Tennessee and North Carolina which become the Blue Ridge Mountains through Virginia. The primary characteristic of this region is forest land with recreation and tourism being a dominant economic activity. This results from the abundance of national forest land plus an increasing amount of second home development and ski resorts.

Parts of this region have become subjected to massive amounts of such development, resulting in snowballing land values, loss of good agricultural land, congested highways, water and sewage problems, and countryside littered with billboards which advertise "kicks in the sticks" images for urban tourists.[1]

While the general characteristics of each sub-region illustrate a certain degree of diversity within Appalachia, many commonalties exist throughout the region. The majority of these commonalties relate to human values. Such traits as individualism, self-reliance and pride, family solidarity, fatalism, and fundamental religious beliefs exist in varying degrees throughout Appalachia (Ergood, Ford, Riddel, Walls). It is felt that the study area reflects both the commonalties and diversity of the three physiographic sub-regions throughout Appalachia Virginia and perhaps the entire Southern Appalachian Region as a whole.

Because of this excellent representation of the area as a whole, the data generated from the study area will likewise be treated as a whole. This is because the purpose here is to analyze local land use planning as it is occurring throughout Appalachia in general rather than the specific physiographic sub-regions therein.

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[1]Anita Parlow, The Land Development Rag (Knoxville: Southern Appalachian Ministry in Higher Education, 1976), p. 1.

Demographically, the study area has a total population of 420,850. The county populations range from 6,349 in Bland to 50,511 in Tazewell, with an average of 30,041 persons per county. The average population of the towns is 2,125 ranging from 88 in Clinchport to 7,118 in Wytheville. Nearly 75 percent of the 38 towns (28) have a population below 2,500. A complete listing of the jurisdictions by planning district and population of each jurisdiction in the study area is provided in Appendix A.

Under Virginia law, towns are recognized as part of the county. Town residents pay county property taxes and receive certain county services such as education, health, and welfare. Town residents also vote in county elections in the selection of the member to the board of supervisors representing their particular magisterial district. Town residents generally pay additional taxes to their respective muncipalities for the provision of various services that the county does not provide or some that the town feels can be better provided by their respective municipality.

Virginia law also enables towns, once they attain a population of at least 5,000, to apply for independent city status. Doing this enables them to become a governmental entity independent of any county. As such, they must provide their residents with those services traditionally provided by counties. In some instances, contractual

arrangements are established between counties and cities to provide services such as education.

B. Conceptual Organization

The flow chart in Figure 2 illustrates the conceptual organization of the research conducted for this thesis. In analyzing the effect of the Virginia legislation that mandates land use planning throughout the state, Virginia's planning legislation is compared to the planning legislation of other southern Appalachian states bordering the study area. These include the states of Kentucky, North Carolina, Tennessee, and West Virginia. The review of other state legislation assists in the initial basis of developing a framework for analyzing the land use planning process.

A model of the traditional land use planning process is formulated on the basis of literature written by prominent professionals in the field of planning (Chapin, McHarg, Davidoff and Reiner, Meyerson and Banfield, et al.) in addition to the information obtained from the state planning legislation review. Using the traditional land use planning process model as a basis, the land use planning process in each of the governmental jurisdictions studied is analyzed. The analysis addresses three specific areas; the localities' compliance to the Virginia planning legislation; analysis of the actual land use planning process of each locality; and the reaction and attitudes of elected officials, planning

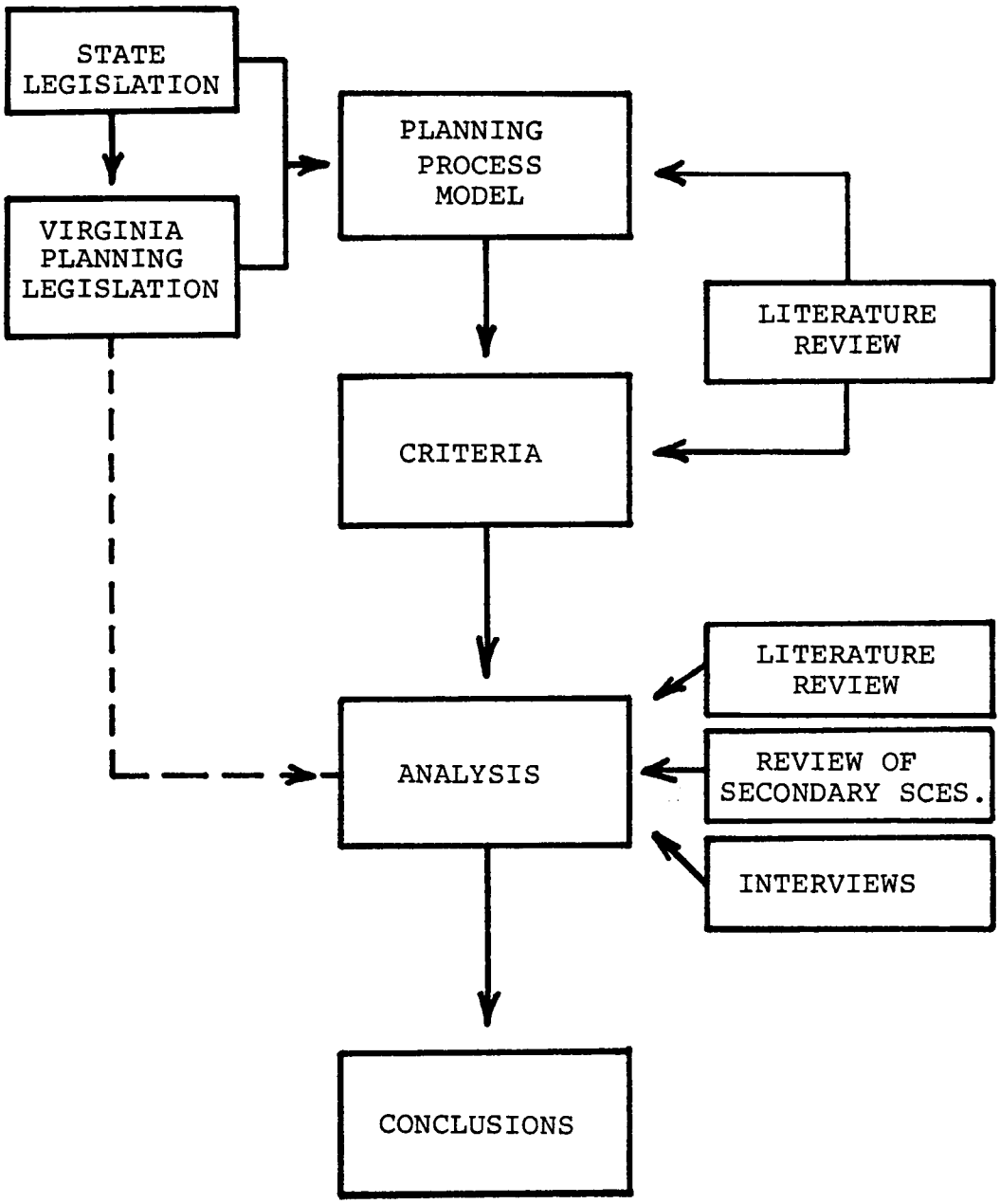


Figure 2. Conceptual Research Process

commissioners, and planners concerning land use planning and the legislative mandate.

C. Methodology

The methodology used to assess the local land use planning process in rural Appalachia Virginia consists of literature review, questionnaires, interviews and author observation. Types of literature reviewed includes planning legislation, planning literature, planning documents, government documents, Appalachian literature, and newspapers.

The planning legislation for the states of Kentucky, North Carolina, Tennessee, and West Virginia is reviewed and contrasted to the Virginia legislation. The purpose of this analysis is to provide insight into the ways that Virginia's planning legislation compares to that of neighboring southern Appalachian states. Key differences and similarities regarding land use planning are noted. These characteristics are referenced in the questionnaries and interviews to determine their influence on the land use planning process.

The literature of prominent planners dealing with the planning process and planning theory provides the basis for the traditional land use planning process model outlined in Chapter IV. The literature used is that which was accumulated throughout the curriculum of the planning program at the University of Tennessee's Graduate School of Planning.

All comprehensive land use plans adopted by local jurisdictions in the study area are reviewed to determine compliance to the Virginia legislative requirements and to the traditional land use planning process model. Regional planning documents are also reviewed to assess the level of coordination and local input into areawide planning.

Other literature is reviewed for pertinent information beneficial to the evaluation of local land use planning in Appalachia Virginia. This literature includes government documents, Appalachian literature, planning literature, and newspapers.

Questionnaires are used to query different groups of actors involved in the land use planning process. The groups of actors include planning commissioners, planning commission chairmen, elected officials, and chief administrators, i.e., town managers, city managers, and county administrators. The questionnaire for each group is structured to gather the data necessary to effectively determine the localities' compliance to the state planning legislation, analyze the land use planning process in each locality, and gauge the reaction and attitudes of local officials concerning the legislative mandate and role of land use planning, respectively. These questionnaries and a tabulation of the responses are included as Appendix B.

Key officials in regional and state planning offices are interviewed to determine their role and perception of

the local planning process in Appalachia Virginia. These officials include the staff persons in charge of planning in Planning District Commissions 1 (LENOWISCO), 2 (Cumberland Plateau), and 3 (Mount Rogers); planners for the Virginia Office of Regional Development Services which administers the ARC program and HUD 701 program in Virginia; and a planner in the Virginia Office of Local Development Programs.

Author observation includes the knowledge gained by the author as a result of over four years of experience in the field of local government within the study area. This includes over three years of experience on the staff of the Mount Rogers Planning District Commission, over nine months as Executive Director of the Chilhowie Redevelopment Housing Authority and four months as the Grants Coordinator/Marketing Coordinator of an architectural/engineering firm whose southwest Virginia office serves planning districts, one, two, three, and four. This work experience has enabled the author to learn many things about local land use planning in the study area that otherwise could not have been learned. While this experience may result in some subconscious bias, it is felt that the value of the author's observation are essential to the analyses outlined in the following chapters.

CHAPTER III

ANALYSIS OF STATE PLANNING LEGISLATION

Before doing an analysis of local land use planning in Appalachia Virginia, it is worthwhile to compare the enabling land use planning legislation of Virginia to that of states neighboring the study area. This includes the states of Kentucky, North Carolina, Tennessee, and West Virginia. The analysis is divided into four areas - planning commissions, comprehensive plans, subdivision regulations, and zoning regulations. Major simularities and differences are outlined in each area.

A. Planning Commissions

In North Carolina, Tennessee, and West Virginia the establishment of local planning commissions is optional. In Kentucky the creation of planning commissions is optional with the exception of those counties that have population in excess of 300,000. Counties of this size are mandated to establish planning commissions. In Virginia, state law requires each governing body in the state, i.e. town, independent city, or county, to establish a planning commission as of July 1, 1976. There are no provisions regarding what action will be taken against jurisdictions that violate this requirement.

Legislation in three of the states call for membership of the commission to consist of five to fifteen persons. Tennessee calls for five to ten members while North Carolina simply requires three or more. In both Tennessee and West Virginia one member must be a member of the local governing body. Also, Tennessee states that for planning commissions for municipalities with regional powers one member must be the chief executive officer while West Virginia law requires that one member of municipal planning commissions must be a member of the administrative department of the municipality. This is not a requirement for county planning commissions in West Virginia. Legislative and/or executive representation is not a requirement in Virginia, Kentucky, or North Carolina.

B. Comprehensive Plans

Virginia mandates that every governing body in the state adopt a comprehensive plan for the physical development of land within the jurisdiction by July 1, 1980. Like the requirement to establish a local planning commission, no provisions are made for violaters of the mandate. In each of the four states bordering the study area the adoption of land use plans is optional. However, in three of those states, Kentucky, Tennessee, and West Virginia, if a planning commission is established it must then prepare and adopt a plan. In Virginia and West Virginia the plan is adopted by the local governing body. This is not the case

in the other states. In those states, after adoption by the planning commissions only, recommendations pertaining to the expenditure of funds for public capital investments are referred to the local governing body which can override the planning commission and thus, the land use plan, if it so chooses.

In terms of the contents of a comprehensive land use plan, Kentucky is the most specific. Its legislation states that the plan shall include goals and objectives, a land use plan element, a transportation plan element, and a community facilities plan element. Virginia law requires sections on land use, future economic and population trends, and methods for implementation. Virginia, Tennessee, and West Virginia legislation all require that careful and comprehensive surveys and studies be made of existing conditions and future needs. However, with the exception of Kentucky, specific types of information to be included is primarily left to the discretion of each locality.

C. Subdivision Regulations

Virginia law requires that each jurisdiction have an adopted subdivision ordinance by July 1, 1977. As is the case with the requirements to establish a planning commission and adopt a comprehensive land use plan, the law does not set forth any actions to be taken against localities that violate this law.

In Tennessee, if a planning commission is established, then a subdivision ordinance must be prepared and adopted. However, unlike Virginia the establishment of a planning commission is not mandatory. As is the case regarding the adoption of a comprehensive land use plan, in Virginia the subdivision ordinance is adopted by the governing body while in Tennessee the subdivision ordinance is adopted by the planning commission.

In Kentucky, North Carolina, and West Virginia adoption of subdivision regulations is optional. However, before a subdivision ordinance can be adopted in Kentucky or West Virginia, the local jurisdiction must have adopted a comprehensive land use plan.

The legislation in each of the five states is similar in terms of the kinds of requirements that must be included in a subdivision ordinance. Generally these requirements include procedures for platting and listing specifications for street construction and other physical improvements. Kentucky and West Virginia have no definition of subdivision in the planning enabling legislation. North Carolina and Tennessee generally define a subdivision as the division of land into two or more parcels of land less than five acres in size. The Virginia legislation states the definition of subdivision as the division of land into three or more parcels of land less than five acres in size unless

otherwise defined in the local ordinance, in essence, leaving the definition up to each locality.

D. Zoning

None of the five states require the adoption of zoning regulations. However, the adoption of a comprehensive land use plan is a prerequisite to the adoption of zoning ordinance in Kentucky, North Carolina, and West Virginia. While adoption of a comprehensive land use plan is mandatory in Virginia, it is not a prerequisite to the adoption of a zoning ordinance. This means that zoning ordinances can be adopted without having a land use plan, even for localities in violation of the law by not having adopted a plan by July 1, 1980. Interestly, in West Virginia the adoption of a zoning ordinance by the governing body can be rejected by referendum provided at least 15 percent of the number of voters who voted in the last gubernatorial election cast votes on the referendum. The referendum must be requested by petition and held within 60 days of the date of adoption of the zoning ordinance.

Legislative provisions for the review and appeals procedures pertaining to zoning regulations are generally the same in each state.

E. Summary

Overall, the planning enabling legislation of Kentucky, North Carolina, Tennessee, and West Virginia is very similar.

While differences in specifics pertaining to language, applicability, etc. exists, generally the major context of the legislation enabling the establishment of planning commissions, and the preparation of comprehensive land use plans, subdivision ordinances, and zoning ordinances is the same.

Virginia planning legislation is also similar to the other four states in terms of the context and applicability of the land use plan and subdivision and zoning regulations. However, a significant difference exists in that Virginia mandates the establishment of a planning commission, adoption of a comprehensive land use plan, and adoption of subdivision regulations. In essence, Virginia requires all localities to plan for future development while each of the other four states adjacent to the study area leave the decision to plan for future development up to each individual locality.

This major difference is important in the analysis of this thesis. It permits an evaluation of a well defined homogeneous area where all of the localities are mandated to plan for growth and development. Consequently, the findings of this analysis serve as a barometer of the effectiveness and need for an on-going planning effort in other regions of Appalachia Virginia and perhaps the entire Southern Appalachian Region.

CHAPTER IV

THE TRADITIONAL LAND USE PLANNING PROCESS MODEL

Much has been written concerning what the land use planning process is and/or should be. There are nearly as many variations of the process as there are planners. Yet while there may be numerous disagreements over many of the subtleties of the process, at the same time there is widespread agreement concerning the basic planning approach to land use planning. The model presented here is drawn primarily from material presented throughout the curriculum of the University of Tennessee Graduate School of Planning.

In referring to the planning process, reference is being made to the efforts of local governments to identify and render solutions to the various problems associated with the physical development that is occuring and projected to occur in their jurisdictions. Basically the involvement is one that affects the decision-making processes that have long-range consequences affecting future growth and development. Within the context of references made here, the planning process is that of community land use planning.

In this chapter a more detailed definition of the planning process is given. Second, there is a discussion of the actors in the planning process, i.e., those persons who are most directly involved and whose input is necessary for effective and efficient land use planning. The next section

of this chapter disscusses the various steps involved in the traditional planning process which, for the most part, emphasize the development of the land use plan. The following section looks at the inter-relationships between the various actors throughout the land use planning process. The final section discusses the Chapin approach to planning and the type of local planning mandated by Virginia legislation.

A. Definition

Unlike Meyerson and Banfield[1] who were trying to establish an analytically significant formulation of planning that would apply to private planning in industry as well as public planning at the local level, the desire here is simply to define comprehensive land use planning as it applies to local government. Therefore the definition of the land use planning process reads:

> the process of guiding physical development in the most rational way possible, to help insure the best possibly living environment for the most people, now and for generations to come.

Inherent in this definition are four characteristics necessary for a successful planning process - action, rationality, utilitarianism, and a focus toward the future. Each of these basic elements is a necessity if a local land use planning process is to realize substantive results.

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[1]Martin Meyerson and Edward C. Banfield, Politics, Planning, and the Public Interest (London: The Free Press, 1955), p. 303.

Action is implied in the word process. Reference to the land use planning process indicates an on-going, working effort. This is important because the world in which we are living and for which we are planning is an on-going, dynamic system. In order to stay abreast of the inevitable changes inherant in such a system, the land use planning process must be cognizant of and adaptable to continuous change.

Moreover, action is implied through utilization of the end product of the initial planning effort, the land use plan itself. Land use plans adopted but not adhered to are of absolutely no value. Thus, to serve the ultimate function of guiding future physical development, plans must be actively administered to be effective. If not, the human effort and financial investment put forth in the development of the land use plans are simply wasted, not to mention the costs to an individual jurisdiction by operating on a piecemeal basis without the benefit of planning ahead.

Rational guidance of development pertains to the decision making process involved in land use planning. Throughout any planning process it is essential that all decisions are made on a rational basis. To come to make a rational decision is to say that one has made the most efficient and reasonable decision possible based on the available knowledge. Dahl and Lindblom say that "an action is rational to the extent that it is 'correctly' designed to

maximize goal achievement, given the goal in question and the real world as it exists."[2]

Meyerson and Banfield in discussing rational decision making say that to make a rational decision requires three things. First is the consideration of all open alternatives; second is the identification and evaluation of all the consequences which would follow from the adoption of each alternative; and finally, the selection of the alternatives whose probable consequences would be most preferable in terms of the most valued ends.[3]

Critics of this are quick to point out that to say that someone can make a truely rational decision is absurd. They agree that not only can we never know all possible alternatives but we can never know all of the consequences of any one alternative. In light of this, they contend that it is impossible to make a rational decision as defined by Meyerson and Banfield.

Upon consideration of these two indisputable points, one might question the value of including rational decision making in the land use planning process model. However, Meyerson and Banfield give us an excellent reason for doing so. They say that "obviously no decision can be perfectly

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[2] Robert A. Dahl and Charles E. Lindblom, Politics, Economics, and Welfare (New York: Harper & Brothers, 1953), p. 38.

[3] Meyerson and Banfield, p. 314.

rational . . . nevertheless, decisions may be made with more or less knowledge of alternatives, consequences, and relevant ends, and so we may describe some decisions and some decision making processes as more nearly rational than others . . . [furthermore] we are ultimately not interested in how plans are actually made but how they would have to be made in order to be most effective and for this purpose the model of rational planning, unreal as it may be, is useful as a guide."[4]

The key to Meyerson and Banfield's justification of the rational decision making is "guide." By using the three steps in rational decision making as a guide, planners, planning commissioners, and politicans can make more rational decisions if not purely rational decisions. The more rational the decision, the more research, knowledge and thought that goes into that decision. When this is the case, the better the chance of making a wise decision that will benefit the general public and the less chance of making a blunderous mistake that will cost the public.

Before leaving the discussion of rationality, a final point should be stressed. Rational decision making occurs throughout the entire land use planning process. This is the case as decisions are made in determining the most

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[4]Meyerson and Banfield, pp. 314, 315.

desirable goals and objectives of a given locality; the various alternatives by which to achieve the goals and objectives; and ultimately, the selection of the alternatives to best achieve the goals and objectives.

The third inherent characteristic of the definition of the planning process is utilitarianism. Perhaps it is best defined by Meyerson and Banfield, who say that "the public interest is the greatest happiness of the greatest number of those who constitute the public."[5] Used in the context of planning, it means making decisions that are in the overall public interest, not special interest.

This is not always an easy determination however. A housing rehabilitation program for a group of low-income minority families may appear to be a program to solely benefit a specific special interest group. However, it may also benefit the community as a whole through improving the physical and aesthetic condition of the community. It may also improve a social problem which may affect the overall community such as a high rate of crime and social unrest resulting from personal frustrations generated from living in undesirable conditions.

The fourth characteristic of the definition is future orientation. While two aspects of the land use planning process are the identification and solution of problems, the

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[5]Meyerson and Banfield, p. 324.

process should not become strictly one of problem solving. Rather, in addition to trying to solve current problems, the land use planning process should seek to identify potential problems, a function of problem avoidance. Using this as a premise, planning is assured of not becoming locked into a reactionary process where the concentration is on the past and present in the search for problems to remedy. Instead, emphasis is also on guiding development so that potential problems will be avoided. By doing this the focus also centers on what is to come, i.e., the future.

B. Actors In The Process

To get a true understanding of the land use planning process, it is necessary to identify the primary actors involved in the process. The actors are those persons or groups who have vital roles in the day-to-day activities that constitute the land use planning process. These actors include planners, planning commissioners, elected officials, administrators, the general public, and state and federal agencies. Although there are certainly others, these are the most significant and are most important in maintaining an efficient and productive planning program.

1) Planners

Planners are staff personnel who provide technical assistance directly to the planning commission and often, directly to the governing body as well. In many instances

planners staff a department funded by an independent jurisdiction for the purpose of serving only that particular jurisdiction. This is common in large municipalities and counties. In most rural areas technical assistance is generally provided by planners employed by regional planning commissions, statewide planning agencies or both. Still another avenue from which to secure land use planning expertise is that of private planning consultant firms.

Technical assistance provided by planners includes aid in the development of land use plans; planning related ordinances, particularly zoning and subdivision ordinances; functional plans such as housing and transportation plans; assistance in applying for state and federal grant monies; as well as special studies pertaining to various physical, social, and economic needs in a given area.

The role of the planner is primarily that of providing advise pertaining to growth and development based on an objective, rational evaluation of available data. As such, in many ways the planner is an educator to the planning commission, governing body, and perhaps, the general public.

2) Planning Commissioners

Planning commissioners are those persons appointed by the local governing body to advise them (governing body) on matters related to planning and development. Virginia law states that the local commission shall consist of not less than five, nor more than fifteen members. All members shall

be residents, qualified by knowledge and experience to make decisions on questions of community growth and development. At least one-half of the members shall be free holders. One member may be a member of the governing body and one may be a member of the administrative branch of government.[6]

The planning commission is generally composed of citizens-at-large who devote time and effort to physical planning matters that the governing body does not have the time to adequately address. Because they are not confronted with the reality of maintaining political popularity, they are generally considered freer to "bite the bullet" on controversial issues. The reason for this is that as appointed officials, they are theoretically able to present recommendations to the governing body based on decisions reached without the intense political pressures from special interest groups. This is not to suggest that special interests do not attempt to influence planning commissions. Rather, it is to say that because of the organizational relationship of the commission to the governing body, such pressures are less likely to influence final decisions of the commission. Moreover, the commission provides the governing body an "out" in making tough and perhaps unpopular decisions, by using the recommendation of the local planning commission to justify such decisions.

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[6]Code of Virginia, Annotated (Charlottesville: The Michie Company, 1973), Section 15.1-437.

3) Elected Officials

The local governing body is composed of individuals elected by the general public to make local policy decisions on their behalf. In the counties these individuals are referred to as the board of supervisors. In the cities and towns they constitute the council. Because the elected officials have the power to make policy decisions, they are perhaps the most important of the actors in the land use planning process. They are the key to seeing that a local land use planning process is adequately carried out through the adoption of a land use plan, implementation of the recommendations in the plan, and provision of competent administration of the planning program.

4) General Public

In referring to the general public the reference includes the collective groups of citizenry that reside throughout the jurisdiction. This citizenry is made up of many sub-groups whose interests may vary on specific issues for various reasons. Nevertheless, most every decision can be made in a way that will favor the majority of citizenry as a whole.

In their discussion of the need for the planner to identify his client, Davidoff and Reiner refer to the immediate client (the planner's employer) and the ultimate client

(those affected by planning proposals).[7] In most instances, the general public will constitute the ultimate client for whom the planner and planning commission must answer in developing future courses of action. The planning commission will hopefully consist of a fair representation of the general public and as such present recommendations reflecting the best public interest. Similarly elected officials, directly accountable to the general public, will hopefully make final decisions that are in the best interest of their constituency, the general public. However, avenues of communication should be provided throughout the land use planning process so that groups and individuals composing the general public will be guaranteed an opportunity to express themselves to the commission and governing body, ensuring that decisions will not be made without knowledge of public sentiment.

5) Administrators

The term administrators, should not to be confused with county administrator. The land use controls administrator of a county refers to those individuals at the local level who are charged with the responsibility of administering land use ordinances. It is important that the chief executive of

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[7]Paul Davidoff and Thomas A. Reiner, "A Choice Theory of Planning," Journal of the American Institute of Planners 28 (1962): p.108.

the local jurisdictions, as well as the elected officials, have a continuous knowledge of adopted land use policy and reflect this policy in the decision making process of local government. It is equally important that when land use ordinances are adopted to implement planning policy, that such ordinances be effectively administered. If this is not done, the intent of the ordinances is lost. This is particularly true of zoning and subdivision ordinances where someone familiar with the technical content should be available to assist and assure that the private sector complies with such ordinances. Virginia law prohibits staff personnel of the planning district commissions from providing this function, placing total responsibility of this task squarely on the shoulders of local government.

