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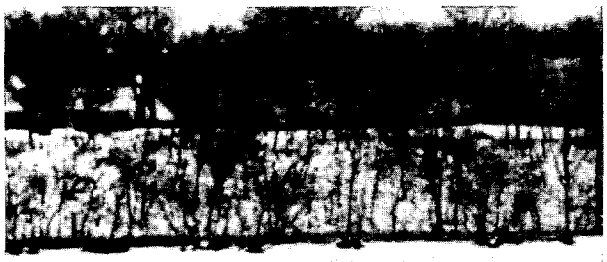

NATIONAL LEAGUE OF CITIES
Department of Urban Studies

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RECREATION IN THE NATION'S CITIES
PROBLEMS AND APPROACHES

NATIONAL LEAGUE OF CITIES
Department of Urban Studies

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DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR
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PREFACE

This report deals with three aspects of municipal recreation. First, it identifies municipal recreation problems and needs and discusses the reasons for increased recreation needs. Second, it examines various solutions to the recreation problems existing in cities, with particular emphasis being given to intergovernmental approaches, to full utilization of resources, and to new and imaginative approaches. Third, the report outlines the various planning methods used in city recreation departments. Particular attention is given to the emerging role of citizens in the formation and review of park and recreation development plans.

The information on which this report is based was obtained from a study of 15 cities – New York, New York; Chicago, Illinois; Los Angeles, California; Baltimore, Maryland; St. Louis, Missouri; Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania; San Antonio, Texas; Atlanta, Georgia; Minneapolis, Minnesota; Oakland, California; Tampa, Florida; Dayton, Ohio; Nashville, Tennessee; Peoria, Illinois; and Portland, Maine. Selection of the cities was made jointly by the National League of Cities and the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation on the basis of geographical location and population size, as well as on a preliminary examination of their recreation programs. It is believed that the information obtained from these 15 cities presents an accurate picture of the various elements and factors to be considered in the formulation of core city recreation programs. Further, it is believed that the common elements found in the various cities, both with respect to problems and solutions, will have general applicability to cities throughout the United States.

Basic information relative to city recreation problems and activities – including statistical data relative to finances and staffing – was obtained from appropriate recreation department personnel. Such basic data was supplemented by information received from mayors and other municipal and county administrators, including planning, finance, and personnel officials. Finally, unstructured interviews were conducted with community leaders, directors of civic associations, and representatives of semi-public agencies providing, or having an interest in, recreation.

The study was jointly financed by the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, Department of the Interior, and the National League of Cities. It was carried out by the League's research staff under guidelines developed cooperatively. The purpose of the study was to point up the role of recreation in the total urban system, identify outdoor recreation needs of the nation's cities, stimulate local officials and concerned citizens to expand programs and seek new solutions to recreation needs, and provide data useful in statewide and nationwide outdoor recreation planning.

The National League of Cities is deeply appreciative of the support provided by the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, Department of the Interior, and for the valuable assistance provided by those in the Bureau responsible for guiding this project. Our greatest debt is, of course, to the hundreds of local government officials and employees who generously contributed their time to provide us the basic information without which this study could not have been com-

pleted. Preparation of this report was the responsibility of Peter D. Veillette, Lawrence A. Williams, and Eddie M. Young of the Urban Studies staff. They were assisted in the accumulation of data by Raymond L. Bancroft, Managing Editor of *Nation's Cities,* and Michael A. Fischetti and Andrew B. Horgan, III, also of the research staff. It is our hope that the data and viewpoints synthesized in this report will serve as a guide to local, state, and Federal officials and to private citizens as they attempt to meet the recreation needs of the nation's cities.

Patrick Healy
Executive Director

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
Preface	iii
Table of Contents	v
Tables	vii
Summary of Major Findings and Conclusions	1
City Recreation Needs	3
Acreage Needs	3
Location	4
Factors Affecting Location	5
Acquisition Methods	6
Facility Maintenance	8
Staff	8
Financing	8
Local Government Functional Priorities	15
Recreation Priorities	15
Specialized Recreation Programs	17
Communication and Coordination	18
Factors Affecting Amount and Type of Recreation Provided	19
City Population Characteristics	19
Geographical Location	21
Changing Attitudes and Interests	22
The Impact of Crime and Social Unrest	22
Citizen Participation	23
Meeting Recreation Needs	25
Federal Assistance	25
State Assistance	29
City-School Cooperation	29
Assistance From Other Local Government Agencies and Units	30
Recreation Programs of Semi-Public, Religious, and Private Organizations	30
Unused, Underused, and Potential Recreation Resources	33

New and Imaginative Approaches to Recreation 35
Land Use and Development 35
Program Development 39
Communications and Public Relations Programs 43

Recreation and Park Planning 45
Reasons for Planning 45
Participation in Planning 46
Capital Improvement Plans 46
Operating Without a Master Plan 47
Approach to Planning 47

Conclusion 50

Appendixes 51

TABLES

Page

Table 1 – Comparison of 1968 Population, Area, and Park Acreage in 15 Selected Cities 4

Table 2 – Park Acreage Per 1,000 Residents in 15 Selected Cities 5

Table 3 – Park Acreage by Major Classification in 15 Selected Cities 9

Table 4 – Number and Types of Major Public Recreation Facilities in 15 Selected Cities 10

Table 5 – Full-Time and Part-Time Parks and Recreation Personnel in 15 Selected Cities 11

Table 6 – Comparison of 1963 City Operating and Park and Recreation Expenditures in 15 Selected Cities 12

Table 7 – Comparison of 1967 City Operating and Park and Recreation Expenditures in 15 Selected Cities 13

Table 8 – Per Capita Operating Expenditures for Parks and Recreation in 15 Selected Cities 14

Table 9 – Actual and Projected Population in 15 Selected Cities 20

Table 10 – Population of Preschool and School-Aged Residents in 15 Selected Cities for the Years 1950, 1960, 1965, 1970, and 1980 21

Table 11 – Major Federal Aid Programs Utilized for Parks and Recreation Purposes in 15 Selected Cities 26

Table 12 – Funds Actually Received by 15 Selected Cities for Parks and Recreation Under Major Federal Aid Programs 28

Table 13 – Park and Recreation Planning in 15 Selected Cities 48

Appendix A – Actual 1950 Population of Preschool and School-Aged Residents in 15 Selected Cities 52

Appendix B – Actual 1960 Population of Preschool and School-Aged Residents in 15 Selected Cities 53

Appendix C – Estimated 1965 Population of Preschool and School-Aged Residents in 15 Selected Cities 54

Appendix D – Projected 1970 Population of Preschool and School-Aged Residents in 15 Selected Cities 55

Appendix E – Projected 1980 Population of Preschool and School-Aged Residents in 15 Selected Cities 56

SUMMARY OF MAJOR FINDINGS AND CONCLUSIONS

1. Location of parks and recreation facilities is a primary factor affecting the success of recreation programs. Consideration must be given to population density and the availability of public transportation in the location of new facilities. The acquisition of large tracts in outlying areas will not meet the recreation needs of the great majority of city residents. Emphasis must be placed on neighborhood facilities. Rather than just providing acreage for football, baseball, and basketball, and swings and slides, programs meeting cultural, artistic, and creative needs must be provided as must facilities for sports that people can participate in all their lives.

2. City expenditures for park and recreation purposes have increased substantially in recent years. Although recreation has traditionally been given a relatively low priority in relation to other city services, city officials and recreation leaders indicate that recreation is beginning to be recognized as an essential local government function. However, in spite of a virtually unanimous commitment to increase recreation programs and opportunities, cities do not have the financial capability to sustain expanded recreation programs indefinitely.

3. Cities increasingly must look to state and Federal governments for the additional financial assistance necessary to sustain the desired level of recreation programs. Generally, state financial assistance to date has been negligible. Fortunately for cities, Federal aid has been more abundant. Major Federal programs from which city park and recreation programs are benefiting include Land and Water Conservation Fund, Neighborhood Facilities, Open-Space Land, Urban Beautification, and Community Action programs.

4. Optimum utilization of potential recreation resources is not being achieved in most of the nation's cities. The substantial acreage adjacent to, underneath, and above expressways and highway interchanges has been virtually undeveloped for recreation purposes. Publicly owned facilities with existing recreation capabilities are being underused. School facilities in particular, even in jurisdictions having city-school recreation agreements, are not being utilized effectively. To meet the rising demand for recreation, in spite of the declining availability of open space, cities must expand the multiple use of facilities, establish park-school complexes, and employ imaginative designs and new construction techniques.

5. Lack of communication among city, county, and private agencies is a major problem preventing the optimum utilization of existing recreational facilities and programs. As a consequence, coordination is inadequate between city and county recreation departments and between such departments and the various semi-public organizations

carrying on recreation activities. In addition, communication between recreation departments and the citizen is frequently inadequate. In the past, recreation officials have felt it sufficient merely to provide recreation opportunities. Today, citizens not only must be informed of the availability of the various programs, but also convinced that participation and utilization are worthwhile. However, communication alone is not enough. Recreation officials and recreation leaders must have the ability to relate departmental activities and programs to the needs of the community.