The functions of these persons should include field inspections to assure that the intent of the law is upheld. In cases where it is not, measures outlined in the ordinances such as requiring the posting of bonds and restricting the issuance of building and occupancy permits should be employed by the administrator. Such measures are designed to prevent abuses of the legislative intent, and the administrator is charged with the duty of identifying and correcting such abuses when they occur.

6) State and Federal Agencies

State and federal agencies affect the land use planning

process in two ways, as regulatory agencies and as funding agencies. As regulatory agencies they establish standards affecting both the public and private sectors. These may range from state standards for the construction of streets and buildings to federal standards on air and water pollution. The basic premise for establishing such standards is almost always the continuous effort to guarantee quality living conditions. As such, regulatory standards impose objectives into the local land use planning process to be achieved, i.e. maintaining various regulatory standards.

As funding sources, state and federal funding agencies provide the monies that often enable local jurisdictions to implement projects and programs necessary to realize certain goals and objectives. This is particularly true where capital investment projects are necessary. For example, without assistance from such agencies as the Farmers Home Administration, Environmental Protection Agency, Economic Development Administration, and Appalachian Regional Commission, such things as water and sewer facilities and industrial parks in small rural municipalities would be cost prohibitive in many cases. Consequently, land use plan implementation is often dependent on financial assistance from state and federal agencies.

C. The Steps of the Process

The traditional land use planning process refers to the

process as addressed in prominant planning literature, primarily reflecting the steps to be followed in developing and updating a land use plan. Although it should be noted that as a dynamic system the traditional land use planning process is a continous cycle with input occurring at various levels much of the time, a distinct pattern of action can be identified and illustrated through a succession of steps. The steps of the traditional land use planning process include 1) situation evaluation; 2) data assimilation; 3) data analysis; 4) policy formulation; 5) identification of alternative courses of action; 6) alternative selection; 7) implementation; and 8) evaluation (see Figure 3). While each step is interdependent with the rest, no one step can procede until the former is completed.

1) Situation Evaluation

The first step, situation evaluation, is perhaps of greatest importance to the planner. This is particularly true in instances where there are new personnel unfamiliar with the area. This step basically entails a familarization process. Before the heart of the land use planning process unfolds, it is necessary that the planner have a knowledge of three things; the people who will be affected; the physical environment confronting these people; and if possible, a knowledge of the goal(s) of the people.[8]

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[8]Leonard W. Doob, The Plans of Men (New Haven: Yale University Press, 1940), pp. 339-346.

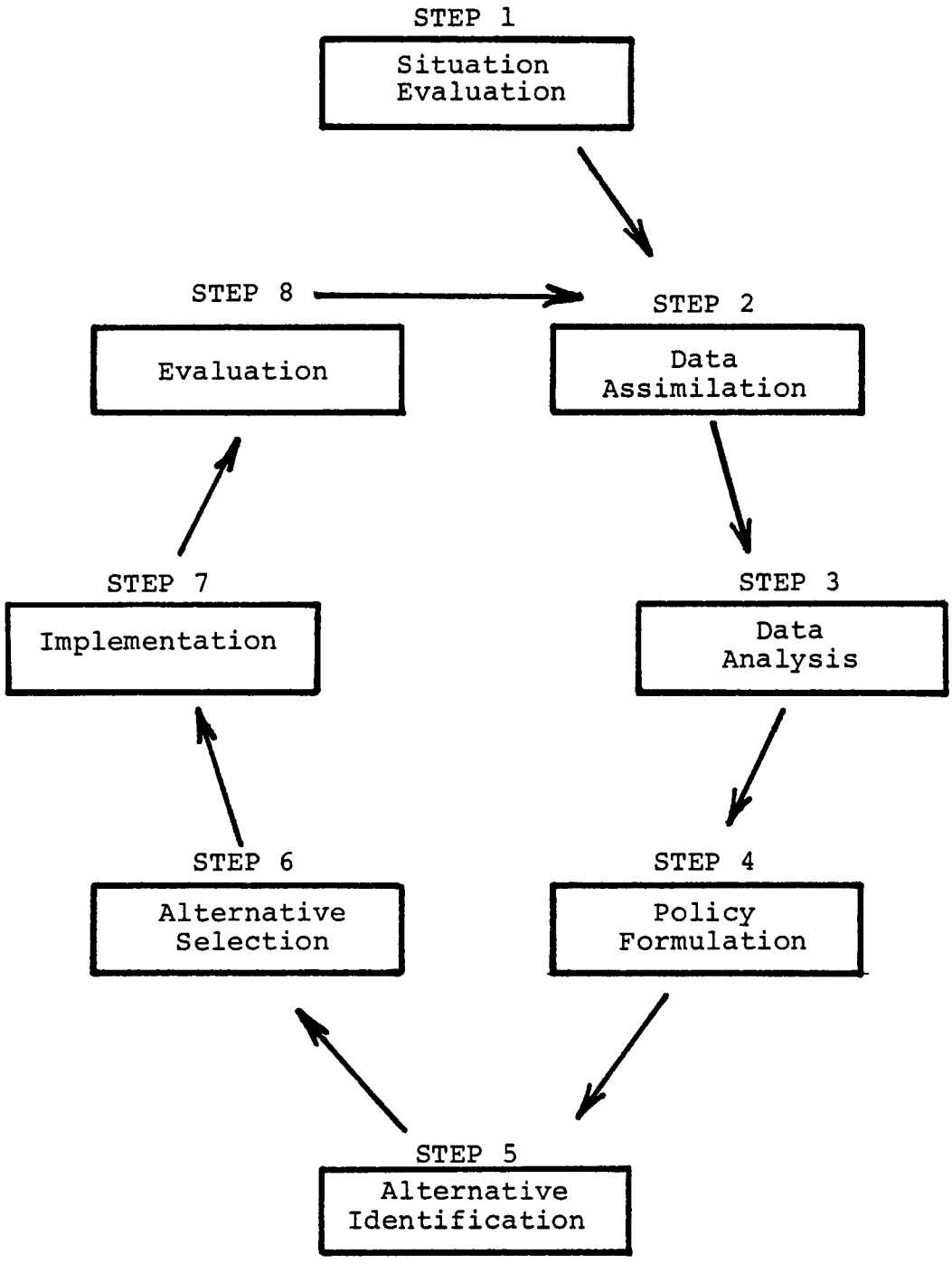


Figure 3. The Steps of the Traditional Planning Process

This step assumes more than that which can be assertained through basic data gathering. It calls for the planner to get a feel for the area through personal contact. The importance of this has been discussed at length by Lynch,[9] and was pointed out by Altshuler in his discussion of Carl Dale's planning approach in St. Paul.[10]

Having a knowledge of the people to be affected does not simply mean identifying the planner's client, discussed previously. It means familiarizing one's self with local residents through direct contact and communication. Through such association the planner will develop a sense of perspective concerning local values. This is important in putting the planner in a better position to not only meet the needs of his client but also of being able to deal with sensitive issues. Such knowledge is also important to the planner in his role of sharing, through his technical assistance, knowledge and reason behind planning considerations. As an educator, which he is in this regard, the more knowledge the planner has of his client the more effective he will be.

The second area of knowledge that the planner should

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[9]Kevin Lynch, The Image of the City (Cambridge: The Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press, 1960) pp. 1-14.

[10]Alan A. Altshuler, The City Planning Process, A Political Analysis (London: Cornell University Press, 1965), p. 96.

have is that of the physical environment confronting the people who will be affected by land use planning policies. In addition to the review of maps and other information concerning the area, the planner should become oriented to the area through visual observation. By getting a first hand look at the community or region, the planner can get an appreciation for the land and the people that maps and documents can never depict. This kind of experience should take place prior to the data assimilation and analysis phase of the planning process so that these steps can be tempered with the human element of having a "feel" for the area, which is vital to the development of the plan.

Finally, there is the knowledge of the goals of the people to be served. If the land use planning process is being initiated for the first time, more than likely this knowledge will be difficult to attain at this stage of the planning process. Chances are that people have never given serious thought to what they desire in a couple of decades hence, much less what price they are willing to pay to achieve such desires. However, the planner will get a general idea of what people may perceive for the future as he increases his personal knowledge of the local people and their value base.

2) Data Assimulation

Steps two and three of the land use planning process are referred to as the "tooling-up phase" of the planning

process by Chapin.[11] Step two, data assimulation primarily consists of collecting data necessary for the analysis that provides the foundation for the policy recommendations.

The kinds of information that should be gathered include data on the physical characteristics of the land, population, economy, human resources, housing, public facilities and services (including transportation), land use, and government.

It is generally the responsibility of the planner to assimulate this data. Once collected, he compiles the information in a presentable format that will allow for thorough analysis.

3) Data Analysis

Once the data base has been compiled, the planner in conjunction with the planning commission, is ready for the analysis. For the most part, this too is primarily the responsibility of the planner because of his technical expertise. However, it is a valuable learning process for both the planner and more importantly, local citizens. Through the identification of local problems, potential, and needs, residents are often sensitized to existing conditions that they never realized existed or, realized but took for granted.

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[11]F. Stuart Chapin, Jr., Urban Land Use Planning (Chicago: University of Illinois Press, 1965) pp. 101-345.

The analysis should bring to the fore such things as physical constraints to development; population trends, migration patterns and population forecasts; economic conditions and forecasts; housing needs; infrastructure strengths and weaknesses including physical considerations such as public utilities and transportation facilities as well as human resource characteristics such as labor skills and participation patterns; governmental strengths and weaknesses ranging from tax analyses to administrative capabilities; and finally, land use patterns and forecasts and recommendations for influencing future location of various land uses.

Having collected and studied an array of technical data, the planner and commissioners are well educated on the various land use and related problems, potentialities, and needs of the locality. As such, they are in the position to begin to rationally establish a set of policy recommendations to guide future development.

4) Policy Formulation

Policy is the formulation of goals and objectives. Goals are general statements identifying an end toward which the community desires to strive over the planning period. After finalizing the goals, the next step is establishing objectives to carry out each goal. The objectives should explain more specifically the ends to be attained. They are the basic policy statements that guide local government in

the administration of land use controls and the expenditures of funds for capital projects.

Generally speaking, goals and objectives represent a roadmap for the future. As such, it requires a great deal of thought and conjecture on behalf of the planning commission members, political leaders, and indirectly, general public, to look into the future and set a course to follow.

Countless variables, many of them unforeseeable, always determine the future course of events. Because of this, setting goals and objectives is no easy task. In addition, many people such as Darwin Stuart, scorn the goal achievement process of planning for yet another reason. Stuart believes that people are more responsive to identifying what their problems are. He does not believe people really know what their goals are because their thought processes are not oriented to the long-range focus planners seek.[12]

To a large degree Stuart is perhaps correct. This is the advantage of intensely educating a small but representative cross section of the total population, the members of the planning commission and local elected officials. Through the education process involved in steps three and four of the traditional land use planning process, they become geared to consider the future consequences of land development.

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[12]Darwin Stuart, "Rational Urban Planning: Problems and Prospects," Urban Affairs Quarterly (December 1969): pp. 151-182.

This is important as the environmental, social, and economic investments of individuals in their localities in such that the risks of advancing on a piecemeal basis of problem solving opposed to planning are far too great to take. For this reason, goals and objectives constitute an important part of the land use planning process.

5) Identification of Alternative Courses of Action

Once that policy is established, methods to carry out the policy have to be identified. Thus the programs, projects, and recommendations for realizing the goals and objectives must be developed.

Often, many objectives can be met in a number of different ways. It is the responsibility of the planner to seek all alternative methods of meeting each objective. Some objectives will be more limited than others in terms of the ways in which they can be realized. However, few objectives will be limited to just one alternative.

For example, a county may identify several alternative ways to encourage industrial development. It may develop one large industrial park in the county complete with utilities and transportation network for easy access. On the other hand it may develop numerous industrial sites throughout the county at locales adjacent to existing services and facilities. Yet another alternative might be to build shell buildings at no charge for prospective industrial

clients to move into. Still another could be the establishment of tax incentives to enhance industrial location. The county could simply initiate a concentrated effort to establish a vocational education program designed specifically to meet the needs of prospective industries. Perhaps the final alternative would consist of a combination of the above alternatives.

Possibilities are numerous and vary from policy to policy and from community to community. An identical policy for town A requires a totally different alternative from town B due to different levels of infrastructure, local attitudes, or other factors. It is for this reason that every community, despite the common ends that it may seek to attain, should carefully select the proper strategy for realizing that end.

6) Alternative Selection

In step seven the final recommendations are made for carrying out the goals and objectives established in step four. Having identified possible alternatives for achieving goals and objectives in step five, in this step the most desired alternative is selected.

The planner should make a recommendation to the planning commission based on any number of methodologies. With the ever increasing fiscal awareness at the local level, one method for selecting alternative strategies employed with increasing frequency, is that of fiscal impact analysis.

This is a process whereby the public costs and public revenues of private development are determined. It is employed in estimating the costs of providing services and facilities as a result of increased demand generated by a given alternative balanced against the tax revenues that alternative is estimated to generate. Such analyses give an indication of alternative feasibility based on the costs and revenues that will be generated.

Another method of selecting among alternatives is utilization of benefit/cost (B/C) analysis. This entails determining the benefits and costs of each alternative, assigning values to each benefit and each cost, and selecting the one with greatest benefit/cost ratio. Unlike fiscal impact analysis, B/C anlaysis is not necessarily limited to public costs and revenues. Moreover, values assigned to the benefits and costs often are attempts to quantify subjective factors such as aesthetic quality.

Other quantitative methods include physical impact assessments and time/distance analyses. Qualitative methods may also be employed based on political considerations, overwhelming public sentiment, or social impact assessment.

Together with the policy statements formulated in step four, the alternative strategies selected in step five constitute the heart of the land use plan. It is the policies and recommendations that set the tone for the course of future development in the local jurisdictions. Based on a

comprehensive analysis of the area, they represent the most desirable course of action that the public and private sector should follow throughout the planning period.

While objectives are more specific than goals, recommendations are more specific than objectives. They refer to specific action that should be taken on behalf of both the private and public sector. Moreover, recommendations often refer to specific existing or potential problem areas.

Generally the number and level of specificity of recommendations may tend to increase depending upon the size of the jurisdiction for which the planning is being done as well as the depth of analysis and effort that is undertaken by the planners and planning commissions involved.

The greater the volume of policies and recommendations, the more important it is to have the local leadership and administrative capabilities to implement all of the policies. When those capabilities are not present, the degree of effectiveness declines. Moreover, it is often politically undesirable to adopt a document that includes an extensive list of recommendations involving expenditures of public monies or restrictions of private development.

For these reasons a delicate but important tradeoff is involved. This tradeoff will vary from one jurisdiction to another, depending upon size, the level of sophistication of the local land use planning process, and perhaps most importantly, the political environment that exists. This tradeoff involves

sacrificing specificity in establishing recommendations to insure political acceptability of the document. Without political acceptability, the recommendations, regardless of number and specificity, will be totally disregarded. For the planner therefore, knowing the values of his immediate client becomes an important element in this stage of the land use planning process.

7) Implementation

Once the planning commission has comprehensively studied various aspects of the local jurisdiction, established policy for future development based on that study, and made recommendations for carrying out the established policy, then comes the most important aspect of the land use planning process, implementation of the land use plan. Because this stage of the planning process often collapses, the time, effort, and expense of going through the first six steps of the land use planning process are often wasted. Moreover, the primary purpose of the entire process, establishing a framework within which future development can transpire, is never realized. Step seven therefore is vital to the success of any land use planning process.

Unfortunately, implementation of land use plans is no easy task. This is due to various obstacles, particularly prevalent at the local level. They include: the pressure applied by specific interest groups by their presence and

often times, control of advisory regulatory agencies; the influence and support generated by such groups through political contributions and favors; and the nature of the incrementalist approach that most all governing bodies tend to take.

In light of such obstacles the planners must carefully consider the implementation phase of the land use planning process. The key to implementing plans is gaining political acceptance of land use planning principles and concepts. This often requires getting the confidence and support of those persons in the community who have the power to influence political action.

However, adoption of the land use plan does not fully constitute implementation. To do so means the adoption of land use controls to insure that the adopted policies and recommendations are fulfilled. This includes such land use controls as subdivision regulations, zoning regulations, capital improvements programs, and official maps. Ideally the adoption of these controls would come after the land use plan has been completed and adopted. The plan could then serve as the basis from which the above controls could be drawn.

While the land use controls listed above represent those most frequently used, this is not an exhaustive list. Other means of controlling land use can be derived by altering

the existing tax structures through use value taxation and other variations of traditional tax methods. Transfer of development rights, planned unit development ordinances and outright government purchase of land and easements represent still more means of controlling land use.

Despite the needs for particular land use controls in given areas, it should be emphasized that without adoption of the land use plan and measures to carry out the plan, the land use planning process cannot succeed.

8) Evaluation

As was previously stated, land use planning is an on-going process. For this reason the land use plan should be a tool religiously employed by local government as a framework for decision making. As such, it should be periodically updated to keep abreast of changing needs, priorities, and attitudes. As problems are alleviated through implementation of recommendations in the plan, certain objectives are met. As this occurs, policy statements and strategies need to be revised and updated. Moreover, new problems arise, political problems are identified, and a new policy should be established to address them.

Not only does problem identification need updating, but so does the data base. As data sources are updated, this needs to be reflected in the plan. For example, as census data is updated every ten years, it should be incorporated into the inventory and analysis sections of the plan.

D. The Institutional Relationship of the Actors in the Process

Having discussed the definition of the land use planning process, the primary actors involved in the process, and the eight steps of the process, a final note should be made concerning the relationship of the actors to the land use planning process. This was done in a narrow context in the preceeding section as the primary actors involved in each step of the process were identified. In this section, a more general overview of the various relationships will be presented.

Figure 4 graphically depicts the different areas of interaction among the actors throughout the overall traditional land use planning process. The planning staff is shown as directly accountable to the planning commission in the provision of technical assistance. Although planners often work directly at the pleasure of the governing body, this generally is more the exception than the rule.

The center of Figure 4 reflects the responsibility of the governing body in the adoption of the land use plan and the tools to implement the plan. In essence, the planning commission, with technical assistance from the planning staff, actually develops the plan. Once the planning commission finalizes the draft plan, it is presented to the governing body for adoption.

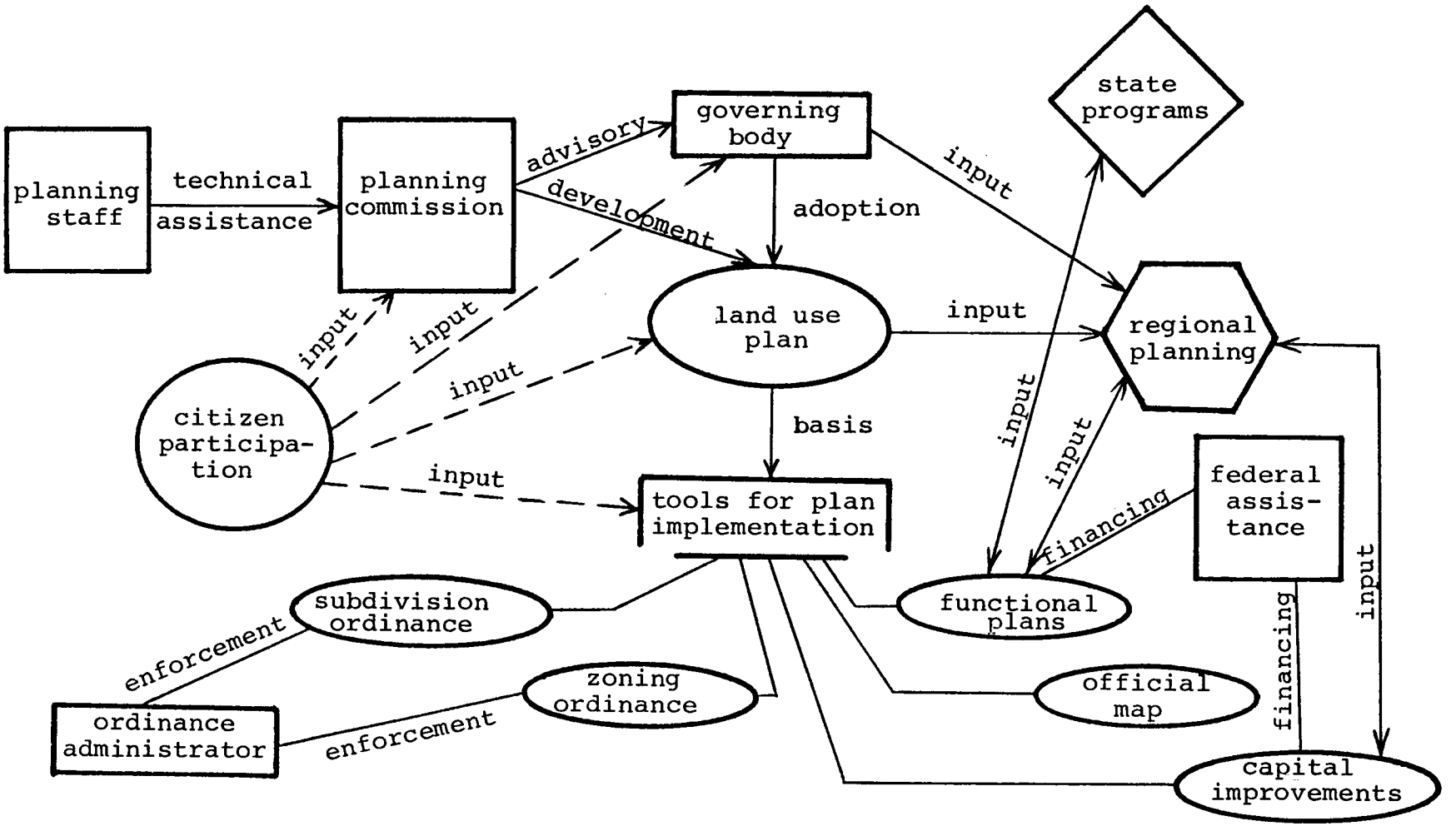


Figure 4. Interrelationship of Actors Throughout the Traditional Land Use Planning Process

As has been mentioned, the general public is the ultimate client of the planner. Consequently, it is of utmost importance that the public be given as much opportunity as possible to participate in the land use planning process. This public involvement is shown in the diagram as citizen participation. The public is represented through the members of the planning commission who ideally should reflect a cross section of the general public. In addition, planning commission meetings are open to the public and local residents are free to come to meetings and participate.

The general public is also represented by those who make up the decision making body of local government. These persons are elected by the general public to represent them and make policy decisions on their behalf. As is the case with planning commissions, almost all meetings of the local governing body are open to the public. Citizens have an opportunity at such meetings to present their feelings to the governing body.

Even with these avenues of citizen participation open to the general public, it is commonly held that this is not enough. Yet another avenue for citizen participation is to provide a forum for public comment on specific issues. This should take the form of public meetings throughout the jurisdiction. In addition, public hearings should be held prior to adoption of any plans or ordinances. To assure

this opportunity for citizen input, Virginia law requires that at least one public hearing be held prior to such adoption. Also, it is required that proposed plans, ordinances, or amendments be left in a place or places for public examination prior to the hearing. To assure that proper notification is given, the law states that notice of the time, place, and purpose of the public hearing to be published once a week for two successive weeks in some newspaper having general circulation in the local jurisdiction. The second advertisement must be published not less than six days nor more than twenty-one days before the public hearing.[13]

Citizen participation should occur then at no less than five levels; through the membership of the planning commission; through attendance and participation of planning commission meetings; through the election of the local governing body; through attending and presenting views at meetings of the local governing body; and through the public meeting and public hearing process. These levels of input pertain to the adoption of the "tools for implementation" as well as the land use plan.

Zoning and subdivision ordinances, functional plans, official maps, and capital improvements programs and examples

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[13]Code of Virginia, Section 15.1-431.

of tools generally used to implement the land use plan. As such, the plan provides the basis from which these tools are developed. This is true primarily for two reasons. One, the tools should be shaped in a manner that will most effectively achieve the recommendations of the plan. Perhaps just as important is the fact that the plan reflects a comprehensive analysis of the physical, social, and economic facets of the local jurisdiction. The knowledge acquired through this analysis represents a solid base from which to extend and develop such tools as zoning regulations and capital improvements programs. For these reasons, tools developed prior to the development and adoption of a land use plan are often illogically conceived and not indicative of the most desirable approach to growth management. It is not wise land use planning therefore, to adopt tools for implementation without a plan on which to base them.

Intergovernmental coordination is a important element throughout the land use planning process. It is important that local government have input in regional planning that is occurring at the substate planning district level. Conversely local land use planning should be cognizant of regional plans and policies and vice versa.

State and federal programs come into focus more with regard to functional plans and capital improvements. Functional plans such as housing, recreation, and transportation can

provide valuable input into the development of state plans and programs by making state planners aware of local needs and objectives. On the other hand, state policies may affect the scope and structure of local functional plans. An example would be state street construction standards or planned construction of a major highway.

Local capital improvements programs can provide sound input into regional capital investment strategies. The bottom line in capital programming however, is financing. It is here that state, and particularly federal assistance, is critical. More often than not, without federal grant and loan monies many vital capital investments are not possible at the local level. This is particularly true in most nonmetropolitan areas where, because of limited revenues, such investments are cost prohibitive. Therefore federal assistance is vital to implementation.

The final relationship in Figure B to be noted is the administration of the subdivision and zoning ordinances. As was previously stated, without proper administration of ordinances the legislative intent can be violated and effectiveness negated.

E. The Chapin Land Use Planning Model

As has been mentioned, the traditional land use planning model presented here is drawn primarily from material presented throughout the curriculum of the University of Tennessee

Graduate School of Planning and reflects the views of many prominant planning scholars. This is a theoretical model of how land use planning should ideally take place.

A more practical model, and the one that is followed most frequently, is that of F. Stuart Chapin. Chapin breaks his "progressive planning approach" to land use into a six-point planning sequence. This sequence includes:

1) Develop a first estimate of existing conditions and significant trends in the urban area.

2) Determine the principal and most pressing problems and needs, briefly evaluate them, and develop an interim program.

3) Formulate a detailed program indicating priorities for understanding component studies of comprehensive plans.

4) Carry out detailed plan studies according to program and priority.

5) Integrate various plan studies into comprehensive plan.