6. Cities must take into consideration the recreation needs of special segments of the population – the aged, the young, the handicapped, the economically and socially deprived – in developing priorities. In most cities surveyed, officials readily admitted that the needs of all population groups were not being adequately met. Only in recent years have cities begun to recognize an obligation to provide recreation for the handicapped and the deprived.

7. Residents of deprived urban neighborhoods are almost entirely dependent upon public recreation facilities, whereas residents of more affluent neighborhoods have a wide range of recreational alternatives. Adequate recreation programs and facilities thus are considered a high priority item among the deprived.

8. Residents of urban slum neighborhoods frequently charge that too much effort is directed toward park and recreation facilities for the middle and upper income groups, and that recreation planning is being performed by persons having no real knowledge of the needs or desires of the deprived. To overcome this charge, planners should encourage the participation of a wide spectrum of the community in the planning process. To be successful, recreation programs must be what the people want, not what the recreation department believes to be best for the people. Increased emphasis on citizen participation can be an essential component for the development of meaningful programs.

CITY RECREATION NEEDS

The recreation needs of the nation's cities are many and varied. Land, facilities, personnel, and financial resources are essential elements required to provide recreation and diversion for America's urban population. The increase in importance of city recreation has brought with it a host of organizational, administrative, and staffing problems. Striking a balance between citizens' demands on one hand, and the availability of funds on the other, has become the lot of the recreation director. Still another type of problem arises from an increased social awareness on the part of recreation officials, an awareness that recreation, like other governmental services, must be made available to all groups, including the economically disadvantaged, the physically and mentally handicapped, and the aged. However, of all city recreation problems, none is more basic, yet more difficult to determine, than the acreage needed for the construction of an adequate park and recreation system. Table 1 on the following page compares, for the 15 cities considered in this study, population, city area, population density, and park acreage. Examination of Table 1 points up the wide variation that can be found among cities of comparable population and geographical size.

Acreage Needs

Various efforts have been made for years to establish acreage standards that would be applicable to all cities. The best known standard provides that a city should have 10 acres of park and recreation land for each 1,000 inhabitants. The American Society of Planning Officials, although accepting 10 acres of parks for each 1,000 population for cities having less than 500,000 inhabitants, suggests 10 acres per 2,000 population for cities over 500,000, and 10 acres per 3,000 population for cities over 1,000,000. An alternative is to consider park acreage in relationship to the total area of the city. It has been suggested that 10 percent of the city area should be devoted to recreation and park purposes. The difficulty with such standards is that they do not take into account the recreational use to which the acreage will be put. Because the area required for different forms of recreation varies, type of activity is a major factor determining the amount of land that should be devoted to recreational use.

Park and recreation departments in practice have set out to establish realistic goals tailored to community needs rather than accept theoretical standards. Among the cities surveyed the ratio of park and recreation land to population ranged from a high of 46 acres per 1,000 in Peoria to a low of 2 acres per 1,000 in Chicago. Table 2 lists park acreage ratios for the 15 cities surveyed. Although some of these figures appear low compared to the standard of 10 acres per 1,000, other factors should be considered, including the existence of other publicly and privately operated facilities. For example, in Dayton, the Miami Valley Conservancy District has 885 acres of land available to city residents for recreational purposes, and 10 privately owned facilities provide a total of 1,233 acres for park and recreation purposes. Multiple use of facilities may also permit a reduction in park acreage standards. The primary value of park and recrea-

tion standards lies in their use for long term planning. Adherence to such standards will not guarantee an adequate recreation program, nor will it assure full utilization of facilities, but standards do provide a framework within which both private citizens and professional recreation personnel can plan for future development.

Location

Acreage alone is not enough. Equally important is the location of parks and recreation centers. Despite extensive acreage, the simple fact remains that in all major cities large numbers of inhabitants do not have access to public recreational facilities because the parks are not where the people are. Studies in several cities show the inequities in recreational opportunities. In San Antonio, the *Parks Master Plan,* the City's parks and recreation plan adopted by the City Council in 1964, points out that two large areas of the City containing 62,000 inhabitants are not served by any parks. In Dayton, the *Report on 1968 Summer Recreation,* by the Health and Welfare Council, concluded that many West Dayton citizens were not being served because of the lack of parks, playgrounds, and centers in

TABLE 1

COMPARISON OF 1968 POPULATION, AREA, AND PARK ACREAGE IN 15 SELECTED CITIES[1]

City	Estimated population	Area in square miles	Population density per square mile	Park acreage	Park acreage as percent of total area
New York	8,171,000	300	27,237	37,991	19.8
Chicago	3,587,000	222	16,158	6,888	4.8
Los Angeles	2,873,500	463	6,206	11,900	4.0
Baltimore	923,900	75	12,319	6,097	12.8
San Antonio	722,400	61	11,843	2,932	7.5
St. Louis	684,800	182	3,763	2,728	2.3
Pittsburgh	564,000	55	10,255	2,374	6.7
Atlanta	516,600	136	3,791	2,318	2.7
Minneapolis	493,100	53	9,304	5,314	15.7
Nashville[2]	457,500	527	868	4,905	1.5
Oakland	391,300	52	7,525	2,000	6.0
Tampa	324,900	85	3,822	1,123	2.1
Dayton	281,000	37	7,324	3,149	13.2
Peoria	137,900	37	3,940	6,647[3]	28.1
Portland	71,400	22	3,245	655	4.7

[1] Park data obtained from city recreation officials; area data determined by adding annexations since 1960 to area reported by U.S. Census Bureau; population figures computed by straight line extrapolation of population data obtained from city officials.

[2] Data is for Nashville-Davidson County consolidated government.

[3] Includes acreage owned by the Park District beyond the district boundaries.

their immediate neighborhoods. A 1965 report prepared for Baltimore, *Parks and Recreation Study, Objectives, Standards, Deficiencies,* concluded that the success of Baltimore's park and recreation program for the next 20 to 30 years will be dependent upon the location of recreation centers in those neighborhoods now lacking such facilities. Without the proper location, the best recreation programs will not succeed.

Factors Affecting Location

Three major factors – population density, availability of land, and availability of transportation – must be considered in the location of recreation facilities. Although many cities have park and recreation facilities reasonably well distributed geographically, existing population density and housing patterns vary. The Board of Education in Chicago reports that population density of elementary school children varies from 1,900 to 17,000 students per square mile. Recreation facilities, therefore, should be located on the basis of population rather than geography. However, recreation facility needs almost always are in conflict with availability of land. The need for such facilities is almost always greatest in the densely populated areas where cost per acre is high. If such costs are

TABLE 2

PARK ACREAGE PER 1,000 RESIDENTS IN 15 SELECTED CITIES[1]

City	Estimated population 1968	Park acreage per 1,000 residents		
		Actual 1960	Estimated 1968	Estimated 1973
New York	8,171,000	4.5	4.6	4.8
Chicago	3,587,000	1.9	2.0	2.0
Los Angeles	2,873,500	4.8	4.5	4.2
Baltimore	923,900	6.0	6.2	6.3
San Antonio	722,400	5.0	5.8	6.0
St. Louis	684,800	3.6	4.2	4.5
Pittsburgh	564,000	3.6	4.1	NA[2]
Atlanta	516,600	NA[2]	4.9	NA[2]
Minneapolis	493,100	11.5	11.4	NA[2]
Nashville	457,500	20.5	11.5	12.0
Oakland	391,300	5.7	6.2	6.3
Tampa	324,900	NA[2]	3.7	NA[2]
Dayton	281,000	9.5	10.5	12.7
Peoria	137,900	17.0	46.0	50.0
Portland	71,400	8.2	9.8	18.0

[1] Park acreage data obtained from city recreation personnel.

[2] Not available.

Intensive land usage, high population density, and a deficiency of open spaces persist in sections of every major American city. Here, a side street in New York's Harlem is closed to traffic and converted into a neighborhood play area. Photo: U.S. Bureau of Outdoor Recreation.

prohibitive, availability of quick, economical transportation must be considered in the location of recreation facilities. In the absence of adequate neighborhood recreational facilities, residents must use those areas that can be reached by public transportation.

Acquisition Methods

Cities have traditionally acquired park and recreation facilities by purchase, by gift, and by transfer. Land acquisition by purchase has become difficult, if not impossible, in most of the nation's cities. Except in outlying areas, vacant land is very scarce, and even in outlying areas it is extremely valuable. Even when there is land available, the need for new acreage far outstrips available funds. The City of Baltimore attributes most of its 6,000 acres of park land to a positive program of planned acquisition based upon recommendations made in various park surveys. The land acquisition program for Baltimore calls for the expenditure of over $7 million for land acquisition during the five-year period 1968 through 1973. Other cities report that land acquisition has been slow and sporadic. In San Antonio, for example, acquisition of park

land averaged only six acres per year between 1945 and 1961, although it was estimated in the *Master Park Plan* that 170 acres should be added each year to the park system if the needs of City residents were to be met.

The acquisition of land for park and recreation usage through gifts has been an important factor in the development of municipal park and recreation systems in American cities. Indeed, prior to 1930, cities reported that nearly one-third of their total acreage was acquired in this manner. For example, the land for the two largest parks in Pittsburgh, containing 955 acres, or 42 percent of the total park and recreation acreage, was donated to the City. Unfortunately, land acquired in this manner is seldom located in areas of greatest need.

Acquisition of park and recreation land by transfer of title has taken on increased significance in recent years. Such transfers may occur between governmental jurisdictions, but more frequently between two city departments. An example of this type of acquisition would be the transfer of a municipal reservoir, no longer in use, from the water department to the park department. The New York City Recreation Department reported it has constructed playgrounds on sites acquired from other city departments. In many cases, this land was vacant and unsuitable for other uses. Other devices used to acquire land for parks and recreation include acquisition by tax liens; condemnation; joint development of land with schools and with public and private housing agencies; development in connection with parkways, expressways, and civic centers; and by reclamation of waterfront and other neglected or submarginal areas. It is estimated that New York City has added approximately 1,500 acres of new park and recreation land through the sanitary landfill method alone. The Chicago Park District, under its lakefront development plan set forth in *The Comprehensive Plan of Chicago,* intends to add 1,200 acres of recreation land through the landfill method. Atlanta is considering the use of land along the network of creeks, streams, and rivers, that form the City's flood plains. In spite of these efforts, most cities

Construction of neighborhood playgrounds is frequently cited as the most pressing recreational need of cities. In Portland, Maine, the inclusion of a wading pool adds greatly to the value of a recreation facility. Photo: U.S. Bureau of Outdoor Recreation.

surveyed indicated a continuing need for additional acreage. Table 3 lists park acreage by major classification for the cities surveyed, and estimates of future acreage needs.

Facility Maintenance

Use of park and recreation facilities is directly related to the condition in which these facilities are maintained. Littered parks, poorly lit recreation centers, and broken park and recreation equipment have a negative recreational value. Conditions such as these discourage use of parks and recreation centers, and contribute to further littering and vandalism. Over the years, routine maintenance of recreation facilities has not kept pace with needs. Consequently, most cities surveyed indicate that approximately 20 to 50 percent of their facilities will require extensive repair within five years. It was generally agreed by both city officials and private citizens that sufficient funds are not being spent for the proper maintenance and upkeep of park and recreation areas. To overcome this problem, the City of Los Angeles instituted in the 1966-67 fiscal year a program to refurbish all recreation facilities. Within three years it is hoped that all facilities will be rehabilitated; then these facilities will be maintained on a two-year basis. A unique aspect of the maintenance of facilities in New York is that the City manufactures much of the equipment used on its 861 playgrounds and recreational sites. The City manufactures in its own shops about 5,000 pieces of equipment each year, including benches, slides, swings, and picnic tables.

Construction of new facilities is one indicator of the extent to which cities are attempting to meet the recreational needs of their citizens. On this basis it would appear that the nation's cities are making a determined effort. Baltimore officials report that during 1967 the City opened five recreation centers and seven new playgrounds, and that the budget for 1968 contains over $2 million for the construction of new recreation facilities. Similarly, in 1968, the Chicago Park District constructed 32 swimming pools, 13 spray pools, 22 multiple purpose basketball and volleyball courts, 4 fieldhouses, and a new running track. Also, tennis courts were built at 5 parks and outdoor lighting installed at 17 locations. Examination of Table 4 points up the existence of extensive recreation facilities among the 15 cities surveyed. However, in spite of existing facilities, and the new recreational facilities and park sites that are being developed at a rapid pace, deficiencies will continue to exist for some time. If cities are to meet the backlog of needs, it is obvious that they will have to draw upon resources not now available to them.

Staff

Recruitment of qualified professional recreation personnel was frequently cited as a major problem. Officials in Nashville, St. Louis, and Pittsburgh attributed their inability to attract qualified personnel to low salaries. In St. Louis the starting salary for a recreation leader is $4,582; in Pittsburgh it is $4,200. Such low salaries discourage the pursuit of recreation as a career for they do not begin to compete with the salaries offered by private industry or available to other professions in state and local government. Another factor contributing to inadequate staffing is the relatively few schools with degree programs in recreation. This tends to limit the development of professionalism and, in addition, makes it necessary for recreation departments to provide in-service training programs for their new employees. Existing staffing levels and projected needs, where the information is available, are presented in Table 5 for the 15 cities surveyed. On the basis of data reported, it would appear that most cities have given little thought to their future staffing needs and the manner in which such needs will be met in the next five years.

Financing

All successful recreation programs are dependent upon the willingness and ability of elected officials to provide adequate financing. In many

TABLE 3

PARK ACREAGE BY MAJOR CLASSIFICATION IN 15 SELECTED CITIES

City	Population[1] 1968	Neighborhood[2]	Community[2]	City-Wide[2]	Other[2]	Total[2]	Estimated additional needs[2]
New York	8,171,000	1,736	12,787	18,745	4,723	37,991	1,541
Chicago	3,587,000	–[3]	–[3]	6,808	80	6,888	NA[4]
Los Angeles	2,873,500	1,432	1,088	9,380	–[3]	11,900	1,089
Baltimore	923,900	152	1,001	4,711	233	6,097	2,505
San Antonio	722,400	87	439	1,674	732	2,932	5,068
St. Louis	684,800	453	–[3]	1,736	539	2,728	4,000
Pittsburgh	564,000	350	–[3]	2,024	–[3]	2,374	NA[4]
Atlanta	516,600	390	540	1,233	155	2,318	1,535
Minneapolis	493,100	604	–[3]	2,818	1,892	5,314	NA[4]
Nashville	457,500	81	481	4,343	–[3]	4,905	3,170
Oakland	391,300	–[3]	500	1,500	–[3]	2,000	717
Tampa	324,900	212	–[3]	911	–[3]	1,123	NA[4]
Dayton	281,000	290	–[3]	2,670	189	3,149	1,602
Peoria	137,900	347	584	5,716	–[3]	6,647	NA[4]
Portland	71,400	415	–[3]	175	65	655	1,664

[1] The 1968 estimated population determined by straight line extrapolation of population data obtained from city officials.

[2] Data obtained from city recreation personnel.

[3] Not reported by this classification.

[4] Not available.

TABLE 4

NUMBER AND TYPES OF MAJOR PUBLIC RECREATION FACILITIES IN 15 SELECTED CITIES

City	Population[1] 1968	Golf courses[2]	Swimming pools[2]	Marinas[2]	Tennis courts[2]	Picnic areas[2]	Museums[2]	Zoos[2]	Amphitheaters[2]	Recreation centers[2]
New York	8,171,000	13	39	8	503	29	8	4	4	138
Chicago	3,587,000	4	63	7	630	NA[3]	1	2	1	135
Los Angeles	2,873,000	13	49	0	232	NA[3]	3	1	1	127
Baltimore	923,900	5	6	1	112	9	0	1	0	9
San Antonio	722,400	4	17	0	12	0	0	1	1	0
St. Louis	684,000	3	16	0	83	30	1	1	1	13
Pittsburgh	564,000	1	25	0	52	63	1	1	0	17
Atlanta	516,600	6	14	0	140	19	0	1	0	16
Minneapolis	493,100	6	1	0	200	12	0	0	0	46
Nashville	457,500	10	17	0	57	19	2	0	0	23
Oakland	391,300	5	4	0	46	NA[3]	0	0	4	15
Tampa	324,900	1	7	14	56	NA[3]	NA[3]	0	0	19
Dayton	281,000	3	6	0	74	7	NA[3]	0	0	11
Peoria	137,900	4	6	2	5	60	2	1	2	2
Portland	71,400	2	2	1	25	1	0	0	0	2

[1] The 1968 estimated population determined by straight line extrapolation of population data obtained from city officials.

[2] Data obtained from city recreation personnel.

[3] Not available.

TABLE 5

FULL-TIME AND PART-TIME PARKS AND RECREATION PERSONNEL IN 15 SELECTED CITIES

	Parks[1]						Recreation[1]					
	Full-time			Part-time			Full-time			Part-time		
City	1960	1968	1973	1960	1968	1973	1960	1968	1973	1960	1968	1973
New York	5,331	5,695	6,200	3,404	3,832	4,300	611	680	1,200	730	814	1,300
Chicago	4,000	4,400	NA[2]	1,500	2,100	NA[2]	–[3]	–[3]	–[3]	–[3]	–[3]	–[3]
Los Angeles	1,422	1,133	1,250	15	53	60	385	555	600	1,323	424	470
Baltimore	550	729	750	0	0	0	216	363	400	350	927	1,100
San Antonio	236	300	340	13	23	29	37	56	68	144	190	219
St. Louis	574	406	420	30	52	60	181	191	250	365	383	400
Pittsburgh	297	338	NA[2]	207	238	NA[2]	91	93	NA[2]	365	450	NA[2]
Atlanta	NA[2]	500	NA[2]	NA[2]	320	NA[2]	–[3]	–[3]	–[3]	–[3]	–[3]	–[3]
Minneapolis	445	430	NA[2]	75	75	NA[2]	55	34	NA[2]	750	665	NA[2]
Nashville	93	109	134	34	35	65	72	146	196	165	615	690
Oakland	177	185	200	9	21	20	113	145	160	800	850	900
Tampa	NA[2]	174	NA[2]	NA[2]	1	NA[2]	NA[2]	126	NA[2]	NA[2]	175	NA[2]
Dayton	127	161	NA[2]	35	100	NA[2]	93	110	NA[2]	57	215	NA[2]
Peoria	80	125	150	325	400	425	NA[2]	22	25	NA[2]	378	400
Portland	NA[2]	65	NA[2]	NA[2]	25	NA[2]	9	9	10	120	158	180

[1] Employment data obtained from city recreation personnel.
[2] Not available.
[3] Recreation employees included in park personnel statistics.

instances shaving dollars from the recreation budget has proved an expedient way to reduce overall city expenditures. The consequences of these reductions are not always immediately evident to the people, although the ultimate result is invariably a reduced recreation program. The relationship between adequate funding and a creative, aggressive recreation program was stated succinctly by one local citizen of Portland, Maine, who said, "Years of struggling with small amounts of money diminishes the imagination."