6) Revise plans as conditions alter their applicability.[14]

The Chapin approach is incorporated throughout the traditional land use planning model presented here. It also reflects the legislative requirements in Virginia pertaining to the local planning mandate. While the Virginia legislation references local comprehensive planning (as defined in Chapter II) to be most effective, many scholars would espouse

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[14]F. Stuart Chapin, Jr., Urban Land Use Planning (Chicago: University of Illinois Press, 1965), pp. 351, 352.

that such planning be tied directly to the administrative/ executive branch of government. It may be that the same is true of land use planning. However, traditionally this has not been advocated, and in Virginia, it is mandated that it not occur this way. Rather, the planning staff and commission are structured to function outside of the executive branch.

CHAPTER V

EVALUATION OF THE LOCAL LAND USE PLANNING PROCESS IN APPALACHIA VIRGINIA

In this chapter the land use planning process that is being carried on at the level of local government in the Appalachian Region of Virginia is evaluated. The evaluation consists of two analyses.

The first part of the evaluation includes the level of compliance to the Code of Virginia which mandates that every governing body in Virginia establish a planning commission, adopt a subdivision ordinance, and adopt a comprehensive plan for physical development is determined. The content of the adopted subdivision regulations and plans is also evaluated to determine the compliance to the Code which requires that each contain certain information. The level of compliance was determined by reviewing the documents, interviewing planning staff members of the LENOWISCO, Cumberland Plateau, and Mount Rogers planning district commissions, and from information obtained from the Status of Local Planning In Virginia, 1979, published by the Virginia Department of Housing and Community Development.

The second analysis compares the land use planning that is being carried on throughout the study area to the traditional land use planning process model outlined in Chapter IV. This analysis includes an assessment of the actors involved

in the land use planning process, the steps used in the development of comprehensive (land use) plans, the institutional relationship of the actors in the land use planning process, and the inherant characteristics outlined in definition of the land use planning process. Research used in this analysis was derived through the interviews with the planning staff members of the three planning district commissions, the review of the local comprehensive plans, local knowledge of the author who has been associated professionally with land use planning in the area for four years, and from responses to the interview questionnaire mailed to elected officials, planning commissioners, and county administrators and town managers in 42 of the 53 jurisdictions in the study area.

Due to the fact that the Virginia Code uses the term comprehensive plan synonymously with the term land use plan as defined herein, all future references to comprehensive plan, unless otherwise noted, will reflect local land use plans. Similarly, all future references to the local planning process refers to local land use planning.

A. Compliance to the Virginia Planning Legislation

Overall, the committment on behalf of local governing bodies to adhere to the state planning mandates generally fairs better than the level of compliance by jurisdictions throughout the Commonwealth of Virginia as a whole. Despite this however, a significant number of localities are still

in violation of requirements to have established planning commissions and adopted subdivision ordinances and comprehensive plans.

Generally, the levels of compliance vary somewhat among jurisdictions located with the three districts. The level of compliance is highest in the Mount Rogers Planning District with the 20 individual jurisdictions having met the three state mandates at a 98.3 percent rate of achievement. The 15 jurisdictions in the Cumberland Plateau Planning District have a 68.9 percent rate of achievement followed by the 18 jurisdictions within LENOWISCO which have a 50.0 rate of achievement. The rate of achievement is based on the collective number of jurisdictions with established planning commissions, adopted subdivision ordinances, and adopted comprehensive plans divided by the total number of jurisdictions multiplied by three (to account for each mandate).

1) Established Planning Commissions

Approximately three-fourths (40 out of 53) of the jurisdictions in the study area have planning commissions. All of the counties and cities have planning commissions, however only 64.9 percent of the towns have commissions. All of the local governments in the Mount Rogers Planning District have planning commissions while only 60.6 percent of the jurisdictions in LENOWISCO and Cumberland Plateau have planning commissions.

Due to an incomplete response rate of the interview questionnaires from the planning commission chairmen and incomplete data at the planning district offices and state planning offices, it is not possible to determine specifically how many of the planning commissions were established prior to the state mandate passed in 1975 that required the establishment of commissions in each locality by July 1, 1976. Nevertheless, based on discussions with local planning officials it is likely that at least 50 percent of the planning commissions presently established were already in existance. Many other towns had planning commissions which had become inactive but were reactivated to begin work on subdivision ordinances and comprehensive plans.

Most of the planning commissions meet on a regular basis with about three-fourths of them meeting once a month. Approximately 70 percent of the commissions almost always have a quorum, however about 10 percent hardly ever have a quorum. The level of attendance seems to reflect the difficulty of some localities to find persons interested in serving on planning commissions. About one-third of the chairmen indicated that finding persons interested in serving was a problem. This problem is more prevalent among counties. This no doubt accounts for the fact that 80.0 percent of the counties pay their planning commission members for attending meetings. Payments range from ten to twenty-five dollars a meeting. Moreover, half of the counties also

reimburse members for mileage. Some of the municipalities also induce attendance through payments (20 percent) and reimbursement for mileage (11 percent).

2) Adoption of Subdivision Ordinances

The Code of Virginia requires that on or before July 1, 1977 all jurisdictions must have adopted a subdivision ordinance. As of May 1, 1981, 73.6 percent of the jurisdictions in the study area had subdivision ordinances. This compares to the statewide average of about 64.0 percent. All of the jurisdictions in the Mount Rogers Planning District had subdivision regulations compared to two-thirds of those in Cumberland Plateau and half of those in LENOWISCO.

Each of the three cities in the study area have subdivision ordinances. Interestly, a higher percentage of the counties have subdivision regulations than do the towns. Only two-thirds of the towns have adopted subdivision ordinances opposed to nearly 85 percent of the counties.

In Cumberland Plateau only two of the four counties, Russell and Tazewell, have subdivision regulations. Each of the towns in these counties either have their own ordinances or have an agreement with the county to have its ordinance enacted within the corporate limits. Conversely, neither Buchanan County, Dickenson County, nor the three towns within them have subdivision ordinances. Moreover, it does not appear that any of them will adopt one in the foreseeable future.

In LENOWISCO each of the three counties have subdivision regulations, but only five of the fourteen towns have them. Unlike many of the towns located in counties within Cumberland Plateau, towns in Lee, Scott, and Wise counties have not elected to have the county subdivision regulations enforced within their corporate limits.

Among those jurisdictions throughout the study area that have adopted subdivision ordinances, about half of them were adopted prior to passage of the state legislation mandating their adoption.

The state requirements pertaining to the content of subdivision ordinances is rather basic and consequently, all of the ordinances conform to the requirements. Because the Code of Virginia does not provide a standard definition of subdivision, many ordinances vary substantially in their definition of subdivision. These variations most frequently involve the number and size of lots that must be divided before the division of property must conform to the subdivision ordinance. This often creates difficulty in the administration of some ordinances.

3) Adoption of Comprehensive (Land Use) Plans

The Code of Virginia states that by July 1, 1980, each jurisdiction in the state must have an adopted comprehensive plan. Nearly one year past this deadline approximately 70 percent of the jurisdictions in the study area have adopted

comprehensive plans. This compares to the statewide average of nearly 55 percent.

In the Mount Rogers Planning District 90.0 percent of the jurisdictions have adopted comprehensive plans. Only the towns of Abingdon and Troutdale have not adopted plans.

In Cumberland Plateau 80.0 percent of the localities have adopted comprehensive plans. A draft plan was completed for Dickenson County in June of 1977 but local officials have not adopted it. Nine of the eleven towns have plans, however, only three of these towns, Bluefield, Richlands, and Tazewell, actually have their own plans. The remaining towns located in Tazewell County as well as all of the towns in Buchanan and Russell counties have adopted the portions of their respective county plans that pertain to them. The towns of Clintwood and Haysi in Dickenson County do not have plans.

In LENOWISCO only 38.9 percent of the local jurisdictions have adopted comprehensive plans. The only county without a plan is Lee. Like Dickenson County, a plan has been drafted for Lee but it has never been adopted. Only 28.6 (4 out of 14) of the towns in LENOWISCO have adopted plans. These are Appalachia, Big Stone Gap, Coeburn, and St. Paul. Unlike the towns in Cumberland Plateau, towns in LENOWISCO have not officially adopted the portions of their respective county plans that pertain to them. The only city in LENOWISCO, Norton, adopted a comprehensive plan in 1972.

The Code of Virginia requires that the following information be included in the comprehensive plan: existing land use; growth trends; natural resources; population factors; employment and economic factors; existing public facilities; drainage and flood control; transportation; probable future economic and population growth; and methods of implementation. Virtually all of the plans that have been adopted in the study area include this information. Differences occur in format and methodology but content is basically the same for all local plans in each of the three planning districts.

Approximately 30.0 percent of the plans that have been adopted were adopted prior to passage of the state legislation mandating that all jurisdictions must have plans. None of the plans were adopted prior to 1971.

B. Comparison to the Traditional Land Use Planning Process Model

Overall, the land use planning process that is carried on in Appalachia Virginia is similar to that outlined in the traditional land use planning process model. The actors are generally the same and basically the steps have been followed. The institutional relationships are not always similar to that outlined by the model. Moreover, the inherent characteristics of the traditional land use planning process are prevalent in Appalachia Virginia but not necessarily to the extent as suggested by the model.

1) Actors in the Land Use Planning Process

The discussion in the traditional land use planning process model refers to the actors as those persons or groups who have vital roles in the day-to-day activities that consitute the land use planning process. The model delineates the actors into six categories: planners, planning commissioners, elected officials, the general public, administrators, and state and federal agencies.

The following discussions identify each of these groups of actors in Appalachia Virginia and contrasts their roles to that which is described in the traditional land use planning process model.

a) Planners

The traditional land use planning process model identifies planners as the staff personnel who provide technical assistance directly to the planning commission and often, directly to the governing body as well. In the overwhelming majority of the instances where planners have been involved in assisting local governments in the creation of planning commissions and the development of comprehensive plans, subdivision ordinances, zoning ordinances, capital improvements programs, and other planning related documents, the staffs of the respective planning district commissions have provided the technical assistance.

In Mount Rogers the planning district commission staff has prepared all but three of the comprehensive plans that

have been adopted. Similarly, they have assisted in the preparation of practically all of the subdivision and zoning ordinances that have been developed since the planning district commission has been in existance. In the very early days of the MRPDC, a few local planning documents were prepared by private consultants or state planners who provided a great deal of local planning assistance prior to the creation of the pdc's. Overall however, the vast majority of the local planning documents that have been prepared in the Mount Rogers Planning District were based on technical assistance provided by the planning district commission staff.

In Cumberland Plateau the planning district commission staff has prepared all of the comprehensive plans that have been adopted. None of the subdivision or zoning ordinances have been prepared by private consultants. However, in those instances where subdivision and zoning regulations were developed prior to the establishment of Cumberland plateau, they were prepared by planners employed by the state.

In contrast to Mount Rogers and Cumberland Plateau, jurisdictions in LENOWISCO have utilized private consultants more extensively in the development of local planning documents. Approximately half of the plans that have been prepared were done so with technical assistance provided by

private consultants. LENOWISCO staff assisted in the development of the other half. In those instances where consultants were used, the planning district commission worked closely with them in the development of the documents. The same kind of ratio (50/50) applies to the technical planning assistance that has been provided by the planning district commission and private consultants in the development of subdivision and zoning regulations in the LENOWISCO area.

The planning commissioners are basically very complimentary of the technical assistance that was provided in the development of comprehensive plans. In each instance about three-fourths of those interviewed rate the technical assistance as good to excellent (as opposed to fair, poor, or terrible).

In reference to the development of comprehensive plans, 34.5 percent rated the technical assistance provided as excellent and 40.7 percent rated it as good. About one-fifth (22.1 percent) rated it as fair while only 2.7 percent of those queried rated it as poor or terrible.

The commissioners had a somewhat higher opinion of the technical assistance that was provided in the development of subdivision ordinances. Over one-third of them (38.3 percent) felt that the technical assistance was excellent while about half (51.4 percent) of them felt that it was good. Only 9.4 percent of the commissioners rated the assistance as fair while only 0.9 percent felt that it was

poor. No one felt that the assistance they received in the preparation of subdivision regulations was terrible.

b) Planning Commissioners

As the traditional land use planning process model states, planning commissioners are those persons appointed by the local governing body to advise them (governing body) on matters related to planning and development. The Code of Virginia is consistent with the model in that it guarantees that the major makeup of planning commission will consist of citizens-at-large. Members must be residents of the respective jurisdictions and no more than one representative from the local governing body and no more than one from the administrative branch of the local governing body may serve as members. The remainder of the five to fifteen member commissions are thereby citizens-at-large.

The model suggests that because planning commissioners are not confronted with the reality of maintaining political popularity, they are freer to make more objective decisions because of the lack of the intense political pressures from the demands of special interest groups that confront local elected officials. This characteristic is evaluated in Chapter VI, the Reaction and Attitudes of Actors in the Land Use Planning Process.

In terms of the level of experience of local planning commissioners in Appalachian Virginia, the commission members

that responded to the interview questionnaire have served on their respective planning commissions an average of six years. The average for county commissioners was 4.8 years compared to the average for town and city commissioners of 6.9 years.

c) Elected Officials

In Virginia town councilmen are elected generally every four years, mayors every two years, and members of the county boards of supervisors are elected every four years. The majority of the localities have staggered terms so that the possiblity of having a completely new set of elected officials selected in any given election will not occur. Obviously, in instances when this does occur the abilities of localities to maintain a level of continuity in its decision making process is significantly hampered.

As the model states, the local elected officials are perhaps the most important of the actors in the land use planning process because of their power to make policy decisions. For this reason the reactions and attitudes of this group of actors discussed in the following chapter is very important in terms of assessing the effectiveness of the land use planning process in Appalachia Virginia.

The average length of term served by the local elected officials responding to the interview questionnaire was 5.3

years. As is the case with planning commissioners, councilmen have slightly more experience than the county supervisors, 5.7 years to 4.5 years, respectively.

d) General Public

The model defines general public as the collective group of citizenry that reside throughout the jurisdictions made up of many sub-groups whose interests may vary on specific issues for various reasons. In stating the purpose of developing the comprehensive plan, the Code of Virginia refers to the general public by stating that

> the comprehensive plan shall be made with the purpose of guiding and accomplishing a coordinated, adjusted and harmonious development of the territory which will, in accordance with present and probable future needs and resources best promote the health, safety, morals, order, convenience, prosperity and general welfare of the inhabitants.[1]

In order to fulfill the purpose of the Code and to plan in the best interest of the ultimate client, the makeup of the planning commission and governing body will hopefully reflect a fair representation of the general public. It appears that the composition of these bodies in Appalachia Virginia is relatively diverse and thus reflects a fair representation.

Another important aspect of fulfilling the purpose to plan according to the model is to provide for effective

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[1]Code of Virginia, Annotated (Charlottesville: The Michie Company, 1973), Section 15.1-466.1.

citizen input into the planning process. This most commonly occurs in the form of local public meetings held throughout the jurisdiction and through public hearings held by the planning commission and governing body. A closer examination of citizen participation is discussed later in this section in the analysis of the institutional relationship of the actors.

e) Administrators

In referring to administrators the traditional land use planning process model refers to the individuals at the local level charged with the responsibility of administering land use ordinances. Throughout Appalachia Virginia less than 10 percent of the localities have a planning department per se. Consequently, local ordinances are administered by a variety of different departments or agencies. One-third of the localities' subdivision regulations are administered by the chief administrative official, i.e. the county administrator or town or city manager. The planning commission administers the subdivision regulations in 28.6 percent of the localities. The local building inspector administers the subdivision ordinance in another 28.6 percent of the localities. About five percent of the local governments utilize the planning district staffs to administer the subdivision requirements. This figure is even higher when taken into account that many of the planning commissions rely on technical assistance provided by planning district

commission staff to assist them in administering the regulations. Another local official mentioned as administering the ordinance included the public works director. In many instances the planning commission and building inspector work together in administration of subdivision regulations.

Because the number of localities with zoning ordinances is limited and the sample size of those communities is rather small, it is difficult to determine who the local officials are that administer zoning regulations. However, it appears that in most of the localities zoning administration is evenly split between the chief administrative official and a designated employee of the administrative branch of government titled as zoning administrator.

f) State and Federal Agencies

State and federal funding agencies have had a marked effect on the land use planning process in Appalachia Virginia. Without monetary support from the state and from the Appalachian Regional Commission (ARC), the Economic Development Administration (EDA), and the Department of Housing and Urban Development (HUD), it is questionable as to how much of the land use planning that has taken place to date would have occurred.

All of the comprehensive plans that have been adopted were paid for primarily through the HUD 701 program. The HUD 701 program also helped finance the development of

subdivision and zoning ordinances. Because most of these documents were prepared with technical assistance provided by the staffs of the planning district commissions, ARC and EDA funds also contributed. This is due to the fact that planning district commissions one, two, and three each receive planning funds from ARC and EDA that enable them to hire additional staff persons. The individuals ultimately paid with ARC and EDA funds have been involved in assisting local governments in the preparation of various planning documents the same as those paid with HUD monies. Although each planning district commission receives money from its member local jurisdictions, in no instance are these monies of sufficient quanity to staff a planning district commission office. Only in conjunction with the other state and federal funds do they provide adequate financing for staffing.

Not only have state and federal agencies played a role in local land use planning through the provision of planning funds, they have also provided financing for the construction of capital improvement projects necessary to implement many of recommendations of the plans. The planners interviewed at LENOWISCO, Cumberland Plateau, and Mount Rogers each indicated that virtually all of the capital improvements that have occurred in the past ten years have done so with the majority of cost financed through grant assistance from federal agencies. Agencies that have funded projects most

frequently include ARC, EDA, HUD, the Farmers Home Administration (FmHA), the Environmental Protection Agency (EPA), the Virginia Commission of Outdoor Recreation (COR), and the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA).

Because of the heretofore lack of adequate economic base in Appalachia, local governments did not have the financial resources to provide the capital investments necessary to develop the infrastructure requirements such as public water and sewage treatment facilities, vocational education centers, industrial parks, adequate transportation facilities, housing, and other community recreation and social services that are prerequisites to attracting industry. This has been compounded by the significantly higher cost of development in Appalchia due to the physical contraints of the mountain terrain. Moreover, local leaders generally lack the expertise and knowledge necessary to assume the risks of floating bond issues to finance such improvements. These factors resulted in the comparative disadvantages that made Appalachia the economically depressed area that moved former President's Kennedy and Johnson to create the Appalachian Regional Commission.

The inventory of capital investments over the past ten to fifteen years in Appalachia Virginia has been tremendous compared to what had taken place prior to this time. The effects of these investments are reflected in the fact that out-migration and population decline has reversed and the

number of jobs in the area has increased substantially.

Planners at each planning district commission noted that the total population in each of their respective districts declined from 1950 to 1960 and from 1960 to 1970. However, the population between 1970 and 1980 increased by 17.5 percent in LENOWISCO, 24.5 percent in Cumberland Plateau, and 13.6 percent in Mount Rogers. All of the planners noted that significant increases in employment, particularly manufacturing employment, was the main reason for the turn-around in population trends.

The major impact of regulatory agencies has come from the Division of Mined Land Reclamation, the Occupational Safety and Health Administration (OSHA), the State Water Control Board (SWCB), the Air Pollution Control Board (APCB), Water Pollution Control Board (WPCB) and the Virginia Department of Health (VDH).

The Department of Mined Land Reclamation is responsible for enforcing strip mine reclamation laws in Virginia. Because coal is the main source of employment throughout much of Appalachia, including the LENOWISCO and Cumberland Plateau areas in Virginia, DMLR, which is an arm of the federal agency of Office of Surface Mining, has had a significant impact in southwest Virginia since its inception.

The Occupational Safety and Health Administration is responsible for regulating health and safety practices in

manufacturing. OSHA has placed increased health and safety measures on many textile, apparel, and woodworking firms not to mention the coal industry. These types of industry represent the main sector of the economic base throughout Appalachia Virginia.

The Virginia State Water Control Board's main responsibility is to monitor wastewater treatment facilities to assure that they operate in compliance with EPA standards. The SWCB is also responsible for prioritizing projects throughout the state that seek EPA Step I, II, and III funds for planning, design, and construction of wastewater facilities, respectively.

The Air Pollution Control Board and its counterpart, the Water Pollution Control Board, are charged with the responsibility of seeing that EPA air and water pollution control standards are maintained. To illustrate how these agencies and their programs can sometimes affect industries one only has to look at an example within the study area. In 1970, it was revealed that Olin, Inc., which had a major production facility in Saltville, had grossly exceeded water pollution standards on the North Fork of the Holston River. Because the extent of the pollution problem was so severe, Olin was forced to shut down its Saltville facility rather than bear the financial burden to rectify the problem.

The Virginia Department of Health has many responsibilities but the one most commonly encountered in planning

is the review and monitering of public water and sewerage systems. This is particularly true in the administration of subdivision regulations. Most subdivision ordinances require the review and approval of subdivision plats by the local county health department. This is important throughout Appalachia where the major source of sewage disposal is septic tank drainfield systems. When septic tanks are utilized and wells serve as the domestic water source, caution must be taken to assure that development occurs at a density that will allow for proper purification of the wastewater without contamination to the domestic water source. The mountain terrain of Appalachia makes this concern much more serious because in many areas developable sites of desired size are very limited.

2) Steps of the Traditional Land Use Planning Process

The steps of the traditional land use planning process as outlined in the traditional land use planning process model reflect the steps that should be followed in developing and updating a land use plan. The steps, in their general order include: 1) situation evaluation; 2) data assimilation; 3) data analysis; 4) policy formulation; 5) identification of alternative courses of action; 6) alternative selection; 7) implementation; and 8) evaluation. In this section the local plan development that has taken place throughout the study area will be evaluated based upon the model that has been outlined previously.

a) Situation Evaluation

The reference to situation evaluation means a familiarization process whereby the planner working in an area has a "feel" and understanding of the people who live in that given area. The importance of situation evaluation lies in the belief that by developing a perspective of the local values of the ultimate client the planner can more effectively develop a meaningful and implementable plan and better deal with sensitive issues encountered in the land use planning process.

To determine the degree to which the planners that have worked in the Appalachian area of Virginia have effectively understood the people and the areas in which they have worked in somewhat difficult. However, based on the author's knowledge of the planners that have worked in this area and through interviews with key staff persons at the three planning district commissions, some general observations can be made.

Open, active, and conscious effort to familiarize one's self with the clientele and physical characteristics of an area has varied among planners but in no instance has it been extensively practiced. This does not mean that the planners have had a callous attitude regarding what is good for the general public, only that the effort that has been made to consciously make these determinations has been

limited. Most of this effort has consisted of relying on the knowledge of the planning commission to make such determinations.

Therefore, much of situation evaluation has depended on the personal background of the individual planners themselves. In Mount Rogers most of the planners that have been involved in the development of comprehensive plans have been natives of the Appalachian area. This has enabled them to have an understanding of the local people without having to expend a great deal of effort to go out and meet the client. In those instances where the planners were not natives of Appalachia, all were professionals and many were educated in the southern mountain area. Some of these individuals were able to overcome their lack of knowledge of local residents through their experience in planning and in their approach used in developing the plans, particularly relying on the knowledge of fellow staff members and key local officials.

In Cumberland Plateau the planning district commission staff has had virtually no turnover of note over the past ten years and has a staff made up entirely of local residents. Consequently, situation evaluation has not been a detrimental factor in the development of local plans.

LENOWISCO is somewhat more difficult to analyze. As was previously noted, about half of the plans that have been developed were done so with technical assistance provided by

private consultants, that mainly from the Richmond area. Consequently, it is very difficult to determine their degree of understanding and perception of the local residents and their values. However, because they did work very closely with the planning district commission staff, this may have compensated for their level of unfamiliarity. In those instances where LENOWISCO planners developed plans, as was the case in Mount Rogers, the level of concise understanding of local values was mixed. While most of the planners were professionally trained and many were local natives, some were better able to assertain a knowledge and appreciation of the people than others.

In essence, situation evaluation as outlined in the model has not been a conscious part of the land use planning process that has been carried on in Appalachia Virginia. It appears that the key information that is sought in situation evaluation has been present primarily through the planners that have themselves been a part of the clientele as natives of the region. For those who were not natives, situation evaluation has for the most part been dependent on fellow staff members, local planning commissioners, and key local officials.

b) Data Assimulation

Data assimilation very simply is the collection of data necessary for the analysis that provides the foundation for

policy recommendation. This information is basic and common to virtually all areas. The data outlined in the model includes land, population, economy, human resources, housing, public services and facilities, land use, and government. With the exception of government, most of these data are required by the Code of Virginia.

In most all of the planning documents reviewed all of these data were included with the exception of government. In many plans the type of government and location of government facilities were identified but little else was mentioned.

Virtually all of this data was assimilated by the planner. Generally, the planners did an adequate job of assimilating the types of data pertinant and presented it in a manner that is understandable to the persons who will utilize the plans the most.

c) Data Analysis

While data assimilation is basically a straight forward exercise, meaningful data analysis is much more difficult and varied. By reviewing the planning documents it was possible to gain a general knowledge of the degree to which the different analyses were presented.

Generally the plans for each locality outlined physical constriants to development. The same constraints are common to practically all of the jurisdictions in Appalachia Virginia. They consist of severe slope, floodplains, and in the valley

areas, limestone subsurfaces which create seepage problems threatening water quality of the groundwater supplies.

Population data and trends have been identified also in virtually all of the plans. However, migration patterns were identified in only a small percentage of the plans. This is due perhaps to the limited understanding by the planners as to how to assertain necessary information and calculate migration data for small areas.

Population forecasting has been quite varied. Most plans include forecasts generated by various state agencies that develop population projections on a statewide level and break the projections down to the county and city level. For the most part, these forecasts are based on straight line projections and lack local sensitivity. Consequently, the accuracy and thus value of these projections are suspect. In some instances the planners have taken into account local population characteristics and made their own projections. Although the methodologies in such instances have not necessarily been statistically detailed, they are probably more sound and useful than the state forecasts.

Economic conditions have been analized in all of the plans. As is to be expected, the level of analyses varies but in all cases includes employment characteristics. Specific employment projections have been made in some instances but not all. Again, the level of analysis in

plans in this area is not as indepth as is perhaps the case in more urbanized areas. The reasons for this consist basically of a combination of the low level of sophistication of local governments, the ability of the planners to conduct indepth analyses, and the time required to develop such analyses. Many of the planners interviewed indicated that the more involved the analyses, the less the likelihood that local officials would be able to comprehend such information. In such instances, they have a tendacy to become suspicious and reject the information. Moreover, because the majority of planners serving this area are generalists, they lack the expertise necessary to conduct detailed economic studies. Another factor has been time. In many cases where the expertise has existed and local acceptability of more detailed study been present, the time to conduct such analyses has not been available because of the workload of the planning district commission staffs and limited funds available for planning.