There is no perfect method for comparing local

TABLE 6

COMPARISON OF 1963 CITY OPERATING AND PARK AND RECREATION EXPENDITURES IN 15 SELECTED CITIES

City	City operating expenditures[1]	Park and recreation		
		Operating expenditures[2]	Capital expenditures[3]	Percent of city expenditures[4]
New York	$2,343,883,000	$31,500,000	$37,100,000	1.3
Chicago[5]	308,195,000	32,049,093	2,600,000	9.4
Los Angeles	206,785,000	13,940,310	5,634,433	6.7
Baltimore	214,368,000	5,057,892	1,759,353	2.4
San Antonio	23,293,000	1,371,990	403,995	5.9
St. Louis	82,383,000	3,407,779	1,550,000	4.1
Pittsburgh	46,224,000	3,586,448	1,053,885	7.8
Atlanta	38,025,000	2,239,890	381,711	5.9
Minneapolis	41,569,000	3,732,000	1,501,000	9.0
Nashville	31,512,000	1,491,736	800,431	4.7
Oakland	31,139,000	3,605,993	697,656	11.6
Tampa	18,825,000	1,542,481	207,500	8.2
Dayton	19,295,000	1,614,390	954,705	8.4
Peoria[6]	5,399,000	1,156,437	162,944	17.6
Portland	11,623,000	564,482	51,300	4.9

[1] Excludes Federal grant funds.

[2] Excludes Federal grant funds and expenditures for park and recreation purposes by other than park and recreation departments.

[3] Excludes Federal grant funds and capital outlay expenditures for heavy equipment and other items.

[4] Derived by dividing operating expenditures for parks and recreation by the City's total operating expenditures. Comparison of expenditures for parks and recreation with expenditures for other municipal services is of limited value because of the wide variation in services provided by the general purpose governments and the performance of services by special districts. In St. Louis, New York, Nashville, and Baltimore, for example, the city performs both city and county functions and, consequently, expenditures for parks and recreation constitute a smaller percentage of total municipal expenditures than in cities not providing such functions.

[5] Park and recreation expenditure figures are for the Chicago Park District which is a special district independent of the city government.

[6] Park and recreation expenditure figures stated are for the Peoria Pleasure Driveway and Park District which is a special district independent of the city government.

commitment to recreation. Expenditures for parks and recreation as a percent of city general purpose expenditures, as shown in Tables 6 and 7, are not comparable because of the different functions performed by the various city governments. In Baltimore, Nashville, New York, and St. Louis, for example, the city government performs both city and county functions. Because of the inclusion of health and welfare expenditures, recreation constitutes a smaller percentage of total municipal expenditures than in cities not providing such functions.

Probably the best means of measuring the rela-

TABLE 7

COMPARISON OF 1967 CITY OPERATING AND PARK AND RECREATION EXPENDITURES IN 15 SELECTED CITIES

		Park and recreation		
City	City operating expenditures[1]	Operating expenditures[2]	Capital expenditures[3]	Percent of city expenditures[4]
New York	$3,741,580,000	$47,300,000	$42,700,000	1.3
Chicago[5]	382,932,000	36,586,748	2,775,898	8.7
Los Angeles	254,427,000	15,022,505	4,189,052	5.9
Baltimore	299,899,000	9,174,036	2,787,696	3.1
San Antonio	28,607,000	1,836,775	492,545	6.4
St. Louis	100,349,000	3,558,294	1,405,000	3.5
Pittsburgh	59,144,000	4,740,357	1,800,000	8.0
Atlanta	51,770,000	3,744,000	530,000	7.2
Minneapolis	43,567,000	3,885,000	663,000	8.9
Nashville	92,415,000	2,084,087	1,635,476	2.3
Oakland	43,198,000	4,660,355	170,000	10.8
Tampa	24,669,000	2,219,854	Not Available	9.0
Dayton	24,233,000	2,297,152	661,662	9.5
Peoria[6]	7,375,000	1,607,287	522,869	17.9
Portland	14,234,000	572,540	70,636	4.0

[1] Excludes Federal grant funds.

[2] Excludes Federal grant funds and expenditures for park and recreation purposes by other than park and recreation departments.

[3] Excludes Federal grant funds and capital outlay expenditures for heavy equipment and other items.

[4] Derived by dividing operating expenditures for parks and recreation by the city's total operating expenditures. Comparison of expenditures for parks and recreation with expenditures for other municipal services is of limited value because of the wide variation in services provided by the general purpose governments and the performance of services by special districts. In St. Louis, New York, Nashville, and Baltimore, for example, the city performs both city and county functions and, consequently, expenditures for parks and recreation constitute a smaller percentage of total municipal expenditures than in cities not providing such functions.

[5] Park and recreation expenditure figures stated are for the Chicago Park District which is a special district independent of the city government.

[6] Park and recreation expenditure figures stated are for the Peoria Pleasure Driveway and Park District which is a special district independent of the city government.

tive emphasis placed on recreation by various cities is to compare expenditures on a per capita basis. Table 8 illustrates the range of per capita expenditures for recreation in the 15 cities surveyed for the years 1960, 1965, and 1968. Examination of that table points up the fact that in two-thirds of the cities surveyed there has been a steady, and in some cases dramatic increase in per capita expenditures for parks and recreation, and in all but two cities – Los Angeles and Nashville – appropriations for 1968 exceed 1960 expenditures. Estimated per capita expenditures for 1973, where available, continue to show the rising trend. However, in spite of virtually a unanimous commitment to increase recreation programs and opportunities, cities do not have the financial capability to sustain these expanded programs indefinitely. For example, in its *Financial Capability Study,* the City of Oakland projects a revenue-expenditure gap by 1972 that will force the City to (1) alter the levels of municipal programs, (2) increase the property tax rate, or (3) adopt revenue sources not now being utilized. Similar decisions will have to be made by other cities, and none of these alternatives are viewed with enthusiasm by city officials.

Cities increasingly must look to state and Federal governments for the additional financing necessary to sustain the desired level of recreation programming. However, to date, state financial assistance generally has been negligible. Fortunately for cities, Federal aid has been more abundant. All the cities surveyed have received some Federal funds and anticipate greater participation by the Federal Government in future years. Generally, city officials had much praise

TABLE 8

PER CAPITA OPERATING EXPENDITURES FOR PARKS AND RECREATION IN 15 SELECTED CITIES[1]

City	Expenditures 1960	Expenditures 1965	Budget 1968	Estimate 1973
New York	$4.22	$ 6.48	$ 6.19	$10.81
Chicago	7.57	8.97	11.72	14.45
Los Angeles	4.78	5.67	4.77	NA[2]
Baltimore	5.31	8.67	12.32	16.64
San Antonio	1.72	2.56	2.83	NA[2]
St. Louis	4.82	5.57	5.85	6.90
Pittsburgh	5.71	7.73	9.13	NA[2]
Atlanta	3.67	4.76	9.11	NA[2]
Minneapolis	7.14	6.17	9.09	NA[2]
Nashville	5.09	4.50	4.52	7.81
Oakland	8.59	9.87	13.21	15.56
Tampa	2.30	5.82	7.33	NA[2]
Dayton	5.70	7.15	8.90	11.12
Peoria	8.63	10.63	14.69	NA[2]
Portland	4.44	9.12	8.76	9.21

[1] Derived by dividing financial data obtained from recreation personnel by actual or estimated population figures.
[2] Not available.

for these Federal programs. However, city needs for financial help in recreation are for programs that provide a stable financial contribution rather than those based on individual projects at the local level.

City needs for capital expenditure funds are tremendous. According to a report prepared by the National Recreation and Park Association in cooperation with the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, *A Study of New York Outdoor Recreation Needs,* the cost of providing a total recreation program for New York City, including the renovation of local and community facilities, would be about $50 million each year for 20 years, or a total of about $1 billion. This illustrates the extent of the need that cities have for capital funds. Traditionally, these funds have come from bond issues that are dependent upon voter approval. Often such approval is difficult to achieve. The City of San Antonio, for instance, was unable to obtain voter approval for any recreation bond issues prior to 1961.

Adoption of a capital improvement program promotes the systematic scheduling of land acquisition and facilities construction. However, capital improvement programs are of little benefit if adequate funds for implementation are not appropriated. Failure to adhere to the capital improvement program necessitates rescheduling of acquisitions and construction to subsequent years. Obviously, adherence to a capital improvement program facilitates development of an effective park and recreation system.