If one exception to this has existed it has been in the housing analyses. Overall the most detailed information presented in comprehensive plans has been that of existing housing conditions and future housing needs. This may be due to the fact that relatively more housing data has been accessible and more identifiable ways, i.e. resources to resolve housing problems, have existed. It no doubt is also due to the fact that housing grant and loan programs have

been tied closer to comprehensive planning than other types of grant and loan programs.

This same reasoning may also apply to the analyses of public services and facilities. Most of the recommendations regarding future economic growth site the need for basic infrastructure needs such as water and sewer facilities, transportation improvements such as industrial access roads and railroad spurs, and industrial sites. State and federal assistance has been available for these types of improvements and the needs have been obvious and easily identifiable.

Human resources have also been dealt with in varying degrees of specifity. Human resource characteristics such as labor skills, educational levels, and commuting patterns have mostly been treated in different sections of the plan rather than in a specific human resource section.

Government has been relatively ignored with some minor exceptions. Assessments of local administrative capabilities and fiscal status have not been addressed. This is probably due to the political sensitivity of such issues. While references are sometimes made regarding the need to strengthen the local tax base by increasing industrial development, little is said regarding tax burdens relative to other areas. Consequently, with the possible exception of recommendations concerning the adoption of use-value taxation, suggestions and comments regarding innovative changes in tax

assessment as a tool for enticing economic growth or financing capital investments are ignored.

All plans reviewed included analyses of existing land use patterns and probable future patterns of land use.

Most of the plans pointed out weaknesses and problems that exist in many areas, most frequently those associated with housing and community facilities and services. Strengths and assests possessed by individual localities were not discussed as much. Moreover, none of the plans reviewed were written in a manner that identified strengths and weaknesses at the conclusion of the analyses in each section of the comprehensive plan. Rather, the plans generally followed the format of presenting past and present data and then stating recommendations and/or findings and/or goals and objectives and then the conclusions of the plan.

d) Policy Formulation

The traditional land use planning process model refers to the goals and objectives as the road map for the future. All of the plans adopted by local governing bodies throughout the study area have a section outlining the goals and objectives that each has committed itself to achieve. Some plans de-emphasize such policy statements per se and opt simply for listing specific recommendations that should be taken, for example, the extension of a public water system into a previously unserved area. This approach basically entails suggesting methods for implementation and implies objectives

not specifically stated. Such variations in approach reflect the differences in attitude among planners and to a lesser degree, planning commissions. For example, certain planners at Cumberland Plateau have a rather low opinion of expending much effort in developing policy statements. This opinion is based on the belief that local elected officials do not take such statements seriously and consequently such an exercise does not warrant much effort. They feel that specific recommendations are the main end product and therefore concentrate their efforts in developing these.

Another observation that emerges from reviewing and discussing policy formulation among different planners is that the perception of what exactly a policy statement is varies significantly. Many plans have extensive lists of goals and or objectives. Often statements are identified as being goals that the author would consider to be objectives and even in some instances, specific recommendations for implementation of other objectives. The opinion here is that such differences are basically one of semantics and is of little consquence in terms of the end result, that being the sincere committment by local elected officials to actively strive to realize and adhere to policy statements outlined in adopted comprehensive plans.

e) Identification of Alternative Courses of Action

The model discusses the identification of alternative courses of action for achieving specific goals and objectives.

The example cited listed a number of several different approaches that could be taken to encourage industrial development in a county. This step is carried out in Appalachia Virginia although in a much more informal manner than is implied in the model. In a similar situation (i.e. trying to develop recommendations for industrial development) the identification of what approaches to take often are made based on knowledge by the planner of what things would be acceptable politically in a given area. Or in many instances the identification of various alternatives may be fairly obvious based on the planners knowledge of the local government's capabilities to undertake (or inability to undertake) certain courses of action.

This is not to suggest however, that identification of alternative courses is solely the responsibility of the planner. Interviews among planners from the three planning district commissions in the service area indicate that while the planners come up with most alternatives based on their experience and expertise the various possibilities are presented to and discussed with the planning commissions. As a result of such discussions, additional alternatives may arise. Often this occurs as a result of the planning commission's knowledge of what courses of action are acceptable and/or workable in their respective jurisdictions.

It is very rare that alternatives are identified by the local governing body. Generally, they simply do not get

that actively involved in the local land use planning process. They have rejected plans because certain courses of action were unacceptable and have told the planning commission to try again. However, the governing bodies generally do not get involved in the actual development of alternatives.

f) Alternative Selection

In Appalachia Virginia the selection of the most desirable alternative courses of action is every bit as informal as the process of identifying alternatives. The traditional land use planning process model identifies various methodologies to use to select the most desirable alternatives. These include fiscal impact analyses, benefit/cost analyses, physical impact assessments, and time/distance analyses.

Very seldom, if ever, have such methods been used to select the most desirable alternatives in the development of goals and objectives in Appalchian localities. Such techniques have been utilized in some functional plans, such as transportation and solid waste studies, which generally have been done by private consultants with specialized technical expertise.

The selection of alternatives in the development of the comprehensive plan has been done in a very informal way. While the identification of alternatives is often based on the knowledge of the planner and planning commission of

local political winds and functional capabilities, the same knowledge is applied to the selection of alternatives. The planner discusses various alternatives with the planning commission and explains their advantages and disadvantages and the actions that need to be taken to implement each alternative. Such discussions often will be hashed about for months before a final decision is reached.

As is the case in the identification of alternative courses of action, the planning commissions make a specific recommendation concerning the selection of an alternative by stating such alternatives in the final draft of the plan that is presented to the local governing body. Again, the local governing body is then confronted with the option of accepting or rejecting the comprehensive plan and thus, the selected alternative courses of action. As was mentioned in step six, if any or some of the courses of action are unacceptable to the governing body, it will return the plan to the commission to be revised.

This same procedure applies to the adoption of all land use related ordinances. Perhaps the greatest single source of opposition to planning documents is the concern that such documents will severely limit the sanctified rights of property owners to have free reign over their decisions as to how to use their land. An equally similar concern frequently raised is that the restrictions that such documents

often propose will restrict housing and commercial development. This is a very forceful concern in an area that is starving for growth and economic development after plodding through decades of mass out-migration of its young people and existing without many of the commercial and industrial opportunities enjoyed by the rest of the country.

The model points out that it is important to have the local leadership and administrative capabilities to implement recommended policies. Relative to urban areas such as the Knoxville-Knox County area or even the Tri-Cities area of Bristol, Kingsport, Johnson City, these capabilities throughout Appalachia Virginia, with some exceptions, are generally lacking. This is the major reason that the identification and selection of alternative courses of action is so much more informal than that which is outlined in the model.

First, the personalities and educational characteristics of many local leaders are such that certain detailed and involved types of analyses of different alternatives would alienate them because of their unfamiliarity with, and in some instances, inability to comprehend such reasoning. In many of these instances, it would appear that to compensate for their inabilities, they reject such proposals.

Secondly, because Appalachia is for the most part, a very mountainous and rural area, most of the most pressing problems are easily identifiable as are their solutions. Unlike urban areas where high density areas of development

exist that compound the complexity of the problems and their solutions, the opposite is true in Appalachia. For this reason, the involved methodologies referenced in the model regarding the identification and selection of alternatives are not applicable in Appalachia.

Also, in many instances when certain actions are warranted to achieve a particular objective it may not be possible in Appalachia because of the lack of adequate administrative capabilities in the county courthouse or town hall. This is to say that while many approaches to land use control and stimulation of economic development differ in rural mountain areas as opposed to urban areas, many do not. For example, the need for subdivision regulations and zoning may be just as great but when adopted the administration of the regulations is sometimes adequate at best. This is due to the fact that local governments are hard pressed to hire competent people to administer the ordinances. The reason for this is a combination of the fiscal restraints common to all levels of government in conjunction with the lack of perceived need of such personnel to justify this added cost to local government. Therefore, the local building inspector, who is already overworked, winds up administering the ordinance or even the county administrator or town manager, who is even more overworked. In some instances an inexperienced assistant who is hired under the

Comprehensive Employment Training Act Program (CETA) may be given the responsibility. In either scenario, whether it be because the administrator does not have time to do an adequate job or because the CETA employee simply is too inexperienced, the best laid plans become only partially effective. In these kinds of situations, somewhat more complex concepts such as transfer of development rights, floating zone concepts, planned unit developments, and tax incentives are out of the question.

The same is sometimes true of economic development efforts. While all local governing bodies voice their pledge to encourage economic development, a lack of local leadership and expertise results in only modest efforts to accomplish any real results. While this has been changing and many localities have gotten more and more experienced in industrial development and recruitment, most has come as a result of federal investment in infrastructure development and assistance from the Virginia Division of Industrial Development. Unlike many jurisdictions in upper east Tennessee which have floated bond issues to expand public water and sewer facilities to serve industrial sites and to develop industrial parks, their Appalachia Virginia counterparts have not been willing to assume similar risks. The only bond issues floated in this area are those for public school improvements and occasionally, for a new courthouse or municipal building.

Therefore while the identification and selection of alternative courses of action are somewhat less informal than those outlined in the traditional land use planning process model, the planners in the local land use planning process in Appalachia Virginia have taken into account the particular needs and characteristics of their clientele in developing proposed policy. This is a key ingredient to an effective land use planning process that is stressed in the model.

g) Implementation

The Code of Virginia states that after a jurisdiction adopts a comprehensive plan,

> it shall control the general or approximate location, character and extent of each feature shown on the plan. Thereafter no street, park or other public area, public building or public structure, public utility facility or public service corporation facility other than railroad facility, whether publicly or privately owned, shall be constructed, established or authorized, unless and until the general location or approximate location, character, and extent thereof has been submitted to and approved by the local commission as being substantially in accord with the adopted comprehensive plan or part thereof.[2]

Although the comprehensive plan is for the most part general in nature and advisory only, as the above reference from the Code of Virginia indicates the plan can be binding in determining the location of public facilities. The frequency to which this actually occurs however is seldom.

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[2]Code of Virginia, Section 15.1-456.

This is particularly true in the case of highway construction. The Virginia Department of Highways and Transportation (VDHT) has shown little regard for the recommendations of local comprehensive plans. Rather, they continue (as they always have) to plan for local construction based on their own criteria and using their own personnel to set construction priorities. Since the General Assembly passed legislation requiring the VDHT to consult annually with local governing bodies during the annual update of their local six-year construction plans local input is afforded. However, the influence of this input has been extremely limited. In those instances where local desires differ from those of the District Engineer or Resident Engineer for the VDHT, the recommendations of the Highway Department seem to generally prevail. Consequently, this controlling factor of the comprehensive plan has, in the case of transportation improvements, been a lion without teeth.

In other instances such as the location of recreation parks, industrial parks, or similar facilities the local governing bodies have shown little concern for the recommendations of the plan. Often the important consideration is having a piece of property that is for sale for such a use and/or the availability of federal grant-in-aid monies.

In the case of public facilities, recommendations by counsulting engineers will generally supersede the recommendations of the comprehensive plan. The reason for this

may be explained by, based on the author's observation, the fact that local officials generally have a higher opinion of engineers than planners. This may be due to the perception of engineers as experts in such fields as water and sewer facilities opposed to planners who are not.

Whatever the reasons, although comprehensive plans have controlling powers in determining the location of many public facilities, the influence of the plans in reality has been limited. Moreover, such differences are seldom challenged and if brought to the attention of local officials (who frequently are unaware of differences), plans will be amended before stopping the project.

The traditional land use planning process model points out that adoption of the plan (even in instances where it is faithfully followed and enforced) does not fully constitute implementation. To do so means that adoption of land use controls to insure that the adopted policies and recommendations are fulfilled. These controls most frequently include subdivision regulations, zoning regulations, capital improvement programs, and official maps. The model further suggests that such controls are adopted ideally after the comprehensive plan has been completed and adopted.

As has been noted previously, nearly three-fourths of the jurisdictions in the study area that have adopted subdivision regulations adopted them prior to the adoption

of a comprehensive plan. Based on data supplied in Status of Local Planning in Virginia, 1979 on 43 of the 53 jurisdictions in the study area, of those localities that have adopted subdivision controls, 75.7 percent did so prior to adoption of a comprehensive plan. Only 2.7 percent adopted subdivision regulations after the adoption of a plan. About one-fifth (21.6 percent) of the localities adopted both during the same year.

Nearly half (47.2 percent) of the jurisdictions have zoning ordinances. Most of these have been adopted by the municipalities. Each of the three cities have zoning compared to 51.4 percent of the towns. Only 3 of the 13 counties have zoning. However, the zoning ordinances in two of these counties have only two zones. In Bland County the ordinance has a zone for mobile home parks and everything else is zoned agriculture. In Lee County the ordinance has a zone for recreational/forest land with all other uses permitted in the other zone. Washington is the only county that has a zoning ordinance with numerous zones for different uses.

Of the jurisdictions that have zoning, 62.5 percent of them adopted their zoning before they had a comprehensive plan. Only 16.7 percent had a plan first. Approximately 20 percent adopted both a plan and zoning ordinance in the same year.

Although having a plan prior to having a subdivision ordinance may be desirable, it is certainly not critical. However, the same cannot be said in the case of zoning. Because of the ability of zoning to dictate the density and pattern of growth, it is of utmost importance that the knowledge gained in the land use planning process serve as the basis for zoning. In situations where this is not the case, it is easily conceivable that zoning may encourage growth patterns in areas that are not the best suited or most desirable based on the information gathered in the land use planning process. A possible explanation for the high percentage of localities that have adopted zoning before they adopted plans is that they perceived the need to guide future growth and development. However, they did not feel that development of a land use plan was worth the cost and time it would take to develop. Not until the combination of the HUD 701 program, the linkage between grant-in-aid programs and land use planning, and the state mandate did local governments get into the business of land use planning.

Many local planners believe that astute locations of capital facilities such as streets, water lines, and sewer lines is a more effective means of growth management than zoning. However, less than ten jurisdictions in the study area have capital improvements programs. However, if the planning district commissions are able to maintain sufficient

staffs it is expected that this number will increase in the next few years. Many of the comprehensive plans recommend that a capital improvements program be initiated. The likelihood of this being done will in large measure depend on the availability of technical assistance at a low cost to help the communities get started. As has been the case in the past, the most practical source for such assistance is the local planning district commission.

In 1976 the Virginia General Assembly passed legislation requiring that all cities and counties appraise real estate at 100 percent of fair market value for purposes of levying local property taxes. At the same time the General Assembly also passed enabling legislation permitting counties and cities to adopt use-value taxation for farm and forest lands. The only prerequisite of any consequence was that the locality have an adopted comprehensive plan. Use-value taxation assures that agriculture land will be taxed based on its value for agricultural production as opposed to its value for other uses such as industrial or residential. As of May 1, 1981 seven of the 13 counties in the study area have adopted use-value taxation. It is not likely that any of the counties that have not adopted it to date will do so in the near future.

Other forms of implementation such as official maps, tax incentives, transfer of development rights, and others are not being utilized by any jurisdictions in the study

area. Planned unit developments are permitted in many of the jurisdictions that have zoning ordinances.

As is the case with any law, the adoption of plans and ordinances are only as effective as their enforcement. The level of enforcement of those ordinances that have been adopted in Appalachia Virginia will be discussed more thoroughly in the section on the reaction and attitudes the actors in the land use planning process.

h) Evaluation

The traditional land use planning process model states that the land use plan should be updated periodically to keep abreast of changing needs, priorities, and attitudes. The Virginia General Assembly agrees, having adopted legislation requiring local planning commissions to review comprehensive plans at least once every five years to determine whether it is advisable to amend the plan.[3]

At least 38.0 percent of the plans that have been adopted should have been reviewed either by or before the end of 1981. Several others are due for review by 1982. A few of these are either being updated or are scheduled for update in FY 1982. However, many of the jurisdictions have not made any effort thus far to update their plans. This may change once the 1980 Census data is published. As is

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[3]Code of Virginia, Section 15.1-454.

the case with capital improvements programs, the degree to which this occurs will no doubt depend on the availability of technical assistance at a low cost.

Subdivision and zoning regulations are generally amended on an on-going basis as the need arises. However, some jurisdictions have completely updated the zoning and subdivision regulations and others are proposing to do so in the near future.

C. Institutional Relationship of Actors

The model presents a general overview of the relationship of the actors to the traditional land use planning process. These interrelationships are graphically dipicted in Figure 4. This section will analyze the interrelationships of the actors in the process of local government land use planning in Appalchia Virginia.

1) Planning Staff

The planners in Appalchia Virginia have primarily been accountable to the planning commission. Indirectly, they are also ultimately accountable to the local governing body providing technical assistance to it as needed. However, in serving in the role as the actor responsible for assimulating and analyzing data for the plan and advising the planning commission throughout the adoption process, those that have worked in Appalachia have had the same relationship as outlined in the model.

2) Planning Commission

As has been the case with the planners, the planning commissions in Appalachia Virginia also serve in the same capacity as that outlined in the model. With assistance from the planners, the commissions have developed the plans and the tools for implementation of the plans and presented them to their respective governing bodies for adoption. The commissions also advise the local governing bodies on various land use related matters as requested.

3) Citizen Participation

In the previous discussion of the actors in the land use planning process it was pointed out that the composition of the governing bodies and planning commissions throughout the study area reflect a fairly diverse cross-section of the general public. In the case of planning commissions, much of this is due to the state requirement limiting the representation of elected officials and administrative personnel on those bodies. It is safe to assume that as a result of this representation, varying citizen concerns are accounted for in the development of land use planning related policy. Moreover, as was mentioned in the traditional land use planning process model, all meetings of the planning commissions and governing bodies in which official actions are taken are open to the public.

Virginia law also insures citizen participation by requiring that a public hearing be held by both the planning

commission and local governing body prior to the adoption or amendment of any plan or ordinance. Moreover, the public hearing must be advertised in a local paper at least once a week for two consecutive weeks and not less than six days nor more than twenty-one days before the date of the hearing. The commission and governing body may hold a joint public meeting.[4]

The planning process model also mentions the use of public meetings held throughout the jurisdiction to provide for additional citizen input. The interview questionnaires and interviews with local planners revealed that citizen input has been limited primarily to the public hearings required by state law. Some exceptions to this have occurred, most of them in the Mount Rogers Planning District.

The degree of citizen input has served to depend in large measure on the attitude of the planners involved. In the LENOWISCO and Cumberland Plateau planning districts the planners have a very low opinion of the value of citizen participation through the forum of public meetings and public hearings. Generally they feel that adequate citizen input was provided through the representation of the planning commissions.

In the Mount Rogers Planning District the planners are somewhat more receptive to citizen input. This is reflected

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[4]Code of Virginia, Section 15.1-431.

in the fact that in the adoption of most of the county plans local community meetings were held to discuss the plan among citizens throughout the county. It should be noted that the purpose behind these public meetings was more for education of what the plan actually was rather than just seeking input. It is difficult to determine what effect, if any, this difference in approach among the planning districts has had in terms of the quality, content, and utilization of plans. Based on observations of the author, it is probable that the effect has not been significant.

It can be said then that citizen participation in the development of plans and ordinances in Appalchia Virginia has occurred generally at the five levels recommended by the model: planning commission membership; attendance of planning commission meetings; the composition of the governing body; attendance of council and board of supervisors meetings; and public meetings and public hearings. In many instances however, the actual citizen input has been minimal although the opportunities have been available. For example, it is seldom that persons attend planning commission meetings. This is probably due to the fact that very few, if any, commissions advertise their meetings. Another reason is the same one that explains why very few people come before local governing bodies to express their views on planning related matters - apathy. Unless someone gets excited about the possibility of a planning document being adopted that he

feels will threaten him personally (which has been often in some jurisdictions) he simply is not inclined to get involved.

4) Governing Body

The model sites the governing body as the central focus of the land use planning process. It has the power to adopt or reject policy and proposed law that it receives from its designated advisor on planning related matters, the planning commission. This role is certainly fulfilled in Appalachia Virginia.

In addition, the governing body is a central figure with regard to various forms of input. It receives input from the general public through citizen participation at various levels. These include the planning commission, direct input to the governing body itself through its membership and participation in council and board meetings, and through the public hearing process associated with the adoption of the comprehensive plan and the tools for implementing the comprehensive plan. One aspect of this citizen participation that has had a definite impact on planning in Appalachia Virginia has been the type of citizen input that has affected the decision making process relative to land use planning related matters. As has been pointed out in much of the literature that has been written on rural planning, consideration of adopting various planning documents often meets stiff opposition from many of the special interest groups that comprise the general public.

Jurisdictions in southwest Virginia have certainly not been immuned to such opposition. Despite the high percentage of localities that have adopted comprehensive plans, subdivision ordinances, and even zoning ordinances relative to the state as a whole, many were done so at the expense of emotion packed public hearings. The most frequent opposition has been voiced against the adoption of zoning regulations and to a lesser extent, comprehensive plans and subdivision regulations.

The reasons for opposition to zoning are the same as those incurred through virtually all regions of the country. These are based on the belief by many individuals that zoning requirements restrict their fundamental rights as property owners to do with their land as they so please. They see the adoption of zoning as a taking of these rights. Such reasoning has often led to charges of communism on the part of those who would propose such legislation.

Because the planning district commissions have frequently been the source of technical assistance provided in the development proposed zoning regulations, they have often become the target of such spirited accusations. These attitudes are much more prevalent in counties than cities, as reflected by the near total absence of zoning at the county level compared to the towns and cities. The probable reason for this is the large number of large landowners who

seem to be much more sensative to the issue of the taking of property rights. Perhaps this is because the land serves as the primary source of livelihood for many of these land owners who are coal mine operators (or companies), farmers, and in some instances, speculators.

Of the three counties in the study area that have adopted zoning regulations, two have very limited restrictions. These two only have two zones which have little effect on the populace as a whole, and they generate little controversy. The other, Washington County, was adopted in 1968 by a Board of Supervisors that had long been dominated by one individual. At that time the Board actions generated only moderate interest and public reaction and the adoption of the zoning ordinance occurred with little public awareness.

In recent years however, public awareness has increased significantly, perhaps partially as the result of the requirement to hold public hearings. Whatever the reasons, counties generally steer clear of efforts to propose zoning because of the degree of public opposition to it.

As has been indicated, opposition to zoning is relatively less intense in the cities and even towns with populations as small as 1,500 persons. This may be explained by the fact that due to the higher densities of development the local citizenry perceive zoning as a form of protection rather than a mechanism that will rob them of certain

freedoms. Whatever the reason, approximately half of municipalities in the study area have zoning regulations.

Despite the fact that three-fourths of the local jurisdictions in the study area have adopted comprehensive plans, the adoption of some of these have also generated heated exchanges among the local citizenry. None were more publicized nor more controversial than that of Washington County, which already had an adopted zoning ordinance and an adopted subdivision ordinance several years prior to the time that the initial recommendation to adopt a plan was made by the planning commission.

After the plan recommendations were well publicized in the local media and through small public meetings held throughout the county, a block of conservative opposition to the plan quickly developed. The base of this constituency had been formed a year earlier through a highly publicized and successful campaign by a small group of individuals to ban a series of English books being used in the public school system because of objectionable language.

The wave of growing opposition culminated at a public hearing held on February 16, 1977. Specific quotes from the front page story of the local newspapers on the following day clearly depict the nature of the hearing. The story, which had the bi-line "Hearing Ends In Near Fight," included the following:

> A public hearing on a proposed land use plan for Washington County [in Abingdon] Wednesday night almost broke out into a fight between two members of the board of supervisors near the end of the meeting . . . The meeting . . . had to be moved to the high school when it became evident the courthouse couldn't accommodate the approximately 1,100 in attendance . . . By 11 p.m., not one person had spoken in favor of the plan . . . [some persons said having a plan] was an infringement on their basic freedoms. Two speakers likened the plan to communism . . . Joe Hobbs said he is "proud of our heritage of freedom, it is an insult to the intelligence of the American people to have someone tell us we don't know how to run our own affairs" . . . many of the sometimes raucous crowd, which penetrated the meeting with whoops and cheers . . .[5]

This fragmented series of excerpts illustrates the kind of citizen input that influenced the local governing body. After that hearing the issue was tabled for more than a year and was pushed for adoption again beginning in the fall of 1978 with use value taxation as the key to adoption. Confronted with a reassessment of real estate to 100 percent of fair-market value (as opposed to the former assessment of 20 percent of fair-market value), use-value taxation could not be adopted unless the county had a comprehensive plan. Subsequently, as public opposition gradually declined the plan was ultimately adopted on December 27, 1978.

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[5]"Hearing Ends in Near Fight," The Bristol Virginia-Tennessee 17, February 1977, p. 1.

While the experience in Washington County was more controversial than most, a number of inferences can be made from that experience that are typical to the other portions of Appalachia Virginia and probably numerous other areas throughout the U.S. Most of the opposition to the plan was based on a lack of understanding of what the actual purpose of the plan was. This ignorance was fueled by large doses of misinformation spread by the leaders of the opposition which heightened the emotions of those who appeared at the public hearing in large numbers. An example of the kind of misinformation generated follows:

> The Comprehensive Land Use Plan that failed to gain acceptance in Washington County one year ago has gone back to the drawing board and now has a sister. The name of this sister is "Use Value Taxation." She is equally as ugly, mean and dangerous as the comprehensive plan. It has so many snares and deadly traps that it is hard to say which plan is the worst. Its most dangerous feature is that your land will be controlled by men appointed, not elected; so once you have them you cannot vote them out. However, you can't have "use value taxation" without land control. But who cares? If you have either you are ruined anyway . . . Let's deal briefly with the tax reduction group, or the five-acre or larger farms that qualify for "use value taxation." Suppose you get a deduction of 30 percent on your land and remember, your buildings do not qualify for "use value taxation." You must add on the amount of tax charged to your buildings and your home. Your home does not qualify either, so you add the tax on your home to the tax on your land and buildings. By the time you add on a portion of money to cover the millions it will cost to operate this plan, with all its bureaus and its committees, your tax will be far, far more

> than it is now . . . You could expect to pay $800 to $1,000 in taxes per year on a modest home. And if that isn't sudden death, what is it? Why is a group of bureaucrats who seek to gain control of our land by deceitful means and control it by manipulation of tax rates? Simply, if you control the land you control the people on it. Our bureaucrats call "use value taxation" a plan. I call it another rip-off. It offers one thing in common to all taxpayers - less freedom and more taxes.[6]

As large numbers of the citizenry read information as that above, which was printed as a letter to the editor of a local newspaper by a member of the Washington County Board of Supervisors, many of these persons will accept such information as truth without question. As the issue becomes emotional at public meetings, rationale and reason become almost impossible to maintain and very little education can occur regarding the merits of the plan.