Local Government Functional Priorities

Inadequate funding of parks and recreation programs is due in large part to the fact that city officials have traditionally assigned low priority to these functions. Mayors and recreation officials in the 15 case study cities held widely differing opinions when asked if recreation was receiving a fair portion of city funds. Nevertheless, they shared the opinion that in recent years recreation has received a higher priority than it had previously. Historically, recreation has been though of as an amusing pastime type of activity or a welfare program for children unable to afford other recreational facilities. To a certain extent, this image exists today. But city officials who still tend to give recreation a relatively low priority may be mis-reading the citizens' desires for recreational facilities. In Atlanta, a survey of six poverty areas revealed that the need for recreation ranks second only to the need for job opportunities. Similarly, a survey in Oakland ranked recreation third in priority following jobs and housing.

The high priority accorded recreation by the disadvantaged is increasingly being recognized. City officials in Tampa believe that residents of economically deprived areas rank recreation fourth in priority, with housing, jobs, and education being the first three local government services that citizens want improved and augmented. City officials in Baltimore placed recreation fifth on the priority list of the deprived, following jobs, housing, education, and sanitation.

Recreation Priorities

Assignment of priorities within the field of recreation, with respect to both types and location of programs and facilities, also constitutes a major problem. In Baltimore, for example, citizens expressed the opinion that too much effort was being given to the development of the stadium and municipal golf courses, and not enough to overall recreational activities. A similar comment was forthcoming in Chicago where criticism of the priorities established by the Park Commissioners centered on the proposed Lake-Front Development Plan. The proposed development of Lake Michigan includes marinas and horseback riding facilities. Representatives of various neighborhood associations pointed out that these activities are not those in which economically deprived people, particularly the young, are able to participate. It is this type of recreation and park planning that brings forth comments that recreation is being planned by persons having no real knowledge of the needs or desires of the underprivileged.

Most cities surveyed have developed some system for assigning priorities for program and facility development. Questions invariably considered, although the ranking may vary, include the following:

1. Do proposed facilities provide for year-round recreation activities?

2. Are programs directed toward ghetto youths?

3. Do proposed facilities meet neighborhood recreation needs?

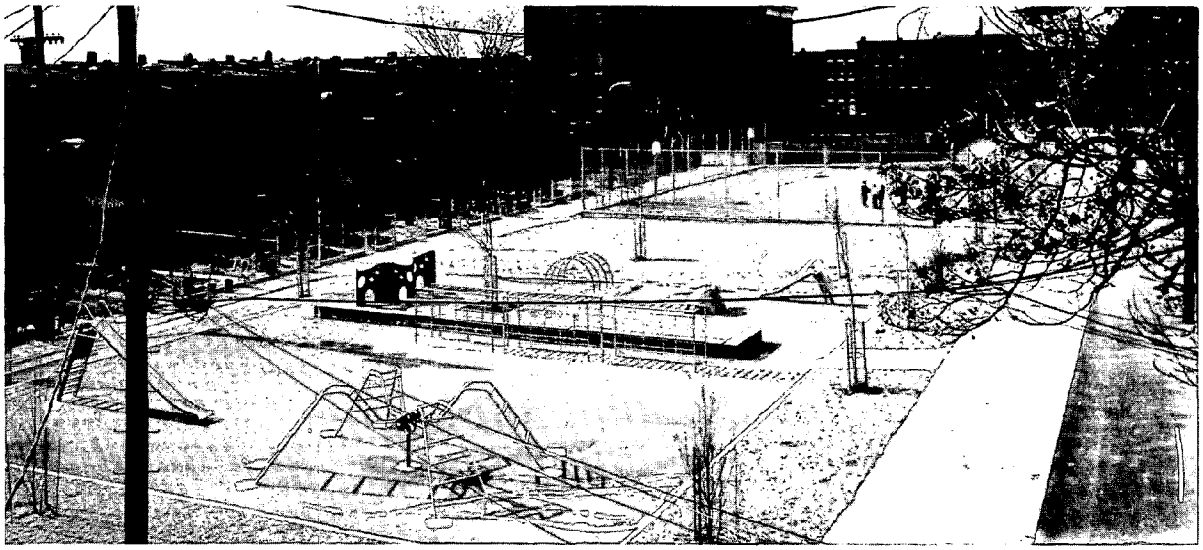
4. Are a sufficient number of "active" recreation programs being provided?

5. Do programs provide for meaningful social relationships between adults and underprivileged children?

6. Are facilities designed for multi-purpose use?

7. Has provision been made for citizen participation in the determination of needs?

The Los Angeles Department of Parks and Recreation has developed a formula for determining need in order to locate facilities in such a way as to serve all city residents. The formula is based on an index computed from four sociological and economic factors. These four factors are (1) the density of population, (2) the number of persons between the ages of 5 and 19, (3) the median family income, and (4) the juvenile delinquency rates. By assigning weights to these four factors, it is possible to compare the needs of one area with another. The Park and Recreation Department has applied this technique for determining needs to 65 previously defined statistical areas within the City, and the results have become the basis for determining the priority of future acquisitions and construction of recreational facilities. In Minneapolis, an agency called the Capital Long-Range Improvement Committee reviews the capital improvement programs of all City agencies and makes recommendations to the City Council regarding capital improvement priorities and bond issues. In evaluating departmental plans, the Committee uses a priority formula that gives numerical weights to various aspects of need. After all program proposals have been evaluated, the Committee



Proper location of recreation facilities is vital to a successful program. In this picture, a block park in Baltimore provides recreational opportunity for the people and establishes a base for community activity. Photo: Baltimore Urban Renewal and Housing Agency.

Day camping programs include many activities popular with children. Expansion of such programs, which was reported in most of the cities surveyed, can provide person-oriented recreation programs in which supervisors can work with small groups. Photo: Peoria Journal Star.

makes up a master priority list that is submitted to the City Council. Since the Committee's creation in 1953, the City Council has accepted approximately 95 percent of its recommendations.

Specialized Recreation Programs

Cities must take into consideration the special needs of special segments of the population – the aged, the young, the handicapped, the economically disadvantaged – in developing recreation priorities. In most of the cities surveyed, officials readily admitted that the needs of all population groups were not being adequately met. Only in recent years have cities recognized an obligation to provide recreation for the handicapped. Traditionally, this has been provided by various semi-public agencies. Quite probably, cities will look increasingly to the state and Federal governments for assistance in providing the specialized facilities and specially trained personnel required to meet the recreation needs of the handicapped.

Many city officials believe that the recreational needs of economically disadvantaged persons are essentially the same as the rest of the community. Nevertheless, the *Report on 1968 Summer Recreation* by the Health and Welfare Council of Dayton documented the dependency of the poor on public recreation facilities and concluded that the deprived require greater opportunities for recreational and cultural experiences than do the economically advantaged. The special needs of the poor require more neighborhood recreation facilities in inner-city areas and more person-oriented recreation programs in which supervisors can work with small groups in meaningful interpersonal relationships.

In addition to the problems of providing specialized recreational services, a number of city officials stated flatly that existing recreational programs simply do not meet the needs of teen-

agers and young adults. In the past, recreation officials frequently have failed to provide programs of interest to young people, and the programs that have been provided often have been poorly scheduled.

Communication and Coordination

Lack of communication and coordination are considered to be major factors inhibiting the optimum utlization of existing recreational facilities and programs in most of the 15 cities visited. Many city officials acknowledge that coordination is inadequate between the city and county park and recreation departments and between such departments and the various semi-public organizations carrying on separate recreation programs. The duplication of effort, overlapping of programs, and the competition for recreation consumers often result in an unfortunate waste of resources.

Inadequate communication not only exists among public and private agencies providing recreation, but also between such agencies and their clients. Over the years, city and county recreation officials have felt it sufficient merely to provide recreation opportunities. Today, however, citizens not only must be informed of the availability of the various programs, but also convinced that participation or utilization is worthwhile. This communication problem is reported to constitute a major impediment to the full utilization of facilities and programs among the disadvantaged. However, communication alone is not enough. Recreation officials and recreation leaders must have the ability to relate departmental activities and programs to the needs of the community. To be successful, recreation must be what the people want; not what the recreation department believes to be best for the people. Increased emphasis on citizen participation can be an essential component for the development of meaningful programs.

FACTORS AFFECTING AMOUNT AND TYPE OF RECREATION PROVIDED

Many factors affect the amount and type of recreation that cities must provide in today's fast-moving society. Population growth, increased leisure time, division of labor, and expanded community participation in public affairs, each, in its own way, has created a greater demand for recreation or contributed to the lack of sufficient recreational facilities. Population growth and the migration of people into urban areas have required both the high density and the intensive use of land characteristic of the city. At the same time, labor saving devices have created more leisure time. Both in the factory and in the home, people can perform their necessary work in shorter time. Division of labor has further increased the need for recreational activity. With increased specialization, many people are no longer able to find satisfaction or a sense of accomplishment in their work, and, thus, they must seek opportunities for creativity outside of their jobs. Finally, in recent years, residents of deprived urban neighborhoods have discovered that they are able to influence governmental activities and levels of service through political activity. In many communities, citizen groups and neighborhood associations consider the expansion of recreational opportunities a matter of highest priority.

City Population Characteristics

The number of inhabitants has traditionally been the primary factor affecting the need for recreational programs and facilities. However, Table 9, which shows actual and projected populations for the 15 surveyed cities, points up the fact that only eight of the cities anticipate a significant increase in population, although all anticipate a continuing expansion of their recreation effort. Today, of even greater significance than the number of inhabitants are the economic and sociological characteristics of central city residents.

First, in spite of an increasing family income level, more city residents are economically deprived today than ever before as a consequence of the in-migration of the rural poor and the flight to the suburbs of many middle and upper income families. Because an increasing number of city residents are economically unable to meet their recreation needs, cities are now called upon to provide more recreation programs and facilities than in the past. At the same time, because of the increased affluence of the majority of urban residents, and because of reduced production costs resulting from mass production techniques, larger numbers of people are able to obtain recreational equipment previously available to only a relative few. This is apparent in the increased ownership of boats and camping equipment and greater participation in such activities as skiing. Cities are thus faced with the problem of providing recreational programs and facilities to meet the needs of various divergent groups.

Second, the percentage of young people 19 years of age and under is increasing more rapidly

than is the total population. Table 10 shows actual and projected preschool and school-age residents in the 15 cities visited for selected years. A comparison of the data presented in this Table and the data in Table 9 points up the fact that in both absolute and relative terms the

TABLE 9

ACTUAL AND PROJECTED POPULATION IN 15 SELECTED CITIES

City	1950[1]	1960[1]	1965	1970	1980
New York[2]	7,891,957	7,781,984	8,100,000	8,242,000	8,547,000
Chicago[3]	3,620,962	3,550,404	3,575,000	3,600,000	3,774,000
Los Angeles[4]	1,970,358	2,479,015	2,743,500	3,004,000	3,666,000
Baltimore[5]	949,708	939,024	917,752	930,000	945,000
San Antonio[6]	408,442	587,718	677,358	767,000	946,300
St. Louis[7]	856,796	750,026	702,000	667,500	663,100
Pittsburgh[8]	676,806	604,332	571,060	557,100	558,100
Atlanta[9]	331,314	487,455	506,900	526,300	565,200
Minneapolis[10]	521,718	482,872	478,468	507,800	510,000
Nashville[11]	174,307	170,874	448,000	467,000	518,000
Oakland[12]	384,575	367,548	385,700	396,900	419,300
Tampa[13]	124,681	274,970	302,000	347,800	439,000
Dayton[14]	243,872	262,332	266,474	296,000	325,000
Peoria[15]	111,856	103,162	135,146	140,700	151,800
Portland[16]	77,634	72,566	71,750	71,100	69,100

[1] U. S. Bureau of the Census. U. S. Census of Population: 1960. Number of Inhabitants. Final Report PC (1), 1961.

[2] 1965, 1970, and 1980 data supplied by Planning and Development Department, Port of New York Authority.

[3] 1965, 1970, and 1980 data supplied by Population Research and Training Center, University of Chicago.

[4] 1965 data supplied by Population Research Unit, California Department of Finance; 1970 and 1980 data supplied by Research Section, Los Angeles Planning Department.

[5] 1965 and 1970 data supplied by Research and Planning Section, Baltimore Health Department; 1980 data derived by the Straight-Line Method of population projection.

[6] 1965, 1970, and 1980 data supplied by San Antonio Planning Department.

[7] 1965 and 1970 data supplied by St. Louis Plan Commission; 1980 data derived by the Straight-Line Method of population projection.

[8] 1965, 1970, and 1980 data supplied by Center for Regional Economic Studies, University of Pittsburgh.

[9] 1965, 1970, and 1980 data supplied by Physical Health Statistics Division, Georgia Department of Public Health.

[10] 1965 data supplied by Twin Cities Metropolitan Planning Commission; 1970 and 1980 data supplied by Minneapolis Planning Department.

[11] 1965, 1970, and 1980 data supplied by Metropolitan Nashville and Davidson County Planning Commission.

[12] 1965 data supplied by Population Research Unit, California Department of Finance; 1970 and 1980 data derived by the Straight-Line Method of population projection.

[13] 1965, 1970, and 1980 data supplied by Tampa Planning Department.

[14] 1965, 1970, and 1980 data supplied by Development Department, Ohio Economic Research Division.

[15] 1965, 1970, and 1980 data supplied by Peoria Planning Department.

[16] 1965, 1970, and 1980 data supplied by Portland Planning Board.

TABLE 10

POPULATION OF PRESCHOOL AND SCHOOL-AGED RESIDENTS IN 15 SELECTED CITIES FOR THE YEARS 1950, 1960, 1965, 1970, and 1980[1]

City	1950	1960	1965	1970	1980
New York	2,111,592	2,344,736	2,891,700	2,991,900	2,929,100
Chicago	991,063	1,187,224	1,264,300	1,342,000	1,293,300
Los Angeles	504,325	810,950	1,071,100	1,142,700	1,256,400
Baltimore	284,854	339,431	357,000	359,400	323,900
San Antonio	151,658	255,152	293,800	332,800	324,300
St. Louis	232,676	250,483	241,000	248,500	227,200
Pittsburgh	198,159	200,783	192,100	189,900	191,400
Atlanta	99,780	176,844	183,900	191,000	193,600
Minneapolis	143,316	155,096	186,900	193,200	174,800
Nashville	51,915	61,420	175,000	177,700	177,500
Oakland	99,994	115,647	125,800	150,900	143,600
Tampa	35,314	97,461	118,000	132,300	150,400
Dayton	70,619	95,691	104,000	112,600	111,400
Peoria	32,479	36,359	52,800	53,500	52,000
Portland	23,385	25,201	12,200	12,000	23,600
Total	5,031,129	6,152,478	7,269,600	7,630,400	7,572,500

[1]A breakdown by age groups is presented in appendixes A, B, C, D, and E.

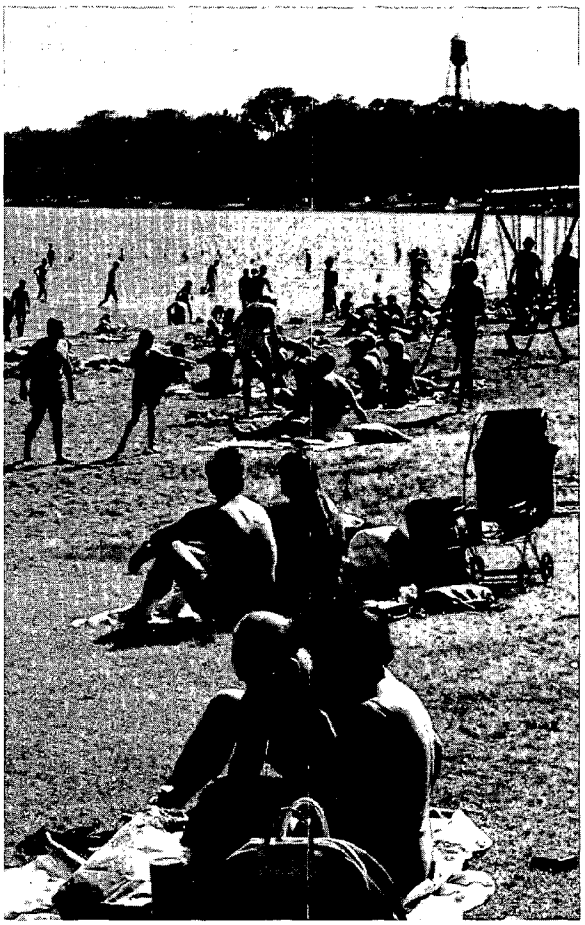
number of young people is increasing. As a consequence, cities must increasingly consider the needs and interests of this segment of the population when recreation programs and facilities are structured.

Third, more people have leisure time than ever before. Not long ago only the affluent had any substantial amount of leisure time. Today, shorter work weeks, lower retirement ages, and longer life expectancies have made leisure time available to virtually all members of the work force. In addition, because of these three factors, leisure time for recreation is now available the year round, whereas a few years ago recreation was almost entirely a summer activity.

Geographical Location

Geographical location is obviously a major factor determining the types of recreation programs and facilities that a city can, or in some cases must, provide. In Minneapolis, for example, the existence of 23 lakes within the city limits facilitates water-based recreation – swimming, boating, fishing in the summer and ice skating in the winter. The cold winters of Minneapolis, and the rolling terrain of parks and play areas, provide 66 natural sliding hills for skiing, sledding, and

tobogganing. The mild climates of San Antonio, Tampa, and Los Angeles, on the other hand, permit year-round use of athletic fields and pavilions for outdoor activities and thus there is less need for facilities for indoor recreation. Location adjacent to major bodies of water provides excellent opportunities for water-based recreation to residents of Chicago, Los Angeles, and New York. Even where virtually unusable for swimming purposes, as in Peoria and St. Louis, bodies of water can be used for boating and sailing.



Full utilization of natural resources is essential because of their unique recreational value. Minneapolis is fortunate in having 23 lakes within its boundaries. Photo: U.S. Bureau of Outdoor Recreation.