Another aspect of the ignorance of the citizenry is the confusion of zoning and planning. Many persons think the two are synonymous. No doubt many of those who opposed the comprehensive plan thought that they were opposing zoning. Moreover, many of these probably were not even aware that the county had already had a zoning ordinance in effect for nearly ten years.

While some individuals such as the author of the letter to the editor just presented fueled opposition to the

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[6]"Land Use Plan Now Has Sister," The Bristol Herald-Courier 5 October 1978, Editorial Page.

plan for perhaps political reasons, many persons and companies have opposed land use planning because of vested interests. As a result of extreme increases in growth in Washington County in the past 15 years relative to the previous 50 years, many auctioneers, realtors, farmers, and developers joined forces to oppose the plan. These groups saw the plan as a threat to their livelihood to tap a prime market of residential and commercial growth in the county. In many coal producing counties large landholding companies (of which there are many) have opposed adoption of plans because they viewed them as a threat to their ability to utilize the land in their coal production efforts.

Another reason which has been voiced frequently in opposition to land use planning, particularly pertaining to subdivision regulations, is that increased restrictions brought on by land use planning discourages development. This is most commonly lodged against the alleged increased costs of residential development due to additional actions required by developers to comply with the regulations. In some instances, these allegations have some merit. For example, the Virginia Department of Highways and Transportation will not accept local streets into their system for maintenance unless they are built to VDHT specifications, i.e., paved surfaces. Due to the mountainous terrain which often makes it impossible to design subdivisions efficiently in order to

minimize the amount of street construction required plus the increased draingage provisions required, costs are much higher compared to areas of relatively little slope.

Most counties prefer to have subdivision regulations that require that streets in new subdivision be constructed to state standards for basically three reasons. The first is for protection of unsuspecting homebuyers. Many old farm to market roads in Appalachia Virginia built before the VDHT adopted its street construction standards are gravel and are state maintained because they are "grandfathered" under the state law. Consequently, many homebuyers automatically assume that if they buy a home in a new subdivision served by a gravel road, it too will be maintained by the Highway Department. However, it will not. They do not realize that on such roads all snow removal, repair of potholes and replacement of gravel is the responsibility of themselves and their neighbors. Secondly, for homes located on streets not maintained by the state, the U. S. Postal Service will not deliver mail; public school buses will not run; and the Farmers Home Administration will not provide loans for home financing. Third, in numerous instances where subdivision have developed along roads not built to VDHT standards, after these aforementioned problems develop the residents of such subdivisions often appear before their local governing body to pressure their elected officials to expend county funds to repair and upgrade their streets. They feel as

taxpayers that the local government is obligated to provide streets for them of an equal quality of streets in other portions of town. To avoid this kind of pressure many politicians support requiring that streets be constructed to state standards when they are initially built for development.

All of the previous comments regarding citizen participation reflect negative support for land use planning. Of course positive support exists as well but seldom is expressed at forums designed for public input. The reason for this is due to the element of intimidation. One former planning commission member who is presently a local mayor, told the Executive Director of the Mount Rogers Planning District that he went to the February 16, 1981 public hearing on the Washington County Comprehensive Plan with full intentions of voicing support for adoption of the plan but did not for fear of his personal safety.

Those kinds of experiences reflect the difficulty of presenting complex and misunderstood information to the general public as a whole. Despite extensive efforts to educate the public, this kind of result is often predictable in Appalachia Virginia. Consequently, it is not surprising that planners spend the time and effort trying to educate the small group of citizens that comprise the planning commissions and governing bodies. Their experiences have

made many of the planners at the planning district commissions believe that the pitfalls of extensive citizen participation far outweigh the value of that participation.

The model suggests that the governing body also should provide input into substate areawide planning. In each of these planning district commissions in the study area all governing bodies are represented on the planning district commission boards. This representation assures that local views and concerns are always taken into consideration in the planning that is conducted by the respective planning district commissions. The Code of Virginia leaves the composition of membership up to the local jurisdictions in the district to decide with the following exceptions:

> At least a majority, but substantially more than a majority, of its members shall be elected officials of the governing bodies of the governmental subdivisions within the district with each county, city and town of more than three thousand five hundred population having at least one representative, and the other members being qualified voters and residents of the district, who hold no office elected by the people; and provided further, however, should the charter agreement, as adopted, so provide, an alternate may serve in lieu of one of the elected officials of each of the governing bodies of the participating governmental subdivisions.[7]

This kind of representation assures that local input occurs in substate planning fostering better opportunities for multi-jurisdictional coordination and local implementation

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[7]Code of Virginia, Section 15.1-1403(b)(4).

of areawide policies. This is further enhanced in districts such as Mount Rogers where local advisory committees are utilized, they too are comprised of membership from each local city and county.

The model expresses the value of the governing body adopting the comprehensive plan before adopting the tools for implementation. However, as has been stated this has not been the case in Appalachia Virginia.

e) State Programs

Figure 4, p. 54 of the traditional land use planning process model shows a reciprical flow of input between state programs and local functional plans. An example of how state programs can affect local plans was illustrated previously in the discussion of street construction requirements. State requirements, state planning, and funding can affect local transportation, solid waste, water and sewer, education, and health plans. In the limited instances where these kinds of functional plans have been developed in southwest Virginia state programs have always had a significant role.

As for grassroots input into state programs, past experience suggest that little has occurred and what has occurred has had modest impact at best. The example of local input into six-year highway planning has been mentioned previously. Another program, that of the State Water Control Board which sets priorities for the expenditure of EPA monies for sewer projects statewide, is considered by some

to be a boondoggle for the Appalachian Region of Virginia. Despite extensive input and documented need by localities in the far southwest, a disproportionately high share of EPA monies have been allocated to the more populated areas in the eastern, central, and northern parts of the state and a disproportionately low share for the southwestern part of the state.

Virtually all state programs are strictly trickle down programs in that decisions on state projects are made in Richmond with little input from local governments. One exception in Virginia is the Appalachian Regional Commission program. Although the ARC is a federal agency, it is administered predominately by the 13 Appalachian states. In Virginia, the localities have been given more input through their respective Local Development Districts (which are the three planning district commissions in the study area) than any other state program. Because of ARC's success in achieving effective grassroots input, a case has been made numerous times in the past to pattern other federal programs after it.

f) Regional Planning

In Appalachia Virginia regional planning has occurred in a number of different ways. The planning district commissions have developed regional land use plans as well as economic development plans for ARC and EDA. With the exception of the EDA Overall Economic Development Program

(OEDP), which in several districts is the same as ARC's Areawide Action Plan (AAP), the plans have no binding effect. The OEDP does in that in order for EDA to fund a project in one of its Economic Development Districts (of which Mount Rogers, Cumberland Plateau, and LENOWISCO are each designated), the project must rate number one in the districts' prioritization of projects in the OEDP.

The model suggests that input should occur between localities i.e., local governing bodies, comprehensive plans and functional plans, and regional planning. The input by local governing bodies has been mentioned. Input from local plans also occurs in that many projects and recommendations of local and regional plans are the same. Because planning district commission staff planners are usually involved in planning at both the areawide and local levels, this recipical input is easily achieved. This has been most important in light of the absence of local capital improvements programs at the local levels. The Mount Rogers Planning District Commission has gone one step further to achieve local input. It has designated its Economic Development Planning Advisory Council as the chief body to review the development of the AAP/OEDP. Similarly, it has a Criminal Justice Advisory Council and Human Resources Advisory Council that has served in a like capacity relative to criminal justice and human resource planning, respectively.

Consequently, the input between local and regional planning in Appalachia Virginia has been very good. This is primarily a result of the impact and influence of ARC and EDA in these regional planning efforts. In addition, the Farmers Home Administration 601 planning for energy impacted areas of LENOWISCO and Cumberland Plateau has also generally reflected the same levels of input as had the ARC and EDA funded planning efforts.

g) Federal Assistance

The model states that more often than not, without federal grant and loan monies many vital capital investments are not possible at the local level, particularly in non-metropolitan areas where revenues are limited. This has been definitely true in Appalachia Virginia. As was pointed out in the discussion of state and federal agencies as actors in the land use planning process, virtually all of the numerous capital investment projects constructed in the study area over the past 15 years have been possible only as a result of federal assistance. Without assistance from FmHA, EDA, EPA, ARC, and HUD which resulted in a marked improvement of the infrastructure necessary for industrial development the marked increases in employment and subsequent reversal of population decline in Appalachia would not have been possible. This opinion was voiced unanimously by all of the local, regional, and state personnel querried.

4) Inherent Characteristics of the Land Use Planning Process

The model states that inherent in the definition of the land use planning process are four characteristics necessary for a successful planning. The characteristics are action, rationality, utilitarianism, and a focus toward the future. The following discussion outlines some observations concerning the presence of these characteristics in the local land use planning process in Appalachia Virginia.

a) Action

The model refers to action in the land use planning process in terms of an ongoing effort. It further suggests that to stay abreast of the inevitable changes in the ongoing, dyanmic system of American society, the land use planning process must be cognizant of and adaptable to continuous change. Moreover, it stresses the utilization of the land use plan itself, indicating that plans adopted but not adhered to are of no value.

In terms of the reference to the comprehensive plan by local leaders as a guide and tool in making decisions on land use planning matters, the verdict of the jury is not clear. This question is discussed in more depth in Chapter VI, Reaction and Attitudes of Actors. However, one thing is certain, the answer is varied and inconsist depending on the perceptions of the different actors.

As far as adapting to changing needs of the community, a more concise observation can be made. Change in Appalachia, as in any rural area, has been much slower than more urbanized areas. This is due simply to the fact that growth occurs more slowly in rural areas. Consequently, the problems and needs identified in the land use planning process in Appalachia will not change as quickly as in urban areas.

However, the past ten years have seen a relative shift in growth. After two decades of stagnant economy reflected by declines in employment and population, the 1970's saw a marked turnaround. Consequently, while the increases in growth have been relatively minor compared to most urban areas, they have been significant in Appalachia Virginia relative to what the area had experienced during the previous generation. As numerous planning recommendations have been implemented and many capital improvements projects implemented, it is reasonable to assume that plans for a number of jurisdictions are somewhat out of date. Thus far none of those which were adopted five years ago or before have been updated. While the Mount Rogers Planning District Commission has scheduled work to begin updating two of these plans during Fiscal Year 1982 (when 1980 census date becomes available) none are earmarked for updating in LENOWISCO or Cumberland Plateau. It must be assumed therefore that a lack of action is prevalent relative to keeping the land use plans up to date to stay abreast of ongoing changes at the local level.

One exception to this is in those jurisdictions that are actively enforcing subdivision and zoning regulations. In these communities amendments are made frequently to adapt the ordinances to changes in development demands. Moreover, as has been mentioned previously, a number of jurisdictions have completely revised the subdivision and zoning ordinances.

b) Rationality

The model states that rational decision making involves making the most efficient and reasonable decisions possible based on the available information. It suggests that rationality should permeate the entire land use planning process involving planners, planning commissions, and politicians. The difficulties of accomplishing such an idealistic ambition are pointed out in the model.

The land use planning process in Appalachia Virginia has succumbed to the pitfalls of maintaining rationality, as has no doubt every other segment of America. Due to limitations of time and expertise, planners have seldom, if ever considered all alternatives and all of the consequences of each alternative. This is not to suggest however, that they have done an inadequate job. Rather, given the personalities and needs of their clientele, they have generally done a creditable job.

Likewise, planning commissions have also done a creditable job. Given the same kinds of limitations confronted by the

planners, the commissions have been very conscientious in their efforts to develop plans that they feel are fair and objective.

Comparatively, local governing bodies have met with less success. Local elected officials have not exercised the same relative levels of rationality as the planners and planning commissions. In referring to the local governing body in one of the more populated municipalities, one local official stated that the decisions made by the elected officials in that jurisdiction depend on the presence of interest groups that appear at the meetings to lobby for particular issues. He stated that if enough people show up, the governing body would vote to appease them. This kind of political sensitivity has been an obsticle that has plagued local land use planning efforts throughout Appalachia. This is particularly true of the county governments where they have authorized preparation of local planning documents but have been unwilling to adopt them in the face of opposition by small pressure groups.

c) Utilitarianism

The third key characteristic of the land use planning process is utilitarianism. This means making decisions that are in the overall public interest, not special interest. Because the general public is made up of numerous special interest groups, often the perception of the best general

interest is difficult grasp. For example, planners frequently find themselves with a different opinion of what is best for a community in terms of what type of subdivision regulations are warranted that that of the planning commission or governing body. From a planner's perspective, it is sometimes difficult to know when to draw the line on informing and educating local officials opposed to imposing his values on them. Planning scholars Paul Davidoff and Thomas Reiner have cautioned that "the planner should act with a keen sense of responsibility. He cannot, as an agent of his clients, impose his own ideas of what is right or wrong."[8] This difference has been a common problem throughout the study area.

Another factor that has affected the ability of local elected officials to make decisions in the best public interest has been the pressure mounted by certain special interest groups. The kinds of pressures outlined in the discussion of the interrelationships of the governing body in many instances have resulted in local politicians bowing to negative reaction to land use planning related matters and rejecting, delaying, or watering down land use planning proposals recommended by the planning commission. A strong

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[8]Paul Davidoff and Thomas A. Reiner, "A Choice Theory of Planning" Journal of the American Institute of Planning 28 (1962): p. 108.

case can be made in such instances that the governing bodies failed to act in the best overall interest of the public.

Therefore two observations can be made about utilitarianism. Often there is a sincere differing of opinion as to what the best public interest is. Secondly, decisions that might be classified as being in the best public interest are often rejected as a result of the influence of special interest groups.

d) Future Focus

Land use planning in many areas of the country is more a function of problem solving than problem avoidance. This is perhaps more true in urban areas where problems are generally larger in number and complexity. Consequently, land use planning in rural areas offers a real challange to the planner as he attempts to convey lessons that can be learned from urban counterparts and problem avoidance can be accomplished.

Although this reasoning may sound good it is semantical discourse which is a matter of perception that often creates something of a dilemma. Sometimes existing problems must be solved in order to avoid other future problems. One example would be the main purpose of the Appalachian Regional Commission program. The ARC has helped resolve the future problem of economic degradation in parts of the Appalchian Region by solving many problems that existed when ARC was first

established. Some of these problems included poor transportation access, severe limitations of labor skills, and an absence many community services and facilities such as public water and sewer systems. Solving many of these problems enabled local communities to successfully compete for manufacturing firms that had previously ignored this region of America. Consequently, Appalachian youth in many areas no longer are forced to leave home in order to assure themselves of a good job and decent standard of living.

Achieving the above problem solving/problem avoidance task on a substate and local scale is easy to identify. In instances where problem avoidance can occur without having to solve an existing problem is more difficult and can result in a dilemma for planners. This most frequently occurs when attempting to establish land use controls that will effectively manage future growth. This can best be illustrated through two actual examples that have occurred in the Mount Rogers Planning District.

The first occurred in Grayson County. During the mid 1970's large tracts of land were being purchased by absentee owners for future recreational use, specifically second home development. Such speculation was triggered in large part by the Mount Rogers National Recreation Area which is located in part of Grayson County and is being developed by the U. S. Forest Service. Having been identified by a few

key local officials and planners of the Mount Rogers Planning District Commission as a potential problem, efforts were undertaken to adopt local land use controls to prevent undesirable consequences of such development. Numerous types of information regarding the problems that similar recreation development had created in Sevier County Tennessee and Watauga and Avery counties in North Carolina were presented in a effort to sensitize and educate local officials. The idea behind these efforts was that by learning from the mistakes made in these nearby areas that were very analogous to Grayson County, similar misfortunes could be avoided in Grayson. The basic tools most needed to prevent such misfortunes were stringent subdivision regulations and zoning. Today Grayson County has a subdivision ordinance which has moderate restrictions but zoning has not been adopted and it is unlikely that it will be in the foreseeable future.

The second example occurred in Washington County which has a comprehensive plan, a subdivision ordinance, and a zoning ordinance. A recent explosion of residential and commercial development in the Abingdon area has resulted in the central business district (CBD) being separated from fringe residential development of high densities along several key transportation routes. One route has been marked by the recent construction of two shopping centers and numberous fast food restaurants. This route links the CBD, I-81, and South Holston Lake as well as two rather

large subdivision developments. Rush hour and summer weekend traffic is very congested along the two-lane route.

Recently a development firm from Atlanta requested a rezoning and variance to permit construction of yet another shopping center. Despite obvious concerns about the compounding effort that this development would have on the already acute traffic situation, local approval was given to the rezoning. This approval assured the locality of a future problem rather than avoidance of a future problem.

In the Grayson County situation, the planners were faced with the task of convincing local leaders that adoption of unpopular regulations in the short run would have significant long run benefits. The fact that the local leaders had lived in a county that had realized virtually no growth during their lifetime made the task most difficult. This difficulty proved insurmountable as the skepticism of local officials resulted in a lack of enthusiasm and hence, action. The fears are that such controls will limit local, "good" growth that is needed and desired. Local officials feel that if outside, "bad" growth begins, it can be diagnosed early enough to rectify.

In Washington County it was evident that the outside growth would be "bad" in that the traffic problems were obvious. Nevertheless, local officials feared that if the request was denied, the development, and thus the tax base,

jobs, and increased services it would bring would be lost to someone else.

Both of these examples point out a dilemma faced by planners and elected officials alike. Advocation of certain actions that are future oriented in that they will avoid specific problems often are very unpopular. They can appear to be anti-growth. As such, they can create credibility problems for planners and result in political suicide for elected officials. Conversely, problem solving is very popular. The results can frequently be quick and easily identifiable. This popularity translates into increased credibility for planners and political longevity for politicians.

Given these realities land use of planning, it can be said that land use planning in Appalachia Virginia has had as much of a future focus as perhaps could be expected for a rural area. The different planning districts have had different degrees of emphasis in various approaches of advocation of land use planning to solve and prevent growth related land use problems and advocation of economic development planning to create increased employment opportunities to avoid future problems of continued economic stagnation. LENOWISCO and Cumberland Plateau have been more economic development oriented while Mount Rogers has been more oriented toward land use planning.

CHAPTER VI

REACTIONS AND ATTITUDES OF LOCAL ACTORS

This chapter examines the reactions and attitudes of several of the actors involved in the local land use planning process regarding the effectiveness and need of local land use planning in Appalachia Virginia. Their opinions concerning the value of having planning commissions, comprehensive plans, subdivision regulations and zoning regulations are determined. This analysis is based on research generated from the interview questionnaire and from interviews with planning district commission staff persons. A complete tabulation of responses is presented in Appendix B. The actors whose opinions are discussed include local elected officials, planning commission members, the chief administrators of local jurisdictions, and the planners involved in planning in southwest Virginia.

These particular actors are evaluated for purposeful reasons. The attitudes of elected officials are most important because they are the group that determines to what extent land use planning is actually practiced at the local level. Because of their power to adopt legislation and establish policy, without their support land use planning cannot be successful.

Planning commissioners are evaluated because they represent the citizenry charged with the development of

land use planning documents. Moreover, as a result of their relationship with the planners they are more knowledgable of land use planning policy than the local governing body or the general public as a whole.

As the persons in charge of running the local governments, the chief administrators provide an accurate and interesting insight into the actual effectiveness of land use planning. They have the ability to observe the governing bodies, planning commissions, and planners as each participates in their particular role. The chief administrator's remarks may reflect a more candid and accurate perception of local land use planning than those of the elected officials and planning commissioners.

The opinions of the planners are important too. They are the "experts," the technicians who are working with the local officials. As outsiders looking in, they too have an accurate perception of how well the localities are actually utilizing land use planning. This is enhanced by the fact that planning district commission planners can contrast the actors in specific communities against those of other communities in their planning districts. In addition, the planners have a better perception of what effective land use planning should be based on their expertise. Consequently, this factor makes their opinions even more valuable in determining how effective land use planning is in Appalachia Virginia.

A. Value of Planning Commissions

The majority of local elected officials feel that planning commissions are worthwhile. Elected officials, planning commissions, and chief administrators were asked to rate the importance of having a comprehensive plan on the basis of generally a five point system - essential, very worthwhile, somewhat worthwhile, not very worthwhile, or worthless. One-third of those that responded to the interview questionnaire felt that having planning commissions is essential. About 40 percent of those surveyed indicated that commissions are very worthwhile and 27.2 percent responded that they were somewhat worthwhile. Less than 5 percent felt that planning commissions were not very worthwhile or worthless.

The opinions of elected officials from towns and cities regarding the value of planning commissions are slightly higher than those of county politicians. About 12 percent of the county board of supervisor members feel that planning commissions are either not very worthwhile or worthless compared to only 1.3 percent of council members. This difference of opinion reflects the generally higher level of acceptability of land use planning in incorporated areas.

When asked about the main reason for the establishment of the local planning commission, the most frequent response (40.7 percent) was to advise the governing body on land use

and development related issues. Nearly one-third of the local officials felt that it was to develop land use controls for the governing body. Only one-fourth of the responses indicated that the main reason for establishing the planning commission was to comply with the state mandate.

The only significant differences in the opinions of the different actors regarding the creation of planning commissions were those of the 14.3 percent of the county administrators and town managers who felt that the state mandate requiring establishment of planning commissions by July 1, 1975 was the main reason for the creation of planning commissions in their respective jurisdictions. This was below the overall response rate of 25.6 percent. This level of response is interesting in light of the fact that half of the planning commissions that have been established were established after the mandate was adopted.

The staffs of the planning district commissions are more skeptical. The staff of Cumberland Plateau felt that with only two exceptions, the state mandate was the primary reason for the establishment of seven of the nine planning commissions that exist in their district. The Executive Director of Mount Rogers felt that while the mandate was a factor in a few localities, the vast majority of jurisdictions in his district established planning commissions as a result of the perceived need to require the people developing

land to provide for proper improvements. Similarly, the Executive Director and Deputy Director of LENOWISCO felt that the state mandate has not been that much of a factor in the establishment of planning commissions. This is reflected in the fact that nearly 40 percent of the localities do not have planning commissions. Rather, LENOWISCO officials attributed the creation of planning commissions (and planning in general) to a combination of three things - a perceived need in some localities for land use planning, the belief that federal grant monies were tied to land use planning, and the fact that it would not cost them very much to get a land use planning effort established (because of HUD 701 monies to finance document preparation).

As far as the value of having planning commissions most agree that they are worth having. Although to varying degrees, this opinion is held by local officials and planners alike.

B. Value of Comprehensive Plan

Nearly four out of ten responses on the interview questionnaire indicated that elected officials, planning commissioners, and chief adminsitrators felt that the comprehensive plan was very worthwhile. The percent of responses that rated the importance of the plan as essential was 28.1. The same percentage of responses stated that the comprehensive plan was somewhat worthwhile. Less than 5

percent of the responses rated the importance of the plan as either not very worthwhile or worthless.

The responses of elected officials were basically the same as the overall responses of the actors who were interviewed by questionnaire. However, as was the case with their attitudes about planning commissions, the attitudes of county supervisors were not as high on the importance of comprehensive plans as were their town and city counterparts, council members. Only 1.4 percent of the council members felt that the comprehensive plan was not very worthwhile or worthless but 16.2 percent of the board of supervisors members felt that way. Conversely, nearly three-fourths (71.2 percent) of the councilmen felt that the plan was either essential or very worthwhile compared to less than half (45.1 percent) of the supervisors.

Interestingly, the chief administrators were less impressed with the value of having a comprehensive plan. Exactly half of them rated the plan as only somewhat worthwhile. About 11 percent felt it was not very worthwhile while the same percent felt that it was essential. Only one out of four of the chief administrators felt that the plan was very worthwhile. Again, the town and city managers had a collectively higher opinion of the comprehensive plan that the counterparts at the county level. All of the town and city managers who responded rated the importance of the plan

as somewhat worthwhile or higher. However, one-fifth of the county administrators responding felt that their comprehensive plan was not very worthwhile.

As might be expected, the opinion of planning commissioners regarding the value of having a comprehensive plan is slightly more favorable than the opinion of local elected officials, but not significantly. The percentage of commission members who responded to the questionnaire by rating the plan's importance as either very worthwhile or essential was 75.2. The percentage of elected officials who responded the same way was 72.4.

The responses of the planners to the question of the value of having a comprehensive plan was basically the same in each of the three planning districts. They felt that the plan is a valuable and useful tool in those communities that take it seriously and use it but in those localities where the plan is ignored, they view it as a waste of time. Unfortunately, the planners feel that there are far more jurisdictions that ignore their plans than use them. The exceptions are generally the more progressive municipalities such as the City of Norton and the Town of Marion. Progressive refers to those jurisdictions that are actively pursuing capital service and facility improvements that have, in many instances, been identified in the plans. The remaining jurisdictions in LENOWISCO were described as primarily

ignoring the plan. The planners of Cumberland Plateau described comprehensive plans in their district as basically "collecting dust." In Mount Rogers, with the possible exception of Marion and a very few other towns, the actual value was described as four or five on ten point base system. In other words, mediocre at best.

The difference in the perception of the value of the comprehensive plan between local officials and planners is also paralleled in the responses to the question regarding the main reason for adopting the plan. Nearly half of the local officials responding felt that it was to advise the governing body on land use and development related issues. This opinion was shared by 54.7 percent of the elected officials compared to 44.4 percent of the planning commission members and only one-fourth of the chief administrators. In all instances, a much higher percentage of local officials from the towns and cities felt that this was the main reason compared to those from the counties.

Four out of ten local officials attributed the main reason for adopting plans to the state mandate. This opinion was shared by 65.0 percent of the chief administrators compared to 44.4 percent of the planning commissioners and 32.5 percent of the elected officials. In each group of those actors, a significantly higher percentage of those from the counties felt that mandate was the main reason

compared to those from the towns and cities. Less than 10 percent felt that the main reason was to plan for future growth and development and less than 5 percent attributed the desire for use-value taxation as the main reason.

The planners at Mount Rogers and Cumberland Plateau felt that with the exception of those communities who had begun development of or had adopted plans prior to the mandate (only a third of those adopted), the state mandate was definately the main reason for adoption. The Executive Director of the Mount Rogers Planning District Commission indicated that in some instances the mandate combined with the state requirement to have a plan in order to adopt use-value taxation was the main reason. LENOWISCO officials felt that the state mandate was of little influence in their district. They sited the main reason as the perceived need by local officials that in order to be able to get federal grant-in-aid monies, they needed to have an adopted plan. Because there were very low costs involved in the preparation and adoption process (due to HUD 701 monies for comprehensive planning) they had nothing to loose by preparing a plan.

Sixty percent of the local officials from jurisdictions with adopted plans felt that had there not been a state mandate, their respective jurisdictions would not have adopted a plan. This is somewhat contradictory to the fact that only 40 percent of the officials indicated that the

main reason for adopting their local plan was due to the state mandate. However, the responses to this question were consistant with other responses related to the comprehensive plan in that county officials placed more emphasis on the state mandate than their town and city counterparts.

The most intriging response concerning the value of the comprehensive plan was provided by the elected officials. They were asked if they felt that the comprehensive plan was worth the time, effort, and cost that it took to adopt it. Approximately 79 percent of the politicians said that it was. This opinion was held by three-fourths of the county supervisors and 80.0 percent of the council members.

The responses of planners in the three planning districts are also consistant with their responses regarding the main reasons for plan adoption. Planners from Cumberland Plateau and Mount Rogers feel that many of the plans would not have been adopted without the state mandate. In LENOWISCO however, the planners do not feel that the mandate has been a factor in local plan adoption.

C. Value of Subdivision Ordinance

A higher percentage of elected officials and planning commissioners feel that subdivision regulations are either essential or very worthwhile compared to the same responses regarding the comprehensive plan. Nearly all of those responding to the questionnaire felt that having subdivision

regulations was essential and over one-third rated them as very worthwhile. Consequently, 83.7 percent gave the importance of subdivision regulations either the first or second (out of five) rating.

Interestingly, contrary to the opinions expressed about planning commissions and comprehensive plans, a higher percentage of county officials felt that subdivision regulations were essential than their counterparts in the towns and cities. Over half (55.2 percent) of the board of supevisor members feel this way compared to 43.1 percent of the council members.

The perceived need for placing controls on subdivision development is also reflected in the opinions expressed regarding the main reason for adopting a subdivision ordinance. The most frequent response (39.9 percent) attributed adoption to improving the quality of residential development. About one-third felt that the main reason was to control growth and development but only one-fourth felt that the state mandate was the main reason that their respective jurisdiction had adopted subdivision regulations.

Despite the fact that county elected officials have a higher opinion of subdivision regulations than the members of town and city councils, a higher percentage of supervisors (27.5) than councilmen (19.2) felt that the main reason for adoption of subdivision regulations was the state mandate.

One explanation for this might be that despite their personal feelings, the mandate was the tool used to adopt the requirements in light of public opposition.

However, this reasoning is negated by the fact that 72.4 percent of the members of the board of supervisors indicated that they felt their respective jurisdiction would have adopted a subdivision ordinance even without a state mandate compared to 66.7 of the council members. Consequently, another explanation might be that the mandate influenced some politicians who had a limited understanding of what subdivision regulations were. However, after becoming more knowledgable of their purpose and effect, they now recognize their importance. Therefore, based on the fact that with increased understanding, while they may not have adoped them when they did, they would have eventually.

The planners indicated that they felt the reasons for adopting subdivision regulations were basically the same as those for setting up planning commissions and adopting comprehensive plans. In LENOWISCO the link between obtaining federal funds and planning was the key. In Cumberland Plateau, with only two exceptions, the state mandate was felt to be the main reason. In Mount Rogers, it is felt that while the state mandate has been in a key in some jurisdictions, the perceived need to require proper improvements by the developers of land was felt to be the primary reason.

D. Need for Zoning

Without a doubt, the most surprising attitude revealed by the research conducted for of this thesis is the attitude of local officials regarding the need for zoning. Of the elected officials and planning commissioners who responded, 82.6 percent indicated that they felt zoning is needed in their jurisdictions. As might be expected, the responses varied among elected officials and planning commissioners and among county officials and town and city officials.

The perceived need for zoning was greater among planning commission members than elected officials. The percentage of planning commissioners that felt zoning is needed was 86.6 compared to 78.5 percent of the elected officials. Nevertheless, both groups reflected an overwhelming perception of the need for zoning.

As has been reflected throughout, the municipal officials have a greater perception of the need for zoning than the county officials. Of the council members responding, 86.7 percent said they felt zoning was needed in their municipality. The percentage of county supervisors who sensed a need for zoning was 59.4, significantly less than their municipal counterparts. Nevertheless, the fact that three out of every five county supervisors surveyed felt that zoning was needed is most surprising given the unpopularity of any form of land use control in Appalachian counties, particularly in the more rural areas, i.e. counties.

Despite their personal feelings, the county politicians are aware of the unpopularity of zoning. This is reflected by the fact that two-thirds of the supervisors from counties that presently do not have zoning feel that the probability of their jurisdictions adopting a zoning ordinance are either doubtful of little chance, or no chance. This same opinion is shared by 61.5 percent of the county planning commissioners from these same counties.

In contrast, the town and city officials responding from municipalities that presently do not have zoning feel that the liklihood of adopting a zoning ordinance is pretty good. Only one-third of the council members and 5.2 percent of the planning commissioners rated the likelihood as either doubtbul, little chance, or no chance. Conversely, two-thirds of the council members felt that the likelihood of adopting zoning regulations was either good or excellent compared to 94.7 percent of the planning commissioners.

Because of the knowledge that relatively few jurisdictions have zoning, the local officals were simply asked if they felt that zoning was needed. They were not asked to rate the importance of zoning therefore it is not known how strongly they feel about the need for zoning. Had the knowledge of such an overwhelming perception for zoning among local officials been suspected, they would have been asked to rate the importance of this need. Therefore, it is

not possible to compare the perceived importance of zoning among local officials to that of the comprehensive plan and subdivision regulations.

Nevertheless, one observation is apparent. Despite the high number of planning commissioners and elected officials that feel that zoning is needed, those in the counties feel that it is not possible to overcome public opposition and subsequently adopt zoning. This is a very important point. It suggests that probably as a result of the efforts of local planners, planning commissioners and even elected officials have been educated about the potential problems of growth and development to the point of recognizing the need for land use controls. However, because of the limitations of time, money, and effective forums for educating the public in general, the possibility of overcoming the fears and apprehensions of the general public is probably an insurmountable task. Moreover, because of the extent and fervor of those who oppose zoning regulations, local county politicians are unwilling to adopt such controversal policy. This is no doubt compounded by the accessibility of local elected officials to their constituency. Because of their daily contact with their clientele, the likelihood of constant pressure and even personal abuse from those violently opposed to zoning is not worth the benefits that they feel zoning would provide.

Equally as interesting as the local officials' responses, the planners attitudes regarding the need for zoning was not as great as that of local officials. The planners at LENOWISCO felt that zoning was not necessary in Lee or Scott counties (including the towns). They felt that zoning is needed in the city of Norton. Interestingly, they felt that zoning was necessary at one time in Wise County but now the problems that it would have prevented are so prevalent that it is too late.

The planners at Cumberland Plateau felt that zoning was needed in the towns but not in the counties. The Mount Rogers planners felt that zoning was needed in the urbanizing towns and counties but not necessarily in those where little growth is occurring or is likely to occur.

CHAPTER VII

CONCLUSIONS

A. Effectiveness of Land Use Planning

In order to determine the effectiveness of the land use planning process in Appalachia Virginia a number of facets of that process have been analyzed. Generally these include comparing the local processes to that outlined in the traditional land use planning process model and interviewing key local officials to determine their opinions about land use planning.

In terms of comparison to the model, the development of comprehensive plans in Appalachia Virginia has basically complied with the methodology outlined in the model. With the exception of evaluation, virtually all of the steps of the model are being followed. However, some of the steps such as alternative identification and selection are not practiced nearly as formally or as in depth as proposed in the model. However, this is not an indication that the process is inadequate in this regard. Rather, the planners are attempting to deal on a level commensurate with the level of comprehension and acceptance of their clientele.

The institutional relationships of the actors presented in the model also exist in Appalachia. Again, in some instances the level of participation is lacking from that

proposed by the model. This is most evident in the area of citizen participation. Generally, vast citizen participation is avoided more than it is solicited, particularly in the counties. This is due in part to the lack of time that planning district commission staffs have to devote to an indepth land use planning effort. More significant however, is the opinion of local planners and other key officials that the value of citizen input through mass gatherings is nil. Despite the most diligent efforts to educate as many people as possible about the content and purpose of the comprehensive plan, the majority of attempts to carry on a major citizen involvement effort have resulted in boisterous opposition. This seems to increase as public awareness increases. Consequently, many planners, and chief administrators, local politicians, and planning commissioners prefer to limit public input to that gained through representation on the planning commission and governing body and the minimum number of public hearings required by law.

Another area where the land use planning process in Appalachia has not complied with the model is in the adoption of functional plans. The model states that functional plans should be based upon the comprehensive plan. Obviously, to do so necessitates the adoption of the comprehensive plan prior to the development and adoption of functional plans. In most instances in Appalachia this has not occurred,

particularly in the case of zoning regulations. Consequently, it is likely that many jurisdictions with zoning are in need of having their regulations updated.

While the traditional land use planning process relative to the development of the comprehensive plan has been generally followed in Appalachia Virginia, the degree of effective use of the plan and related documents after adoption is not as clearcut. For example, elected officials indicated that they utilize the comprehensive plan much more frequently than the planners working with these individuals believe to be the case. Twenty percent of the elected officals indicated that they always refer to the comprehensive plan before voting on policy matters related to growth and development and 41.0 percent said that they refer to the plan frequently before such votes. About one-fourth of the politicians refer to the plan occasionally while 12.0 percent seldom refer to it and 3.0 percent never refer to it.

In contrast, the planners at Cumberland Plateau felt that the plans that have been adopted in their planning districts are "collecting dust." They indicated that in their opinion most of the politicians in their planning district had never even read the plan. The response from the planners in LENOWISCO was virtually the same. They indicated that with the exception of two municipalities, the comprehensive plans were being "ignored." They felt that

the City of Norton was doing a good job of land use planning and that the town of Big Stone Gap was doing a mediocre job of land use planning. While the planners in Mount Rogers were not as pessimistic in their view of the effectiveness of local land use planning, they were far from being optimistic. They indicated that local land use planning was mediocre at best, with some localities utilizing the comprehensive plan effectively and others not using it at all.

This apparent contradition may stem from the fact that local politicans sense that they are utilizing the plan to a greater extent than planners feel is needed. They may not see the value of the plan as a tool to aid in decision making process to the extent that planners do. Consequently, what they may perceive as frequent use the planners may view as only occasional use. Moreover, the local officials understanding of growth and development matters may differ significantly from that of planners. This would also help explain the difference in the expectation of use between the two groups.

Another factor that may have led to a relatively high response rate of use based on the viewpoint of the planners is the type of elected officials that responded to the questionnaire. As has been noted, only 41.3 percent of the elected officials surveyed responded. If those responding reflected those with an awareness of and interest in planning and the politicians who did not reflect those with a

feeling of indifference or disdain for planning, then the response rate will be skewd toward a more favorable acceptance and use of land use planning. There is no way to accurately assess to what degree this was a factor, but it is the opinion of the author that it is true to some extent.

Another difficulty with a survey of opinions and attitudes is gauging the degree of intensity with which local officials hold specific opinions. This same problem confronts planners as they attempt to determine goals and objectives. For example, if simply asked if one is in favor of a clean environment most every person would respond by saying yes. However, when the cost of fulfilling this goal is realized, many individuals will quickly hedge and begin moderating their opinions. Few would maintain such an opinion if it meant a significant alteration of lifestyle and/or increase in cost of living via higher water and/or sewer rates or higher taxes.

Similarly, local officials support of land use planning may stem from the fact that as a result of the HUD 701 program and technical assistance provided by planning district commissions funded primarily by state and federal funds, they have enjoyed the local land use planning they have received to date at relatively little local cost. If the opposite had been true, then the response may have been much different. In areas of Virginia where planning district

commissions must operate without staff support from ARC and EDA and consequently must depend more heavily on local funding, the planning district commissions have begun experiencing serious problems in maintaining local support. A recent article in the Roanoke Times and World-News noted that "tight budgets are forcing localities to abandon planning districts."[1]

The article suggests that the reasons for pulling out of planning district commissions are because "some local officials argue the commissions have 'too much power,' are overstaffed, are an additional level of government [and waste time] on studies that are never implemented and applications for federal money the localities don't always receive."[2] While this may be true, it is interesting that such decisions have come at a time when local governing bodies are faced with increasingly tighter budgets due to decreasing federal support and are forced to take much closer looks at what programs are to be cut back or eliminated in order to keep those worth having. In some areas of Virginia local governing bodies have apparently decided that land use planning is not a priority high enough to warrant continued support. Dave Rundgren, Executive Director of the

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[1]"Squeezed Out," The Roanoke Times and World-News 26 May 1981, p. B-1.

[2]"Squeezed Out," p. B-1.

Central Shenandoah Planning District Commission has noted that "'obviously there is a shift coming in the feeling of our expectations of local government.' The shift, he says is one away from 'pure planning' to 'problem solving planning' and will require the commissions to become more responsive to their local governments."[3]

Therefore it must be assumed that while the attitudes of the local officials responding to the questionnaire survey, particularly elected officials, indicates a high level of support for land use planning, this support would likely waiver if pressed. Consequently, the responses of planners may more accurately reflect the true effectivness of the land use planning process than those of local officials.

While the adoption of a comprehensive plan is important, the effective implementation of the plan is essential to an effective land use planning process. For this reason, the ability of local jurisdictions to effectively administer subdivision and zoning regulations is a must. However, the level of administration of these regulations in Appalachia is far from adequate. Only a third (35.1 percent) of the planning commissioners and less than half (44.4 percent) of the chief administrators surveyed feel that the administration of the subdivision ordinance in their jurisdiction is satisfactory and needs little or no improvement. The county

[3]"Squeezed Out," p. B-2.

officials were somewhat less pleased with the administration of the ordinance than their municipal counterparts.

While the needs for improvement of the subdivision regulations varied, the most frequent response among planning commissioners (35.1 percent) was for more rigid regulations. One-fourth of the chief administrators cited the need for more staff. This feeling was also stressed by several planners. Because of the limited amount of fiscal resources to operate local governments, many jurisdictions do not have adequate personnel to administer subdivision regulations once adopted. Consequently, they are often administered by persons that do not clearly understand their purpose and are often unable to comprehend their content. In some instances they are administered by capable individuals but they do not have the time to do an adequate job. In many instances the planning district commission staffs assist the planning commissions in administering subdivision regulations but because they seldom see and advise on plats on more than a monthly basis, much of the advice sought by developers must be given on short notice by local officials with limited understanding of the local subdivision requirements. Whatever the reasons, very few subdivision ordinances are consistantly administered well.

The same can be said for the administration of zoning regulations. Despite the fact that half of the town and

city planning commissioners and six out of seven town managers feel that the administration of their zoning regulations is adequate, the same kinds of problems that plague the effective administration of subdivision regulations also plague zoning. Interestingly, only 15.4 percent of the county planning commissioners feel that administration of zoning in their jurisdictions is adequate. This reflects the opinions of local planners working in the study area. In addition to not having adequate personnel to administer zoning ordinances, other problems hamper rigid enforcement of zoning.

One of these, particularly apparent in towns, stems from the fact that because of the small populations most everyone knows one another. Because of this, local officials find it difficult to uphold certain requirements that they feel may hinder what "Joe Blow wants to do over on Oak Street." While they know the reaons for having a setback requirement, they know that Joe means no harm so they permit him to build a fix-it shop in violation of the ordinance. As this happens with increasing frequency the difficulty of effectively administering the ordinance increases.

Another problem of administration stems from personal opinions regarding zoning. A number of instances were cited where individuals charged with the responsibility of administering zoning regulations were personally philosophically

opposed to zoning. Obviously when this is the case, the tendency for violations of the requirements is high.

Therefore, based on the questionnaire responses, the interviews with local planners, and particularly, participant observation by the author, it is evident that effective administration of subdivison and zoning regulations is significantly lacking. Consequently, this represents a hinderance to the effectiveness of the planning process in Appalachia Virginia.

While one has to research extensively to assess the effectiveness of having a comprehensive plan, subdivision ordinance, and zoning ordinance in Appalachia, the effectiveness of capital improvements is very obvious. While capital improvements programming per se has been taking place on a very limited basis locally, it has occurred informally. Primarily with the assistance of the planning district commissions, local jurisdictions have been quite successful over the past two decades (particularly during the 1970's) in implementing numerous capital improvement projects. More impressive than the construction of vocational schools, expansion of public water and sewer service, development of industrial parks, improvement in health care, development of recreation parks, and transportation improvements, have been the resulting effects of these improvements. After realizing twenty years of population decline, the population

of the Appalachian Region studied in this thesis increased from 356,725 in 1970 to 420,850 in 1980.

Many of the projects that have been implemented were initially identified in local and regional plans. After having been identified, local planners and other officials worked diligently to secure financing to see that the projects were successfully completed. The results have been significant increases in manufacturing employment complimented by subsequent increases in non-basic industries such as retail and wholesale trade and services. This increase in manufacturing has offset significant declines in the two former major employers, agriculture and mining. When those two economic sectors initially began declining, local residents were forced to leave the area to find employment. However, as manufacturing has increased this is no longer a problem in many areas of Appalachia.

While much of the credit for capital improvements is due to local officials and planners, it must be noted that federal grant-in-aid programs are responsible for virtually all of the improvements. Without the ARC, EDA, FmHA, EPA, HUD, COR, and other federal agencies, it is likely that few if any of the improvements that have been made would have been possible. Local governing bodies in Appalachia simply do not have the fiscal base nor the local entrepreneurship to tackle bricks and morter projects that cost hundreds of thousands of dollars.

When asked to identify the major hinderances to providing land use planning assistance to local governments and the major problems in local governments' ability to effectively maintain a sound land use planning process, the planning district commission planners responses were very profound. LENOWISCO officials indicated that the level of competence of local officials was generally very low. They felt that there was a high correlation to the level of problems existent and the overall quality of the local elected officials. They felt that as many of the local problems have been successfully resolved for the time being, primarily the local economic situation, the level of leadership has significantly declined. They indicated that most local officials run for elected office in reaction to specific issues or problems. Moreover, local support is based on opinions of the issues and problems and not necessarily on qualifications. As the issues and problems have declined in magnitude, the level of competence of local leaders has also declined.

In discussing the major problems of local governments in carrying on effective land use planning they noted that many local officials were leery of land use planning. In addition, many others do not perceive the need for land use planning. In many instances this is linked to the power structure of local governments. Since the mainstay of the

economy in LENOWISCO is coal, this means coal companies and large landholding companies who envision land use planning as detrimental to their ability to market their products and resources most efficiently.

In Cumberland Plateau the planners felt they had little or no hinderances in providing technical assistance to local governments. They seemed to have the staff capability and feel for local values to sufficiently provide for land use planning needs. However, they felt that the major hinderances to local governments' ability to plan effectively was based primarily on the fact that local planning decisions are politically motivated. They see elected officials as having very short range views which are often in conflict with long range land use planning efforts. They indicated that local officals do not look at local studies but rather adopt them in "the game to play to acquire federal monies to get brick and morter projects." This is the same motivation listed by LENOWISCO officials as the primary impetus behind the development and adoption of local planning documents in their jurisdictions.

The Executive Director of Mount Rogers stated that there were basically three major hinderences to providing technical assistance to local governments. In the early years (early 1970's) local governments were also very leery of land use planning and the planning district commission in

particular. They perceived the MRPDC as the federal government sticking its nose into local affairs. This perception resulted in a lot of mistrust and resistance to early land use planning efforts.

He noted that another hindrance has been the lack of trained administrators at the local level to effectively implement the plans and related documents after they have been adopted. This has resulted in many mis-used and even non-used land use planning documents in town halls and county courthouses. The most frequent problems occur in the administration of subdivision and zoning regulations where local technical capabilities have been lacking.

Finally, he felt that the Mount Rogers Planning District Commission had not been adequately staffed to provide the level of technical assistance to localities that has been needed. This includes development of, and administrative assistance, in utilizing land use planning documents. It is probable that this was stated by Mount Rogers planners and not planners from LENOWISCO or Cumberland Plateau for the simple reason that in Mount Rogers they have worked with every town, city, and county on an individual basis to develop comprehensive plans and subdivision ordinances. This has not been the case in LENOWISCO and Cumberland Plateau where they have opted to place more emphasis on economic development planning rather than traditional land

use planning. Consequently they have not had the comparable demand on staff time for providing technical assistance for traditional land use planning.

In discussing the hindrances to the ability of localities to carry on an effective land use planning process, the Mount Rogers planners again pointed out local administrative capabilities. In many instances jurisdictions do not have the workload to justify hiring full-time planning staffs. Moreover, the need is not perceived to be great enough to justify expending the money it would take to provide local planning staffs. Therefore, insufficient workload and fiscal limitations result in local administrative responsibilities being deligated to unqualified individuals. However, the Executive Director of the Mount Rogers Planning District Commission stated that he felt that one of the roles of planners was to sow the seed in the minds of local officials that in many instances there was in fact a need for land use planning.

It is difficult to determine to what degree the role of the respective planning district commissions has played with regard to local land use planning. However, it is obvious that the attitudes of and roles assumed by the three planning district commissions differ in emphasis. In Mount Rogers traditional land use planning has been stressed extensively. This is reflected by the fact that more plans, subdivision ordinances, and zoning ordinances have been developed and

adopted in more localities there than in planning district commission one or two. Mount Rogers' emphasis in traditional land use planning has come at the expense of economic development and delivery of services. While Mount Rogers has been involved in economic development, it has been mostly in a support capacity and to a much less extent than LENOWISCO and Cumberland Plateau. This has included assisting local governments, chambers of commerce, and development authorities by providing economic data on request and by helping obtain federal funds for economic development projects.

LENOWISCO planners have emphasized traditional land use planning very little and have concentrated their efforts on economic development and implementing environmental programs. The limited amount of traditional land use planning is reflected by the number of active planning commissions presently functioning and the relatively fewer planning documents that have been developed and adopted. However, what they may have lacked in traditional land use planning they have made up in development planning. Their efforts include the Duffield Industrial Park presently providing over 1,000 jobs, and Thomas Village, a planned unit development located adjacent to the industrial park. Both of these developments are impressive in terms of their quality and value to the area. Moreover, LENOWISCO and Cumberland Plateau are the only two planning district commissions in

Virginia with limited implementation powers. LENOWISCO has been engaged in several environmental improvement programs such as ridding small streams of debris, solid waste collection and disposal, abandoned and junk car retrieval and disposal program, and street flushing and emergency water transportation.

Cumberland Plateau has functioned between the extremes of Mount Rogers and LENOWISCO. They have been more development oriented than Mount Rogers but less than LENOWISCO. Conversely, they have been somewhat more involved in traditional land use planning than LENOWISCO but less than Mount Rogers. As was mentioned, they have been involved in implementation of several environmental programs similar to those of LENOWISCO. They also have actively sought industry into an industrial park located outside of Lebanon.

In summary, it is apparent that economic development planning in Appalachia Virginia has been accomplished with vigor and success. However, traditional land use planning has not been as effective. Due to the fact that numerous plans and supporting documents have been prepared and adopted, in many instances closely adhering to the traditional land use planning process model, their implemention has been lacking. This is true both in terms of faithfully utilizing the comprehensive plans and particularly in administration of local land use controls. However, although the overall effectiveness is lacking, the local land use planning presently

occuring in some localities fares very favorably. In these instances and even those with administrative problems, the land use planning that is occurring is better than having none at all.

B. Effect of State Mandate On The Land Use Planning Process

The state mandate has had a definite effect on the number of plans and subdivision ordinances that have been adopted in Appalachia Virginia. Approximately half of the planning commissions that have been established, half of the subdivision ordinances that have been adopted, and about 70 percent of the comprehensive plans that have been adopted, have all occurred after the state legislation mandating these things was passed. Despite this high incidence of adoption after the legislation went into effect, it is difficult to say that the mandate influenced the adoption of all of these documents. One reason is due to the fact that after establishment of the planning district commissions around 1970, many localities may have been influenced by them and adopted land use controls without the mandate. Another reason is due to the fact that HUD 701 monies made land use planning possible at virtually no cost to localities and may also have induced some jurisdictions to get involved in land use planning. In addition, because many localities sensed a link between federal grant-in-aid monies and land use planning, this was the primary catalist for getting into

the land use planning business. Nevertheless, many of those factors were present prior to the mandate but progress was modest. Moreover, the research indicates that the mandate has resulted in land use planning being initiated in localities that otherwise would not have done so.

The degree to which the mandate has affected the land use planning process in Appalachia Virginia is closely related to the emphasis placed on the mandate by the respective planning district commissions. In LENOWISCO the mandate has been virtually ignored. The planners have not impressed upon local governments the fact that the mandate exists nor the need to comply with it. Rather, they have elected to respond to local needs for planning assistance upon request by those localities only. Consequently, LENOWISCO has not assumed an advocacy role in terms of promoting the need for traditional land use planning at the local level. Instead, they have concentrated their efforts on providing needed environmental improvement services and concentrating on local economic development. This lack of advocacy for local land use planning is reflected by the relatively low percentage of jurisdictions that have active planning commissions and/or adopted plans and land use ordinances.

Cumberland Plateau has been somewhat more active in stressing the state planning mandate. They have taken the initiative to inform their local jurisdictions of the state mandates and work with them to meet those mandates. However,

they have not sensed the need to stress local land use planning in each individual locality. Rather, they coordinated the land use planning efforts of all of the towns in Russell County and Tazewell County (with the exception of Bluefield, Richlands, and Tazewell) by seeing that agreements between the towns and counties were made whereby the towns would accept the portion of the county land use planning efforts that pertained to them only. This applies to both the comprehensive plan and subdivision regulations. Moreover, in areas where localities have resisted local land use planning efforts, the planning district commission has been careful not to continue to push for acceptance of land use planning.

Whereas LENOWISCO has chosen to not use the state mandate as the "stick" to prod localities into land use planning and Cumberland Plateau has done so only to a limited extent, Mount Rogers has done so to a great extent. The Mount Rogers planners have placed much more emphasis on the state mandate and have advocated that each individual locality comply with the mandate. This has meant working with all localities in developing comprehensive plans and subdivision ordinances. Consequently, this has resulted in a much greater workload for staff planners. However, the results of these efforts are reflected by a high percentage of localities in Mount Rogers who now have adopted comprehensive

plans (90.0 percent) and subdivision regulations (100.0 percent).