Changing Attitudes and Interests

Public interest in sports and athletics is undergoing a change. City residents are beginning to realize that there is more to recreation than just football, baseball, basketball, and swings and slides. Increased interest in water-based recreation activities is only one example of this broadening of the recreational horizon. Demands for cultural, artistic, and creative forms of individual and group activities are increasing; emphasis is being given to recreational activities that teach skills as well as provide exercise; and there is an expanding interest in such sports as bowling, golf, and tennis that permit an individual to participate all of his life.

The communication media, particularly television, have generated public interest in many sporting and recreational activities previously unknown. The sport of curling, for instance, is growing so rapidly in Minneapolis that rinks cannot be provided fast enough to meet the demand. Similarly, the televising of champion European soccer matches has generated, at least temporarily, substantial interest in this sport.

The Impact of Crime and Social Unrest

Crime and social unrest have had a two-fold impact on recreation since the end of World War II. Increased criminal activity has made park and recreation areas, particularly such areas in the center city and in neighborhoods undergoing

racial transition, dangerous to use by day and totally unsafe at night. Vigorous efforts to "reopen" parks for use by holding special evening programs for young people have been tried successfully in New York City. In Minneapolis recreation leaders have been used to escort children to and from parks in unsafe neighborhoods. While criminal activity has had a crippling effect, social unrest and the threat of civil disturbance by Negroes seeking an end to years of discrimination and inequities have forced recreation departments to provide "instant" recreational opportunities for teen-age and young adults in slum neighborhoods. The installation of portable swimming pools, the attachment of spray caps to fire hydrants, the use of portable basketball courts, and the holding of block dances have been tried the last few years in Baltimore, Chicago, and New York to "cool off" deprived urban neighborhoods.

Citizen Participation

Increased citizen demand for services and participation in planning has come about as a direct outgrowth of minority demands for social justice. In most large cities, residents of slum neighborhoods have found that they have the power to demand and receive services from their local governments. The use of this power, and an increasing knowledge of the governmental process that is being acquired through participation in various new social programs, are being translated into planning activities that recreation officials must consider in development of recreation programs. Determining and satisfying the recreational needs of city residents is essential if programs are to succeed. In Baltimore and St. Louis those programs and activities that have actively involved citizens at the planning and development stages are those that, for the most part, have been found most successful.

Geography and climate both play an important role in shaping a recreation program. While cities in southern states take advantage of their year-round temperate climate, Minneapolis capitalizes on its winter recreation opportunities. Photo: Minneapolis Star and Tribune Co.

"Before" and "after" scenes from a section of the San Antonio River Walk. Located in the center of the business district, the Walk offers a relaxing alternative to city traffic. Photo: San Antonio Chamber of Commerce.

MEETING RECREATION NEEDS

Public tastes are constantly changing, and a variety of sociological, economic, and psychological developments are creating new trends and needs to which city recreation departments must respond. In terms of money, total local government operating and capital expenditures for recreation and parks have increased from $770 million in 1960 to $1,104 million in 1965. For cities, such increased costs have meant higher taxes, more bonded debt, and, in some cases, new local fees and service charges. During this same six-year period, local governments acquired 335,376 acres for park and recreation purposes, bringing the total land available for such usage up to approximately one and one-half million acres.

Today however, more than ever before, the nation's cities are faced with a myriad of problems, each requiring immediate attention, each requiring the allocation of a sizeable portion of cities' limited resources. To adequately meet the recreation needs of city residents, a coordinated effort by Federal, state, and local governments is required. In addition, where the resources of the private sector can be brought to bear, the problems of those responsible for overall recreation planning can be immeasurably reduced.

Federal Assistance

The Federal Government now has over 50 grant programs that can be used by state and local governments for park and recreation purposes. Major programs in which cities are participating include Land and Water Conservation Fund, Neighborhood Facilities, Open-Space Land, Urban Beautification, Model Neighborhoods in Demonstration Cities, Community Action Programs, Federal Surplus Property, and Beach Erosion Control. A summary description of these programs and the administrating agencies are presented in Table 11. A comprehensive table of all such supportive programs is presented in *Federal Outdoor Recreation Programs,* published by the Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, Department of the Interior, and in *Federal Aids to Local Governments,* published by the National League of Cities.

The widespread use of these programs is readily apparent in the 15 cities surveyed in this study. All totalled, these cities have received approximately $70 million in Federal assistance for park and recreation purposes since 1963. Table 12 presents a city-by-city breakdown of receipts by the major Federal programs. Examination of the table points up the extent to which these programs have been used.

Unquestionably Federal grant programs have been of substantial benefit to the nation's cities. But such programs are not a panacea for either park and recreation problems or any other local government problems. Participation in categorical aid programs invariably involves restrictions on use of funds and complicated reporting procedures. Although designed to assure responsible and effective use of funds by local jurisdictions, compliance with such restrictions and procedures frequently is overly burdensome and time consuming.

TABLE 11

MAJOR FEDERAL AID PROGRAMS UTILIZED FOR PARKS AND RECREATION PURPOSES IN 15 SELECTED CITIES

Program title	Authorizing legislation	Administering agency	Program description
Land and Water Conservation Fund	Land and Water Conservation Fund Act of 1965	Bureau of Outdoor Recreation, Department of the Interior	Grants are made to states, and through them to local governments, for planning, acquisition, and development of public outdoor recreation areas and facilities. Grants are made to finance 50 percent of allowable project costs.
Neighborhood Facilities	Housing and Urban Development Act of 1965	Office of Urban Neighborhood Services, Department of Housing and Urban Development	Grants are made to local governments to help finance neighborhood or community centers providing a variety of social services. Grants may cover up to two-thirds of project costs, or up to three-fourths in redevelopment areas.
Community Action Programs	Economic Opportunity Act of 1964	Office of Economic Opportunity	Through the Community Action Programs grants are made for public or private nonprofit antipoverty projects. Outdoor recreation projects are included as eligible programs. Grants cover 50 percent of program costs.
Model Neighborhoods	Demonstration Cities and Metropolitan Development Act of 1966	Model Cities Administration, Department of Housing and Urban Development	Grants are made to local governments to plan, develop, and carry out comprehensive programs for rebuilding or restoring slum and blighted areas through coordinated use of all available federal programs and private and local resources. Grants cover 80 percent of the cost of planning, developing, and administering programs, and up to 80 percent of non-federal contributions required under federally assisted projects.

TABLE 11 (Continued)

MAJOR FEDERAL AID PROGRAMS UTILIZED FOR PARKS AND RECREATION PURPOSES IN 15 SELECTED CITIES

Program title	Authorizing legislation	Administering agency	Program description
Open-Space Land	Housing Act of 1961	Office of Urban Neighborhood Services, Department of Housing and Urban Development	Grants are made to state and local governments for the acquisition of land for permanent open-space use. Basic improvements on the land also qualify for grants. Matching funds are available for both acquisition and improvements.
Urban Beautification	Housing Act of 1961	Office of Urban Neighborhood Services, Department of Housing and Urban Development	Grants up to 50 percent are made to state and local governments to help beautify publicly owned land in accordance with an overall beautification program.
Federal Surplus Real Property	Federal Property and Administrative Services Act of 1949	Property Management and Disposal Service, General Services Administration	Surplus land, buildings, and other real property no longer required for federal use may be transferred to state or local governments for park and recreation uses at 50 percent of the fair market value. The Bureau of Outdoor Recreation assists in determining if property is suitable and desirable for public park or recreation area use.
Beach Erosion Control	River and Harbor Act of 1962	U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Department of Defense	The purpose of this program is to prevent damage to beaches from wave and current action. Grants are available to state and local governments for up to 50 percent of the construction cost for protecting publicly owned or used beaches, and up to 70 percent for protecting publicly owned shore parks or conservation areas.

TABLE 12

FUNDS ACTUALLY RECEIVED BY 15 SELECTED CITIES FOR PARKS AND RECREATION UNDER MAJOR FEDERAL AID PROGRAMS

	Bureau of Outdoor Recreation Land and Water Conservation[1]	Office of Economic Opportunity Community Action Program[2]	Department of Housing and Urban Development Open-Space Program[3]	Department of Housing and Urban Development Beautification Program[4]	Department of Housing and Urban Development Neighborhood Facilities[5]
Atlanta	49,909	1,500,834	1,634,721	167,183	1,300,000
Baltimore	433,366	1,004,581	336,044	188,825	298,133
Chicago	403,488	4,449,946	1,028,768	631,843	3,111,393
Dayton	–	479,448	930,767	–	390,859
Los Angeles	266,667	2,094,393	1,504,329	–	180,000
Minneapolis	–	179,982	842,502	548,591	1,043,372
Nashville	–	861,088	866,144	–	–
New York	2,095,213	21,170,827	6,621,628	1,452,375	481,462
Oakland	–	408,000	304,687	134,330	1,074,030
Peoria	24,850	43,060	1,022,404	–	–
Pittsburgh	–	529,884	315,548	454,680	1,106,125
Portland	56,375	–	14,188	–	–
St. Louis	139,263	1,654,828	50,449	390,641	1,300,000
San Antonio	–	669,668	699,586	69,709	–
Tampa	–	234,998	–	–	468,552

[1] Funds received by cities and park districts from 1966, when program began, to November 15, 1968.

[2] Includes only funds for recreation purposes received by agencies within the cities from the inception of the program in 1965 to July 19, 1968.