Consequently the mandate has served to force-feed land use planning on localities that had previously not elected to engage in a land use planning effort. Stan Kidwell, Jr., of the Virginia Department of Housing and Community Development, Office of Local Development Programs, noted the effect statewide. He indicated that before the mandate, 64 percent of the towns and counties had planning commissions compared to 70 percent in 1979. He suggested that this indicates that a majority of the communities were committed to land use planning before the mandate but did not choose to produce plans because they had no staff to assist. Interestingly, the number of jurisdictions with planning staffs increased from 11 percent prior to the mandate to only 13 percent in 1979. However, the number of jurisdictions with adopted plans increased from 27 percent to 52 percent and the number with adopted subdivision ordinances increased from 44 percent to 64 percent. He noted that this rate of increase reflects the importance of planning district commission staffs in assisting local governments.

Although the effect statewide has been significant, it has not been as great as the increase in Appalachia Virginia. This is probably linked to the fact that all six of the planning district commissions serving Appalachia have received operating monies from the Appalachian Region Commission.

In addition, most of them also receive operating support from the Economic Development Administration while the majority of the remaining 18 planning district commissions statewide do not. Consequently the planning district commissions serving Appalachia have been able to maintain larger planning staffs and more effectively respond to local land use planning needs.

Virginia is the only Appalachian state that mandates local land use planning. When asked to rate the importance of the fact that the state(s) neighboring the jurisdictions in the study area do(es) not require the adoption of local plans and subdivision ordinances in affecting the efforts of Virginia localities to adopt these documents, 34.0 percent of the planning commissionres replied that they had very little effect and 39.3 percent said that it had had no effect at all. Only 10.7 percent felt that it had had an extensive or significant effect and 16 percent replied that it had somewhat affected local efforts to adopt these documents. Practically all of those who expressed the feeling that it had affected them were from jurisdictions located very close to Kentucky, North Carolina, Tennessee, or West Virginia. Overall however, even in those jurisdictions, the effect was minimal.

Despite the fact that the mandate has spurred land use planning in many areas, it has not had an overwhelming

impact. This is no doubt due to the fact that the mandate has no teeth. No provisions are made for penalizing localities that do not comply. It would appear that because of this lack of teeth many localities have elected to ignore the mandate based on the assumption that the state will take no action against them for violating the planning requirements. This appears to be just what is happening.

Why then did Virginia adopt such legislation in the first place? Milton Martin, Director of the Department of Planning and Community Development for the City of Hopewell, Virginia, was formerly employed by the now Virginia Department of Housing and Community Development and assigned the responsibility of working with the legislative committee of the General Assembly that developed the legislation mandating local land use planning. He noted that in 1972 the Virginia Advisory Legislative Council issued a report recommending that Virginia establish a standard statewide subdivision ordinance, to be operated by every local jurisdiction. It further recommended that the then Division of State Planning and Community Affairs take action against localities that did not implement the ordinance. Martin stated that while the idea was quickly scuttled, it set the stage for the State to take some action in controlling subdivisions.

Martin further noted that in 1974 the Coastal Zone Management Act of 1972 was funded and the U. S. Congress was

actively debating a National Land Use Planning bill. These actions represented a menacing presence to state governments and fostered such thinking as "if we don't do it ourselves, the feds will do it for us or even to us." Given this set of circumstances, the state could [and did] pass legislation that would enable them to argue "we don't need federal legislation; planning is a state and local problem and we are moving to resolve it." Martin's conclusion therefore is that "the political conditions were ripe for the type of bill we proposed. It was a matter of the right idea involving the right people at the right time. The bill probably would not have passed either the year before or the year after."[4]

Given this, it is obvious that many localities have sensed the half-hearted intent of the General Assembly. While many jurisdictions have started land use planning because of the mandate, just as many, if not more, have not done so.

C. Implications for Local Land Use Planning In Other Parts of Appalachia

Perhaps the most desirable result from force-feeding land use planning to local jurisdictions that is realistic would be to initiate a land use planning process that is

[4]Milton Martin, Director, Department of Planning and Community Development, City of Hopewell, Virginia, personal letter.

needed but otherwise would not have gotten started. This would occur for example, by exposing local officials to land use planning and thereby educating them as to what it actually is and as a result, have them accept and promote land use planning. Ideally, many would be changed from land use planning opponents to land use planning proponents.

It is not possible to specifically pinpoint the extent to which this has occurred in the Appalachia Virginia experience. No doubt it has occurred but not to the extent that it would have if all localities had engaged in land use planning as a result of the mandate as was the case in the Mount Rogers Planning District. Even in Mount Rogers however, it is debatable as to whether the value gained from the force-feeding was worth the time, effort, and cost involved in providing the technical assistance necessary. Despite the relative high percentage of jurisdictions with adopted comprehensive plans and subdivision ordinances, based on the interviews and author observation it appears that the percentage of jurisdictions that are actively and effectively utilizing their land use planning tools are the ones that would have adopted them without being forced by the mandate. Conversely, those that adopted them simply because of the mandate, do not view them with much importance and therefore utilize them hardly at all. Consequently, the experience in Virginia and in Mount Rogers in particular, suggests that the feelings

of Lawrence Susskind expressed in his debate with Daniel R. Mandelker over whether or not state government should mandate local land use planning are valid. He says that state mandated local planning cannot succeed for three basic reasons, motivation, funding, and enforcement. He notes the difficulties involved in winning support for a local plan and the fact that most localities are unable to raise the necessary funds to sustain effective and creditable efforts.[5] This is more true in rural areas everywhere and certainly in Appalachia Virginia.

Therefore it is felt that in Virginia these problems have been very difficult to overcome. Susskind notes that

> If the motivation is lacking or if the locality is merely going through the motions to satisfy federal or state requirements, the plan that emerges is not likely to have much impact on actual development patterns. Plans are effective only when day-to-day decisions are made by administrators who share a commitment to the policies contained in the plans and when constituent groups that have helped prepare the plans studiously monitor subsequent activities and apply pressure as needed.[6]

This comment very accurately describes what has occurred in Appalachia Virginia. These problems have been compounded by the values of local property owners regarding sovereign property rights which result in antagonistic attitudes

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[5]Daniel R. Mandelker and Lawrence Susskind, "Debate: Should Local Planning Be Mandatory?" Planning 44 (July 1978: pp. 14-22.

[6]Mandelker and Susskind, p. 17.

toward legislation that prescribes the use of private land as mentioned in Chapter I. This combination makes local land use planning in Appalachia very difficult, yet challenging.

Consequently, it appears that the influence of the local planning district commissions has been more important in getting local land use planning initiated than the state mandate. Therefore, it is concluded that even if the mandate had stronger teeth that would have forced more localities to get into land use planning the only localities that would truely benefit from such planning are the ones that realize its benefits and would plan regardless of a mandate.

Therefore future local land use planning in Appalachia will hinge on the future of the local development districts and specifically, federal planning monies. Recent federal budget reductions have affected planning drastically. The HUD 701 program, the Appalachian Region Commission and the Economic Development Adminstration have all been drastically reduced in scope and earmarked for elimination in the next one to two years. If the planning district commissions are to remain at present levels of staffing and productivity, the loss of these operating monies will have to be offset through other sources of revenue.

The statement of one LDD Director, Dave Rundgren, indicated that need to shift from "pure planning" to problem-solving planning has been mentioned previously. This shift has already occurred at LENOWISCO.

> Recognizing that local physical planning was usually a waste of time for the Commission . . . the LENOWISCO Board of Directors took formal action in 1979 to cease all local planning per se, with the specific exception of regional planning work necessary to properly program capital investments . . . Several PDC's in the state have followed the spirit of the law to the letter. Because of this, they have been subjected to unwarrented criticism by member units of governments for spending too much time "shuffling paper" . . . if and when the majority opinion in rural areas changes toward physical planning, and especially in southwestern Virginia, LENOWISCO will be responsive to it. After all, the Commission is a service agency. The changes in philosophy really only reflect the wishes of most of the people LENOWISCO serves. The Commission is seen first and foremost as a problem solver, and not a promoter and instigator of land use control.[7]

While some planners, such as those at Mount Rogers, have viewed themselves as promoters and instigators of land use control, they too agree for the need to adapt that role to reflect the wishes of their people, which are similar to those that exist in LENOWISCO.

Consequently, the land use planning that has occurred in most Appalachia Virginia communities has done so mostly as a result of the state mandate and federal funding requirements. All of the planners interviewed agreed that in these communities future land use planning will grind to a halt. In the few communities where the motivation and local funding exists, land use planning will continue. The

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[7]Bruce Robinette, "Problem Solving or Paper Shuffling: Mission for Lenowisco," Regional Focus 7 November 1980, p. 10.

future of the planning district commissions will depend on their ability to provide the kinds of services to local governments that will warrant them to not only continue to provide the planning district commissions support monies, but to do so at increased levels to offset declines in federal aid. These same deductions are applicable for other parts of Appalachia Virginia and perhaps all of southern Appalachia as well. However, it is likely that local traditional land use planning assistance will not be a high priority for the regional planning agencies. Rather the demand for their services may come in other types of functional planning such as economic development, housing, or finance and budgeting.

Moreover, with some exceptions, it would appear that there is a need to place the greatest emphasis on types of functional planning other than land use. It is stated in Chapter I that land use planning in nonmetropolitan areas is needed and that increased pressures to which Appalachia Virginia may be subjected from increasing growth in coal production, tourism, recreation development, and manufacturing may require an increased emphasis in local and regional land use planning. To the extent that this will occur in specific areas, this will be true. However, one fallacy of mandated land use planning is that all areas, regardless of size, growth patterns, problems, or desires, need such planning.

This simply does not apply for many small towns such as those in Appalachia like Troutdale, Nicklesville, Dungannon, Cleveland, and others. Conversely, in areas of rapid growth such as Washington County and areas of potential high rates of future growth such as Wythe County where I-77 and I-81 intersect, land use planning is definitely needed. It is in these areas where the local land use planning process must be followed effectively so that they can maintain many of their rural ammenities while alleviating much of their economic degradation through increased industrial and commercial growth.

One final note. The traditional land use planning process model presented in this thesis places planners outside of a part of the central core of local government, the administrative/executive branch. While this relationship has been professed for years by numerous scholars and has even been mandated in Virginia, it may be one reason that some planners have had difficulty in gaining political acceptance for and effective implementation of land use planning. This is due to the fact that in this type of organizational structure planners are not a direct part of the decision-making process but more of an indirect part. Consequently, it may be that the traditional approach to land use planning and the Virginia mandated approach are inadequate and in need of revision. Realistically however, such a change in the near future is

not likely. Therefore, land use planning in Appalachia Virginia and probably throughout the Southern Appalachians will depend on local governmental commitment which presently is very weak.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

STUDY AREA BY PLACE AND POPULATION

APPENDIX A

STUDY AREA BY PLACE AND POPULATION

PDC	Jurisdiction	1980 Population
1	Lee County	25,956
1	Jonesville*	878
1	Pennington Gap	1,706
1	St. Charles	239
1	Scott County	25,068
1	Clinchport	88
1	Dungannon*	336
1	Gate City	2,492
1	Nicklesville	463
1	Weber City*	1,538
1	Wise County	43,863
1	Appalachia	2,420
1	Big Stone Gap	4,742
1	Coeburn*	2,598
1	Pound	1,082
1	St. Paul	963
1	Wise*	3,891
1	City of Norton	4,757
2	Buchanan County	37,989
2	Grundy	1,684
2	Dickenson County	19,806
2	Clintwood	1,364
2	Haysi	378
2	Russell County	31,761
2	Cleveland*	350
2	Honaker	1,458
2	Lebanon	3,190
2	Tazewell County	50,511
2	Bluefield	5,942
2	Cedar Bluff	1,544
2	Pocahontas*	709
2	Richlands	5,764
2	Tazewell*	4,464
3	Bland County	6,349
3	Carroll County	27,270
3	Hillsville	2,125
3	Garyson County	16,579
3	Fries	758
3	Independence	1,110
3	Troutdale*	238
3	Smyth County	33,366
3	Chilhowie*	1,263

PDC	Jurisdiction	1980 Population
3	Marion	6,931
3	Saltville	2,376
3	Washington County	46,487
3	Abingdon	4,280
3	Damascus	1,321
3	Glade Spring*	1,709
3	Wythe County	25,522
3	Wytheville	7,118
3	Rural Retreat	1,083
3	City of Bristol	19,042
3	City of Galax	6,524
Total Population of Study Area		420,850
Total Population of Planning District Commission 1		99,644
Total Population of Planning District Commission 2		140,067
Total Population of Planning District Commission 3		181,139

*Not included in questionnaire survey.

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRES AND TABULATIONS OF RESPONSES

TABLE I

BREAKDOWN OF RESPONSE RATE
BY JURISDICTIONS SURVEYED

PDC	Jurisdiction	Elected Officials			Planning Commission Members		
		Sample Size	Number Responses	Response Rate %	Sample Size	Number Responses	Response Rate %
1	Lee County	8	1	12.5	5	1	20.0
1	Pennington Gap	6	3	50.0	-	-	42.9
1	St. Charles	6	0	0	-	-	
1	Scott County	8	1	12.5	7	3	42.9
1	Clinchport	6	0	0	-	-	
1	Gate City	6	3	50.0	-	-	
1	Nicklesville	8	2	25.0	-	-	
1	Wise County	7	3	42.9	9	3	33.3
1	Appalachia	4	0	0	5	2	40.0
1	Big Stone Gap	6	3	50.0	7	5	71.4
1	Pound	5	2	40.0	5	1	20.0
1	St. Paul	7	1	14.3	6	4	66.7
1	Norton City	5	4	80.0	5	4	80.0
2	Buchanan County	7	1	14.3	7	0	0
2	Grundy	7	2	28.6	7	2	28.6
2	Dickenson County	5	3	60.0	8	5	62.5
2	Clintwood	6	1	16.7	-	-	-
2	Haysi	7	2	28.6	-	-	-
2	Russell County	4	2	50.0	9	2	22.2
2	Honaker	7	0	0	-	-	-
2	Lebanon	7	3	42.9	-	-	-
2	Tazewell County	3	1	33.3	9	4	44.4
2	Bluefield	6	5	83.3	5	3	60.0
2	Cedar Bluff	7	2	28.6	5	2	40.0
2	Richlands	7	2	28.6	7	3	42.9
3	Bland County	4	3	75.0	9	6	66.7

TABLE I (continued)

PDC	Jurisdiction	Elected Officials Sample Size	Elected Officials Number Responses	Elected Officials Response Rate %	Planning Commission Members Sample Size	Planning Commission Members Number Responses	Planning Commission Members Response Rate %
3	Carroll County	6	2	33.3	9	2	22.2
3	Hillsville	5	4	80.0	9	3	33.3
3	Grayson County	4	3	75.0	8	5	62.5
3	Fries	8	3	37.5	7	5	71.4
3	Independence	7	4	57.1	**	-	-
3	Smyth County	7	5	71.4	7	4	57.1
3	Marion	8	5	62.5	7	5	71.4
3	Saltville	7	3	42.9	5	4	80.0
3	Washington County	7	3	42.9	12	7	58.3
3	Abingdon	5	3	60.0	6	3	50.0
3	Damascus	7	4	57.1	8	5	62.5
3	Wythe County	6	4	75.0	10	7	70.0
3	Wytheville	5	3	60.0	6	4	75.0
3	Rural Retreat	7	5	71.4	7	4	57.1
3	Bristol City	5	3	60.0	7	4	57.1
3	Galax City	6	3	50.0	7	2	28.6
	Total	259	107	41.3	230	115	50.0
	County Administrators	12	10	83.3			
	Town/City Managers	18	9	50.0			
	Total Mailouts	519					
	Total Responses	241					
	Total Response Rate	46.4%					
	Other Replies***	11					

*One questionnaire received was anonymous
**No questionnaires were mailed to Independence Planning Commission because of recent complete turnover of members
***Questionnaires returned but unanswered because of expired term, inaccurate addresses, or other reasons

QUESTIONNAIRE

Local Elected Officials

_____ 1. How long have you served as an elected official on the local governing body?

_____ 2. What do you feel was the main reason the governing body established the planning commission? A. To meet state law requirement to establish a planning commission by July 1, 1975 B. To advise the governing body on land use and development related issues C. To develop land use controls for the governing body D. Both B and C E. Other _____

_____ 3. How do you rate the importance of having a planning commission? 5. Essential 4. Very worthwhile 3. Somewhat worthwhile 2. Not very worthwhile 1. Worthless

_____ 4. What do you feel was the main reason the governing body adopted the comprehensive plan? A. To meet state law requirement to adopt a plan by 1980 . B. To allow for adoption of use-value taxation for farmland C. To plan for future growth and development D. To make local government more efficient E. Other _____

_____

_____ 5. How do you rate the importance of the development and adoption of the comprehensive plan? 5. Essential 4. Very worthwhile 3. Somewhat worthwhile 2. Not very worthwhile 1. Worthless

_____ 6. If the General Assembly had not required the adoption of comprehensive plans, do you feel that the governing body would have adopted one anyway? (yes or no)

_____ 7. Before voting on policy matters related to growth and development, do you refer to the recommendations in the comprehensive plan 5. Always 4. Frequently 3. Occasionally 2. Seldom 1. Never

_____ 8. Do you feel that the comprehensive plan is worth the time, effort, and cost it took to adopt it? (yes or no)

_____ 9. What do you feel was the main reason the governing body adopted the subdivison ordinance? A. To meet state law requirement to adopt a subdivision ordinance by July 1, 1977 B. To improve the quality of residential development C. To control growth and development D. Both B and C E. Other _____

_____

_____ 10. How do you rate the importance of the development and adoption of the subdivision ordinance? 5. Essential 4. Very worthwhile 3. Somewhat worthwhile 2. Not very worthwhile 1. Worthless

_____ 11. If the General Assembly had not required the adoption of a subdivision ordinance, do you feel that the governing body would have adopted one anyway? (yes or no)

_____ 12. Do you feel that zoning regulations are needed in your jurisdiction? (yes or no)

_____ 13. If your governing body has not adopted a zoning ordinance, do you rate the liklihood that one will be adopted in the next five years is 5. Excellent 4. Good 3. Doubtful 2. Little chance 1. No chance

Additional Comments:

TABLE II

TABULATION OF RESPONSES -
LOCAL ELECTED OFFICIALS

Question		County Officials Responses	County Officials Rate %	Town & City Officials Responses	Town & City Officials Rate %	Total Responses	Total Rate %
1.		4.5 yrs. (average)		5.7 yrs. (average)		5.3 yrs. (average)	
2.	A	11/47	23.4	27/109	24.8	38/156	24.4
	B	19/47*	40.4	46/109*	42.2	65/156	41.7
	C	16/47*	34.1	36/109*	33.0	52/156	33.3
	D	*		*	-	*	-
	E	1/47	2.1	-	-	1/156	0.6
3.	5	11/34	32.4	25/74	33.8	36/108	33.3
	4	12/34	35.3	31/74	41.9	43/108	39.8
	3	7/34	20.6	17/74	23.0	24/108	22.2
	2	3/34	8.8	1/74	1.3	4/108	3.7
	1	1/34	2.9	-	-	1/108	0.9
4.	A	12/32	37.5	26/85	30.6	38/117	32.5
	B	3/32	9.4	1/85	1.2	4/117	3.4
	C	14/32	43.8	50/85	58.8	64/117	54.7
	D	2/32	6.2	8/85	9.4	10/117	8.5
	E	1/32	3.1	-	-	1/117	0.9
5.	5	5/31	16.1	20/73	27.4	25/104	24.0
	4	9/31	29.0	32/73	43.8	41/104	39.4
	3	12/31	38.7	20/73	27.4	32/104	30.8
	2	2/31	6.5	1/73	1.4	3/104	2.9
	1	3/31	9.7	-	-	3/104	2.9

TABLE II (continued)

Question		County Officials Responses	County Officials Rate %	Town & City Officials Responses	Town & City Officials Rate %	Total Responses	Total Rate %
6.	Yes	13/31	41.9	35/72	48.6	48/103	46.6
	No	18/31	58.1	37/72	51.4	55/103	53.4
7.	5	4/31	12.9	16/69	23.2	20/100	20.0
	4	14/31	45.2	27/69	39.1	41/100	41.0
	3	5/31	16.1	19/69	27.5	24/100	24.0
	2	6/31	19.4	6/69	8.7	12/100	12.0
	1	2/31	6.4	1/69	1.5	3/100	3.0
8.	Yes	22/29	75.9	56/70	80.0	78/99	78.8
	No	7/29	24.1	14/70	20.0	21/99	21.2
9.	A	11/40	27.5	20/104	19.2	31/144	21.5
	B	16/40*	40.0	46/104*	44.2	62/144*	43.1
	C	13/40*	32.5	38/104*	36.6	51/144*	35.4
	D	*	-	*	-	*	-
	E	-	-	-	-	-	-
10.	5	16/29	55.2	31/72	43.1	47/101	46.5
	4	7/29	24.1	28/72	38.9	35/101	34.7
	3	4/29	13.8	9/72	12.5	13/101	12.9
	2	1/29	3.4	4/72	5.5	5/101	4.9
	1	1/29	3.4	-	-	1/101	1.0
11.	Yes	21/29	72.4	48/72	66.7	69/101	68.3
	No	8/29	27.6	24/72	33.3	32/101	31.7
12.	Yes	19/32	59.4	65/75	86.7	84/107	78.5
	No	13/32	40.6	10/75	13.3	23/107	21.5

TABLE II (continued)

Question		County Officials Responses	County Officials Rate %	Town & City Officials Responses	Town & City Officials Rate %	Total Responses	Total Rate %
13.	5	3/24	12.5	14/36	38.9	17/60	28.3
	4	5/24	20.8	10/36	27.7	15/60	25.0
	3	6/24	25.0	6/36	16.7	12/60	20.0
	2	7/24	29.2	6/36	16.7	13/60	21.7
	1	3/24	12.5	-	-	3/60	5.0

*Responses to D included in tabulation of responses of B and C.

Percentages may not equal 100.0 due to rounding.

QUESTIONNARIE

Planning Commission Members

Planning Commission

_____ 1. How long have you served on the local planning commission?

_____ 2. What do you feel was the main reason the governing body established the planning commission? A. To meet state law requirement to establish a planning commission by July 1, 1975 B. To advise the governing body on land use and development related issues C. To develop land use controls for the governing body D. Both B and C E. Other _____

Comprehensive Plan

_____ 3. What do you feel was the main reason the governing body adopted the plan? A. To meet state law requirement to adopt a plan by 1980 B. To allow for adoption of use value taxation for farmland C. To plan for future growth and development D. To make local government more efficient E. Other _____

_____

_____ 4. How do you rate the technical assistance that was provided in developing your plan? 5. Excellent, very informative 4. Good, generally informative 3. Fair, somewhat informative 2. Poor, not very informative 1. Terrible, not informative at all

_____ 5. How do you rate the importance of the development and adoption of the comprehensive plan? 5. Essential 4. Very worthwhile 3. Somewhat worthwhile 2. Nor very worthwhile 1. Worthless

_____ 6. If the General Assembly had not required the adoption of a comprehensive plan, do you feel that the governing body would have adopted one anyway? (yes or no)

_____ 7. Do you feel that the governing body uses the plan in making policy decisions 5. Always 4. Frequently 3. Occasionally 2. Seldom 1. Never

Subdivision Ordinance

_____ 8. What do you feel was the main reason the governing body adopted the subdivision ordinance? A. To meet state law requirement to adopt a subdivision ordinance by July 1, 1977 B. To improve the quality of residential development C. To control growth and development D. Both B and C E. Other _____

_____ 9. How do you rate the technical assistance that was provided in developing your subdivision ordinance? 5. Excellent, very informative 4. Good, generally informative 3. Fair, somewhat informative 2. Poor, not very informative 1. Terrible, not informative at all

_____ 10. How do you rate the importance of the development and adoption of the subdivision ordinance? 5. Essential 4. Very worthwhile 3. Somewhat worthwhile 2. Not very worthwhile 1. Worthless

_____ 11. If the General Assembly had not required the adoption of a subdivison ordinance, do you feel that the governing body would have adopted one anyway? (yes or no)

_____ 12. Do you feel that administration of the subdivision ordinance is A. Satisfactory, needs little or no improvement B. Adequate, but needs some improvement C. Poor, needs significant improvement

_____ If B or C, would improvement consist of A. additional staff B. more objective commission members C. more rigid regulations D. less rigid regulations E. other _____

Zoning Ordinance

_____ 13. Do you feel that zoning regulations are needed in your jurisdiction? (yes or no)

_____ 14. If your governing body has not adopted a zoning ordinance, how do you rate that the liklihood that one will be adopted in the next five years? 5. Excellent 4. Good 3. Doubtful 2. Little chance 1. No chance

_____ 15. If you have an adopted zoning ordinance, do you feel that administration of the zoning ordinance is A. Satisfactory, needs little or no improvement B. Adequate, but needs some improvement C. Poor, needs significant improvement

_____ If B or C, would improvement consist of A. additional staff B. more objective commission members C. more rigid regulations D. less rigid regulations E. other _____

Other

_____ 16. How do you rate the importance of the fact that the neighboring state of _____ does not require the adoption of local comprehensive plans and subdivision rodinance, in affecting efforts in your jurisdiction to adopt these documents 5. Extensively 4. Significantly 3. Somewhat 2. Very little 1. Not at all

Additional Comments:

TABLE III

TABULATION OF RESPONSES -
PLANNING COMMISSION MEMBERS*

Question		County Officials Responses	County Officials Rate %	Town & City Officials Responses	Town & City Officials Rate %	Total Responses	Total Rate %
1.		4.8 yrs. (average)		6.9 yrs. (average)		6.0 yrs. (average)	
2.	A	24/72	33.3	26/103	25.2	50/175	28.6
	B	27/72**	37.5	41/103**	39.8	68/175**	38.9
	C	21/72**	29.2	33/103**	32.0	54/175**	30.8
	D	**	-	**	-	**	-
	E	-	-	3/103	2.9	3/175	1.7
3.	A	31/56	53.6	29/77	37.7	59/133	44.4
	B	5/56	8.9	1/77	1.3	6/133	4.5
	C	17/56	30.4	42/77	54.5	59/133	44.4
	D	4/36	7.1	5/77	6.5	9/133	6.7
	E	-	-	-	-	-	-
4.	5	17/46	37.0	22/63	34.9	39/109	35.8
	4	23/46	50.0	36/63	57.2	59/109	54.1
	3	5/46	10.8	5/63	7.9	10/109	9.2
	2	-	-	-	-	-	-
	1	1/46	2.2	-	-	1/109	0.9
5.	5	16/47	34.1	23/66	34.9	39/113	34.5
	4	18/47	38.3	28/66	42.4	46/113	40.7
	3	11/47	23.4	14/66	21.2	25/113	22.1
	2	1/47	2.1	1/66	1.5	2/113	1.8
	1	1/47	2.1	-	-	1/113	0.9

TABLE III (continued)

Question		County Officials Responses	County Officials Rate %	Town & City Officials Responses	Town & City Officials Rate %	Total Responses	Total Rate %
6.	Yes	10/49	20.4	28/64	43.8	38/113	33.6
	No	39/49	79.6	36/64	56.2	75/113	66.4
7.	5	2/46	4.4	14/62	22.6	16/108	14.8
	4	18/46	39.1	21/62	33.9	39/108	36.1
	3	18/46	39.1	18/62	29.0	36/108	33.3
	2	6/46	13.0	8/62	12.9	14/108	13.0
	1	2/46	4.4	1/62	1.6	3/108	2.8
8.	A	24/65	36.9	21/92	22.8	45/157	28.7
	B	23/65**	35.4	36/92**	39.1	59/157**	37.6
	C	18/65**	27.7	34/92**	37.0	52/157**	33.1
	D	**	-	**	-	**	-
	E	-	-	1/92	1.1	1/157	0.6
9.	5	14/45	31.1	27/62	43.5	41/107	38.3
	4	23/45	51.1	32/62	51.6	55/107	51.4
	3	7/45	15.6	3/62	4.8	10/107	9.4
	2	1/45	2.2	-	-	1/107	0.9
	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
10.	5	25/49	51.0	30/65	46.2	55/114	48.2
	4	14/49	28.6	29/65	44.6	43/114	37.7
	3	10/49	20.4	4/65	6.2	14/114	12.3
	2	-	-	2/65	3.0	2/114	1.8
	1	-	-	-	-	-	-

TABLE III (continued)

Question		County Officials Responses	County Officials Rate %	Town & City Officials Responses	Town & City Officials Rate %	Total Responses	Total Rate %
11.	Yes	24/47	51.1	42/64	65.6	66/111	59.5
	No	23/47	48.9	22/64	34.4	45/111	40.5
12.	A	12/48	25.0	27/63	42.9	39/111	35.1
	B	32/48	66.7	29/63	46.0	61/111	55.0
	C	4/48	8.3	7/63	11.1	11/111	9.9
	A	5/34	14.7	4/40	10.0	9/74	12.2
	B	3/34	8.8	11/40	27.5	14/74	18.9
	C	12/34	35.3	14/40	35.0	26/74	35.1
	D	8/34	23.5	4/40	10.0	12/74	16.2
	E	6/34	17.7	7/40	17.5	13/74	17.6
13.	Yes	36/47	76.6	61/65	93.8	97/112	86.6
	No	11/47	23.4	4/65	6.2	15/112	13.4
14.	5	4/39	10.3	10/19	52.6	14/58	24.1
	4	11/39	28.2	8/19	42.1	19/58	32.8
	3	15/39	38.5	-	-	15/58	25.8
	2	7/39	17.9	-	-	7/58	12.1
	1	2/39	5.1	1/19	5.3	3/58	5.2
15.	A	2/13	15.4	25/51	49.0	27/64	42.2
	B	10/13	76.9	19/51	37.3	29/64	45.3
	C	1/13	7.7	7/51	13.7	8/64	12.5
	A	-	-	5/25	20.0	5/35	14.3
	B	2/10	20.0	5/25	20.0	7/35	20.0

TABLE III (continued)

Question		County Officials Responses	County Officials Rate %	Town & City Officials Responses	Town & City Officials Rate %	Total Responses	Total Rate %
	C	4/10	40.0	10/25	40.0	14/35	40.0
	D	3/10	30.0	2/25	8.0	5/35	14.3
	E	1/10	10.0	3/25	12.0	4/35	11.4
16.	5	-	-	1/51	2.0	1/99	1.1
	4	3/48	6.3	6/51	11.8	9/99	9.6
	3	15/48	31.3	3/51	5.9	18/99	16.0
	2	22/48	45.8	12/51	23.5	34/99	34.0
	1	8/48	16.7	29/51	56.9	37/99	39.3

*Responses of Planning Commission Chairmen included in this tabulation.

**Responses to D included in tabulation of responses B and C.

Percentages may not equal 100.0 due to rounding.

QUESTIONNAIRE

Planning Commission Chairmen

Planning Commission

_____ 1. How long have you served on the local planning commission?

_____ 2. What do you feel was the main reason the governing body established the planning commission? A. To meet state law requirement to establish a planning commission by July 1, 1975 B. To advise the governing body on land use and development related issues C. To develop land use controls for the governing body D. Both B and C E. Other _____

_____ 3. How often does your planning commission meet? A. Twice a month B. Monthly C. Every two months D. Quarterly E. Other _____

_____ 4. How often does your planning commission fail to reach a quorum? A. Seldom ever B. About one-third of the time C. About one-half of the time D. About two-thirds of the time E. Most of the time

_____ 5. Do you feel that there is a problem finding persons interested in serving on the planning commission? (yes or no)

Comprehensive Plan

_____ 6. What do you feel was the main reason the governing body adopted the plan? A. To meet state law requirement to adopt a plan by 1980 B. To allow for adoption of use value taxation for farmland C. To plan for future growth and development D. To make local government more efficient E. Other _____

_____ 7. Who provided the technical assistance in developing your plan? A. Private consultant B. Local planner (employee of your jurisdiction) C. Planning district commission staff D. Other _____

_____ 8. How do you rate the technical assistance that was provided? 5. Excellent, very informative 4. Good, generally informative 3. Fair, somewhat informative 2. Poor, not very informative 1. Terrible, not informative at all

_____ 9. How do you rate the importance of the development and adoption of the comprehensive plan? 5. Essential 4. Very worthwhile 3. Somewhat worthwhile 2. Not very worthwhile 1. Worthless

_____ 10. If the General Assembly had not required the adoption of a comprehensive plan, do you feel that the governing body would have adopted one anyway? (yes or no)

_____ 11. Do you feel that the governing body uses the plan in making policy decisions 5. Always 4. Frequently 3. Occasionally 2. Seldom 1. Never

_____ 12. How many public hearings were held prior to adoption of the comprehensive plan?

_____ 13. How many public meetings and/or public workshops (not public hearings or regular planning commission meetings) were held prior to adoption of the comprehensive plan?

Subdivision Ordinance

_____ 14. What do you feel was the main reason the governing body adopted the subdivision ordinance? A. To meet state law requirement to adopt a subdivision ordinance by July 1, 1977 B. To improve the quality of residential development C. To control growth and development D. Both B and C E. Other _____

_____ 15. Who provided the technical assistance in developing your subdivision ordinance? A. Private consultant B. Local planner (employee of your jurisdiction) C. Planning district commission staff D. Other _____

_____ 16. How do you rate the technical assistance that was provided? 5. Excellent, very informative 4. Good, generally informative 3. Fair, somewhat informative 2. Poor, not very informative 1. Terrible, not informative at all

_____ 17. How do you rate the importance of the development and adoption of the subdivision ordinance? 5. Essential 4. Very worthwhile 3. Somewhat worthwhile 2. Not very worthwhile 1. Worthless

_____ 18. If the General Assembly had not required the adoption of a subdivison ordinance, do you feel that the governing body would have adopted one anyway? (yes or no)

_____ 19. Do you feel that administration of the subdivision ordinance is A. Satisfactory, needs little or no improvement B. Adequate, but needs some improvement C. Poor, needs significant improvement

_____ If B or C, would improvement consist of A. additional staff B. more objective commission members C. more rigid regulations D. less rigid regulations E. other _____

Zoning Ordinance

_____ 20. Do you feel that zoning regulations are needed in your jurisdiction? (yes or no)

_____ 21. If your governing body has not adopted a zoning ordinance, how do you rate the liklihood that one will be adopted in the next five years 5. Excellent 4. Good 3. Doubtful 2. Little chance 1. No chance

_____ 22. If you have an adopted zoning ordinance, do you feel that administration of the zoning ordinance is A. Satisfactory, needs little or no improvement B. Adequate, but needs some improvement C. Poor, needs significant improvement

_____ If B or C, would improvement consist of A. additional staff B. more objective commission members C. more rigid regulations D. less rigid regulations E. other _____

Other

_____ 23. How do you rate the importance of the fact that the neighboring state of _____ does not require the adoption of local comprehensive plans and subdivision ordinances, in affecting efforts in your jurisdiction to adopt these documents 5. Extensively 4. Significantly 3. Somewhat 2. Very little 1. Not at all

Additional Comments:

TABLE IV

TABULATION OF RESPONSES -
PLANNING COMMISSION CHAIRMEN*

Question		County Officials Responses	County Officials Rate %	Town & City Officials Responses	Town & City Officials Rate %	Total Responses	Total Rate %
1.		8.0 yrs. (average)		11.7 yrs. (average)		10.4 yrs. (average)	
2.	A	1/8	12.5	5/15	33.3	6/23	26.1
	B	3/8	37.5	5/15	33.3	8/23	34.8
	C	1/8	12.5	4/15	26.7	5/23	21.7
	D	3/8	37.5	1/15	6.7	4/23	17.4
	E	-	-	-	-	-	-
3.	A	-	-	-	-	-	
	B	6/6	100.0	7/11	63.6	13/17	76.5
	C	-	-	1/11	9.1	1/17	5.9
	D	-	-	-	-	-	-
	E	-	-	3/11	27.3	3/17	17.6
4.	A	4/6	66.7	8/11	72.7	12/17	70.6
	B	1/6	16.7	1/11	9.1	2/17	11.8
	C	-	-	1/11	9.1	1/17	5.9
	D	-	-	-	-	-	-
	E	1/6	16.7	1/11	9.1	2/17	11.8
5.	Yes	4/6	66.7	2/11	18.2	6/17	35.9
	No	2/6	33.3	9/11	81.2	11/17	64.7
6.	A	1/6	16.7	6/13	46.2	7/19	36.8
	B	1/6	16.7	1/13	7.7	2/19	10.5
	C	3/6	50.0	6/13	46.2	9/19	47.4
	D	1/6	16.7	-	-	1/19	5.3
	E	-	-	-	-	-	

TABLE IV (continued)

Question		County Officials Responses	County Officials Rate %	Town & City Officials Responses	Town & City Officials Rate %	Total Responses	Total Rate %
7.	A	2/7	28.6	2/12	16.7	4/19	21.0
	B	1/7	14.3	1/12	8.3	2/19	10.5
	C	4/7	57.1	8/12	66.7	12/19	63.2
	D	-	-	1/12	8.3	1/19	5.3
8.	5	3/6	50.0	4/11	36.4	7/17	41.2
	4	3/6	50.0	7/11	63.6	10/17	58.8
	3	-	-	-		-	-
	2	-	-	-		-	-
	1	-	-	-		-	-
9.	5	2/6	33.3	3/11	27.3	5/17	29.4
	4	3/6	50.0	4/11	36.4	7/17	41.2
	3	1/6	16.7	3/11	27.3	4/17	23.5
	2	-	-	1/11	9.1	1/17	5.9
	1	-	-	-		-	-
10.	Yes	5/6	83.3	4/10	40.0	9/16	56.3
	No	1/6	16.7	6/10	60.0	7/16	43.7
11.	5	-	-	-			
	4	4/6	66.7	5/11	45.5	9/17	52.9
	3	2/6	33.3	4/11	36.4	6/17	35.3
	2	-	-	1/11	9.1	1/11	5.9
	1	-	-	1/11	9.1	1/11	5.9
12.	a	-	-	b	-	-	-
13.	c	-	-	d	-	-	-

TABLE IV (continued)

Question		County Officials Responses	County Officials Rate %	Town & City Officials Responses	Town & City Officials Rate %	Total Responses	Total Rate %
14.	A	4/7	57.1	4/15	26.7	8/22	36.4
	B	3/7	42.9	4/15	26.7	7/22	31.8
	C	-	-	6/15	40.0	6/22	27.3
	D	-	-	1/15	6.6	1/22	4.5
	E	-	-	-	-	-	
15.	A	-	-	2/11	18.2	2/17	11.8
	B	-	-	2/11	18.2	2/17	11.8
	C	6/6	100.0	6/11		12/17	70.6
	D	-	-	1/11		1/17	5.9
16.	5	3/6	50.0	6/11	54.5	9/17	52.9
	4	3/6	50.0	4/11	36.4	7/17	41.2
	3	-	-	1/11	9.1	1/17	5.9
	2	-	-	-	-	-	
	1	-	-	-	-	-	
17.	5	4/6	66.7	5/11	45.4	9/17	52.9
	4	2/6	33.3	4/11	36.4	6/17	35.3
	3	-	-	2/11	18.2	2/17	11.8
	2	-	-	-		-	
	1	-	-	-		-	
18.	Yes	3/5	60.0	7/10	70.0	10/15	66.7
	No	2/5	40.0	3/10	30.0	5/15	33.3
19.	A	2/6	33.3	6/11	54.4	8/17	47.1
	B	4/6	66.7	3/11	27.3	7/17	41.2
	C	-	-	2/11	18.2	2/17	11.7

TABLE IV (continued)

Question		County Officials Responses	County Officials Rate %	Town & City Officials Responses	Town & City Officials Rate %	Total Responses	Total Rate %
	A	1/4	25.0	1/6	16.7	2/10	20.0
	B	1/4	25.0	1/6	16.7	2/10	20.0
	C	1/4	25.0	2/6	33.3	3/10	30.0
	D	-	-	-		-	-
	E	1/4	25.0	2/6	33.3	3/10	30.0
20.	Yes	3/6	50.0	9/10	90.0	12/16	75.0
	No	3/6	50.0	1/10	10.0	4/16	25.0
21.	5	-	-	-	-	-	-
	4	4/6	66.7	2/2	100.0	6/8	75.0
	3	-	-	-	-	-	-
	2	2/6	33.3	-	-	2/8	25.0
	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
22.	A	-	-	6/9	66.7	6/10	60.0
	B	1/1	100.0	2/9	22.2	3/10	30.0
	C	-	-	1/9	11.1	1/10	10.0
	A	2/3	66.7	2/3	66.7	4/6	66.7
	B	-	-	-	-	-	-
	C	1/3	33.3	1/3	33.3	2/6	33.3
	D	-	-	-	-	-	-
	E	-	-	-	-	-	-
23.	5	-	-	-	-	-	-
	4	-	-	-	-	-	-
	3	2/5	40.0	1/11	9.1	3/16	18.8

TABLE IV (continued)

Question	County Officials Responses	County Officials Rate %	Town & City Officials Responses	Town & City Officials Rate %	Total Responses	Total Rate %
2	2/5	40.0	3/11	27.3	5/16	31.2
1	1/5	20.0	7/11	63.6	8/16	50.0

*Responses of Planning Commission chairmen also included in tabulation for Planning Commission members.

[a] 2(2), 3, 0

[b] 2(7), 3, 6

[c] 2(2), 3, 0

[d] 2(3), 4, 5, 6, 0

QUESTIONNAIRE

Town Managers, City Managers, and County Administrators

_____ 1. How long have you worked for the present jurisdiction?

Planning Commission

_____ 2. When was the planning commission in your jurisdiction established?

_____ 3. Has the planning commission been continuously active since it was created? (yes or no)

_____ 4. What do you feel was the main reason the governing body established the planning commission? A. To meet state law requirement to establish a planning commission by July 1, 1975 B. To advise the governing body on land use and development related issues C. To develop land use controls for the governing body D. Both B and C E. Other _____

_____ 5. Are planning commission members reimbursed for mileage to and from meetings? (yes or no)

_____ 6. Are planning commission members paid to attend meetings? (yes or no) If yes, how much? _____

_____ 7. Do you feel that there is a problem finding persons interested in serving on the planning commission? (yes or no)

_____ 8. If the General Assembly had not required establishment of a planning commission, do you feel the governing body would have established one anyway? (yes or no)

Comprehensive Plan

_____ 9. What year was your comprehensive plan adopted?

_____ 10. If the plan was adopted prior to 1975, has it ever been updated? A. yes B. no C. presently being updated. If yes, year (or years) in which it was updated.

_____ 11. What do you feel was the main reason the governing body adopted the plan? A. To meet the state law requirement to adopt a plan by 1980 B. To allow for adoption of use value taxation for farmland C. To plan for future growth and development D. To make local government more efficient E. Other _____

_____ 12. In carrying out your duties as chief administrative officer, do you refer to the comprehensive plan 5. Always 4. frequently 3. occassionally 2. seldom 1. never

_____ 13. How do you rate the importance of the development and adoption of the comprehensive plan? 5. Essential 4. Very worthwhile 3. Somewhat worthwhile 2. Not very worthwhile 1. Worthless

_____ 14. If the General Assembly had not required the adoption of a comprehensive plan, do you feel that the governing body would have adopted one anyway? (yes or no)

Subdivision Ordinance

_____ 15. What year was your subdivision ordinance adopted?

_____ 16. What do you feel was the main reason the governing body adopted the subdivsion ordinance? A. To meet state law requirement to adopt a subdivision ordinance by July 1, 1977 B. To improve the quality of residential development C. To control growth and development D. Both B and C E. Other _____

_____ 17. If the General Assembly had not required the adoption of a subdivision ordinance, do you feel that the governing body would have adopted one anyway? (yes or no)

_____ 18. Who is responsible for seeing that subdivision development complies with the technical requirements of the subdivision ordinance? A. local planner (not a PDC staff member) B. planning commission C. planning district commission staff D. yourself E. county building inspector F. other _____

_____ 19. Do you feel that administration of the subdivision ordinance is A. Satisfactory, needs little or no improvement B. Adequate, but needs some improvement C. Poor, needs significant improvement

_____ If B or C, would improvement consist of A. Additional staff B. More objective commission members C. More rigid regulations D. Less rigid regulations E. Other _____

_____ 20. If your jurisdiction does not have a subdivision ordinance, is it in the process of adopting one? (yes or no)

Zoning Ordinance

_____ 24. Does your jurisdiction have an adopted zoning ordinance?

_____ If yes, in what year was it adopted?

_____ If no, is it in the process of drafting one?

_____ 22. Who administers your zoning ordinance? A. local planner (not a PDC staff member) B. planning commission C. planning district commission staff D. yourself E. county building inspector F. other _____

_____ 23. Do you feel that administration of the zoning ordinance is A. Satisfactory, needs little or no improvement B. Adequate, but needs some improvement C. Poor, needs significant improvement

_____ If B or C, would improvement consist of A. Additional staff B. More objective commission members C. More rigid regulations D. Less rigid regulations E. Other _____

Capital Improvements Plan

_____ 24. Does your jurisdiction have an adopted capital improvements plan? (yes or no)

_____ If no, is it in the process of drafting one?

_____ If yes, do you feel that it has been helpful?

Other Land Use Ordinances

_____ 25. List other land use ordinances that your governing body has adopted. A. Official Map B. Tax Incentive Programs (other than use value taxation) C. Use Value Taxation D. Transfer of Development Rights E. Other _____

Additional Comments:

TABLE V

TABULATION OF RESPONSES -
TOWN MANAGERS, CITY MANAGERS, AND COUNTY ADMINISTRATORS

Question		County Officials Responses	County Officials Rate %	Town & City Officials Responses	Town & City Officials Rate %	Total Responses	Total Rate %
1.		6.9 yrs. (average)		10.5 yrs. (average)		8.5 yrs. (average)	
2.		a		b			
3.	Yes	7/10	70.0	8/9	88.9	15/19	78.9
	No	3/10	30.0	1/9	11.1	4/19	21.1
4.	A	2/15	13.3	2/13	15.4	4/28	14.3
	B	8/15*	53.3	5/13*	38.5	13/28*	46.4
	C	5/15*	3.3	6/13*	46.1	11/28*	39.3
	D	*	-	*	-	*	-
	E	-	-	-	-	-	-
5.	Yes	5/10	50.0	1/9	11.1	6/19	31.6
	No	5/10	50.0	8/9	88.9	13/19	68.4
6.	Yes	8/10	80.0	2/10	20.0	10/20	50.0
	No	2/10	20.0	8/10	80.0	10/20	50.0
		c					
7.	Yes	5/10	50.0	5/7	71.4	10/17	58.8
	No	5/10	50.0	2/7	28.6	7/17	41.2
8.	Yes	8/10	80.0	6/9	66.7	14/19	73.7
	No	2/10	20.0	3/9	33.3	5/19	26.3
9.		d		e			
10.	A	-	-	2/5	40.0	2/7	28.6
	B	2/2	100.0	1/5	20.0	3/7	42.8

TABLE V (continued)

Question		County Officials Responses	County Officials Rate %	Town & City Officials Responses	Town & City Officials Rate %	Total Responses	Total Rate %
	C	-	-	2/5	40.0	2/7	28.6
11.	A	8/11	72.7	5/9	55.6	13/20	65.0
	B	2/11	18.2	-	-	2/20	10.0
	C	1/11	9.1	4/9	44.4	5/20	25.0
	D	-	-	-	-	-	-
	E	-	-	-	-	-	-
12.	5	-	-	-	-	-	-
	4	3/10	30.0	1/8	12.5	4/18	22.2
	3	2/10	20.0	6/8	75.0	8/18	44.4
	2	5/10	50.0	1/8	12.5	6/18	33.3
	1	-					
13.	5	1/10	10.0	1/8	12.5	2/18	11.1
	4	2/10	20.0	3/8	37.5	5/18	27.8
	3	5/10	50.0	4/8	50.0	9/18	50.0
	2	2/10	20.0	-	-	2/18	11.1
	1	-	-	-	-	-	-
14.	Yes	2/10	20.0	6/9	66.7	8/19	42.1
	No	8/10	80.0	3/9	33.3	11/19	57.9
15.		f		g			
16.	A	4/14	28.6	3/11	27.3	7/25	28.0
	B	5/14*	35.7	4/11*	36.4	9/25*	36.0
	C	5/14*	35.7	4/11*	36.4	9/25*	36.0
	D	*	-	*	-	*	-
	E	-	-	-	-	-	-

TABLE V (continued)

Question		County Officials Responses	County Officials Rate %	Town & City Officials Responses	Town & City Officials Rate %	Total Responses	Total Rate %
17.	Yes	5/9	55.6	7/9	77.8	12/18	66.7
	No	4/9	44.4	2/9	22.2	6/18	33.3
18.	A	-	-	-	-	-	-
	B	5/12	41.7	1/9	11.1	6/21	28.6
	C	1/12	8.3	-		1/21	4.8
	D	2/12	16.7	5/9	55.6	7/21	33.3
	E	4/12	33.3	2/9	22.2	6/21	28.6
	F	-		1/9	11.1	1/21	4.8
19.	A	3/9	33.3	5/9	55.6	8/18	44.4
	B	6/9	66.7	3/9	33.3	9/18	50.0
	C	-		1/9	11.1	1/18	5.6
	A	2/9	22.2	1/3	33.3	3/12	25.0
	B	1/9	11.1	-	-	1/12	8.3
	C	3/9	33.3	-	-	3/12	25.0
	D	2/9	22.2	1/3	33.3	3/12	25.0
	E	1/9	11.1	1/3	33.3	2/12	16.7
20.	Yes	-	-	1/1	100.0	1/1	100.0
	No	-	-	-	-	-	-
21.	Yes	1/9	11.1	7/8	87.5	8/17	47.1
	No	8/9	88.9	1/8	12.5	9/17	52.9
	Year	1980		h			
	Yes	2/7	28.6	-	-	2/8	25.0
	No	5/7	71.4	1/1	100.0	6/8	75.0

TABLE V (continued)

Question		County Officials Responses	County Officials Rate %	Town & City Officials Responses	Town & City Officials Rate %	Total Responses	Total Rate %
22.	A	-	-	-	-	-	-
	B	-	-	-	-	-	-
	C	1/1	100.0	-	-	1/7	14.3
	D	-	-	3/6	50.0	3/7	42.9
	E	-	-	-	-	-	-
	F	-	-	3/6	50.0	3/7	42.9
23.	A	-	-	6/7	85.7	6/8	75.0
	B	-	-	1/7	14.3	1/8	12.5
	C	1/1	100.0	-	-	1/8	12.5
	A	-	-	-	-	-	-
	B	-	-	1/2	50.0	1/3	33.3
	C	1/1	100.0	1/2	50.0	2/3	66.7
	D	-	-	-	-	-	-
	E	-	-	-	-	-	-
24.	Yes	2/10	20.0	4/7	57.1	6/17	35.3
	No	8/10	80.0	3/7	42.9	11/17	64.7
	Yes	-	-	-	-	-	-
	No	8/8	100.0	3/3	100.0	11/11	100.0
	Yes	2/3	66.7	4/4	100.0	6/7	85.7
	No	1/3	33.3	-	-	1/7	14.3
25.	A	-	-	-	-	-	-
	B	-	-	-	-	-	-
	C	3/3	100.0	-	-	3/3	100.0
	D	-	-	-	-	-	-
	E	-	-	-	-	-	-

[a]1957(2), 1962, 1966, 1967, 1968, 1970, 1976

TABLE V (continued)

[b] 1949, 1954, 1960, 1964, 1970, 1975(3), 1977

[c] 25, 10, 12, 20, 25, 15

[d] 1975(2), 1979, 1980, 1978(2), 1981, 1976, 1977

[e] 1974, 1975(2), 1972, 1980, 1971, 1981(3)

[f] 1967, 1969, 1971, 1972, 1977(2), 1978

[g] 1949, 1954, 1958, 1975, 1976, 1978, 1979

[h] 1949, 1950, 1974, 1978(2)

VITA

James Giles Wallace was born in Glade Spring, Virginia on April 13, 1953. He attended elementary and secondary schools in Washington County, Virginia and graduated from Patrick Henry High School in June 1971. The following September he enrolled in Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. After two quarters he transferred to Emory and Henry College where he graduated cum laude in August 1975 with a Bachelor of Arts degree in Business and Economics.

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