[3] Includes funds received by cities and park districts from July 1, 1963, to November 15, 1968.

[4] Includes funds received by cities and park districts between July 1, 1965, and November 15, 1968.

[5] Grants under this program are for multi-purpose facilities and are not exclusively for recreational purposes. Includes funds received by cities and park districts from July 1966 to November 1968.

State Assistance

Most states provide advice and technical assistance to cities on recreation matters through departments of conservation or recreation, but generally little direct financial assistance is available to cities for park and recreation purposes. However, notable exceptions do exist. New York City received $17 million of a $100 million state bond issue passed in 1966 for the acquisition of land for outdoor recreation. In 1967, a statewide referendum was approved authorizing a $200 million bond issue for the purpose of financing the acquisition and development of outdoor recreation facilities such as parks, marine facilities, and historic sites. The extent to which New York City will participate in this bond issue has not as yet been determined.

The State of California has a number of programs available to support local park and recreation programs. Los Angeles has received $486,666 from the 1964 State Bond Fund for purchase of land and ground development, $300,000 from the California State Wildlife Conservation Bond Fund for the construction of a fishing pier, and $38,503 for the construction of a senior citizens center. Oakland, on the other hand, has received only $12,600 from the California Youth Authority for a community recreation program for young people.

The Peoria Pleasure Driveway and Park District has received $116,373 from the State Boat License Fund for the construction of a marina on the Illinois River. Chicago, however, reports that no State funds have been received for recreation purposes.

City-School Cooperation

Agreements for recreation purposes between city governments and school districts exist formally or informally in almost every large city in the United States. These agreements usually provide for mutual use of facilities and often for the joint development of park-school complexes. The use of these agreements provides a partial solution to several school recreation problems and needs. Joint park-school programs permit the full-time use of both school and recreation sites, thus eliminating needless expenditures for construction of separate facilities. In addition, such coordinated recreational effort allows for the most efficient utilization of the limited number of trained recreation professionals available.

Formal city-school agreements were found to exist in 12 of the 15 cities surveyed. In the remaining three cities the school district and the recreation department had established informal working arrangements. The agreement signed by the Board of Education and the New York Department of Parks in 1941 is a good example. Under this arrangement, the City agreed to acquire sites large enough to provide space for school construction with an additional area to be under the management of the Department of Parks after school hours. As of 1966, there were 233 jointly operated park-school areas in the City. The Parks Department is responsible for recreation programs after 3:00 p.m. on weekdays and on weekends; however, indoor facilities of New York schools are not open on weekends and this has considerably weakened the effectiveness of the cooperative program. In Pittsburgh, school yards, athletic fields, swimming pools, and gymnasiums have been made available to the City for recreation purposes after school, during the evenings, on weekends, and during vacation periods. As of April 1968, the Bureau of Recreation was operating basketball, arts and crafts, and swimming programs after school at 26 high schools. The formal agreement between the Pittsburgh School District and the City provides that the City Bureau of Recreation will provide adequate supervisory personnel to carry out the indoor and outdoor programs that utilize school property, and provide the supplies required to carry out these activities.

Similarly, the City of St. Louis and the Board of Education have had an agreement to cooperate with and assist each other in operating recreation programs since 1961. Cooperative activities include summer playground programs, school

year swimming lessons, after school activities, and evening school programs. The agreement also provides for the sharing of facilities, programs, and personnel. Two somewhat unusual features of the St. Louis agreement are: (1) the City has complete charge of all school facilities during the summer, and (2) the City provides, in City pools, free swimming instruction for children in the St. Louis elementary schools as part of the Board of Education's physical education program. Similar agreements for the juxtaposition of school and recreation facilities and for joint recreation programs exist in Chicago, Los Angeles, Minneapolis, Nashville, Oakland, and Peoria.

Assistance From Other Local Government Agencies and Units

In addition to the facilities and programs offered by municipal park and recreation departments, other units of local and regional government assist cities, either directly or indirectly, meet their recreation needs. Such assistance may be provided by a housing authority that provides land and/or funds for the development of recreation facilities within the housing area, or by the development by a regional agency of an extensive park system, thus reducing the pressure on the city. In New York City, for instance, the Housing Authority develops children's playgrounds and passive recreation areas for adults. In 1966, the Housing Authority operated 171 playgrounds and provided space for community center programs in 109 housing developments. The housing and redevelopment agencies in Minneapolis, Nashville, and Peoria have established similar recreation facilities. The Chicago Park District has leased land from the Chicago Housing Authority for the installation of swimming pools at 30 locations within the City.

The East Bay Regional Park District in the Oakland area has approximately 18,000 acres of land. Some of the largest parks operated by the District are located adjacent to Oakland and, thus, pressures on the City for the expansion of park and recreation programs are reduced. Similarly, the San Antonio River Authority, established to conserve and develop the water and soil resources of the region, has developed two parks within the City of San Antonio. These parks emphasize boating, fishing, and picnicking activities.

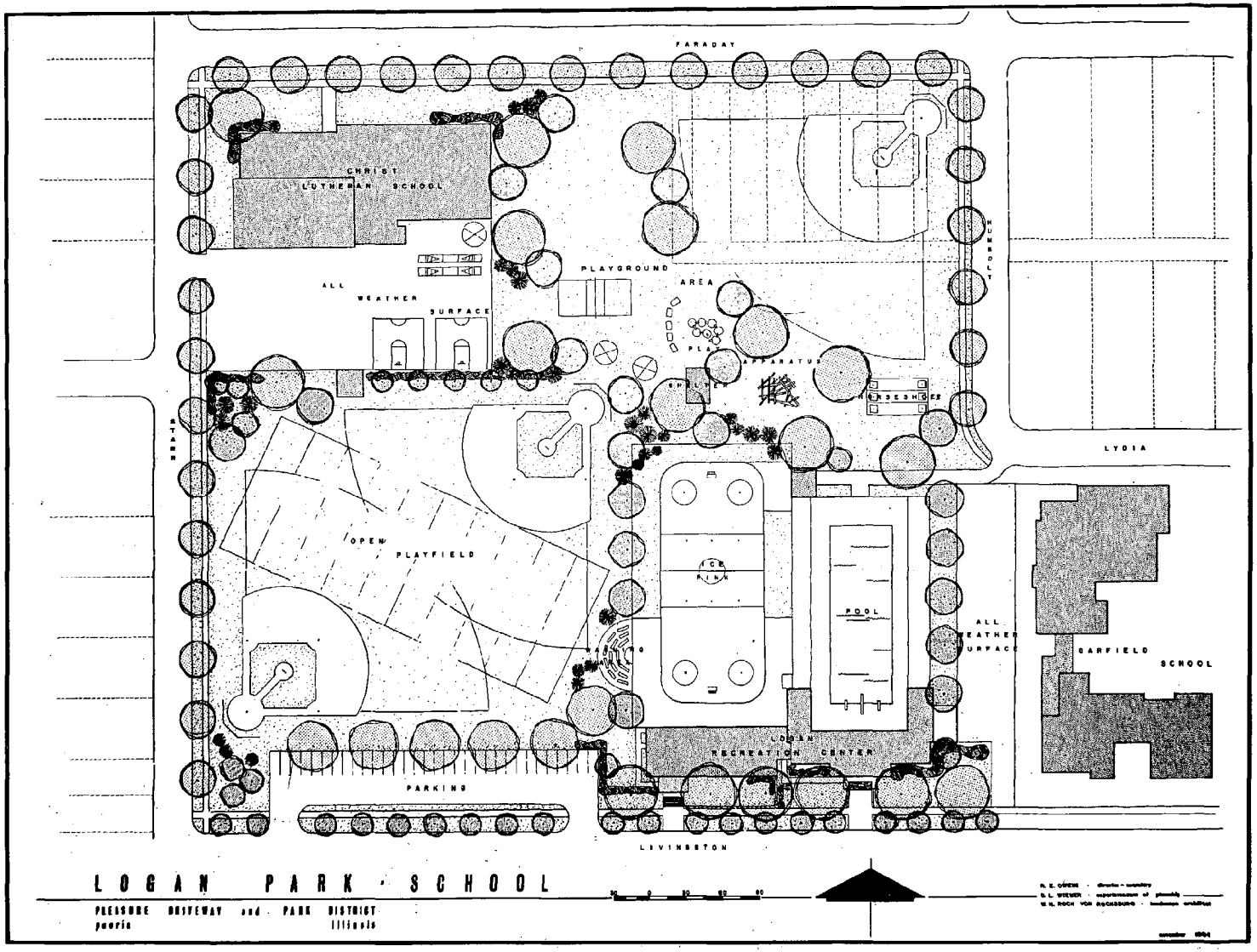
Recreation Programs of Semi-Public, Religious, and Private Organizations

Semi-public, religious, and private organizations make a substantial contribution to recreation in most cities. Some such organizations provide activities that supplement city recreation programs, while others provide financial assistance, coordination, and support. Perhaps their greatest contribution has been made through supplementing city summer recreation programs. Such organizations as neighborhood and settlement houses, Boy's Clubs, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, Salvation Army, Young Men's Christian Association, and Young Women's Christian Association are active in most cities.

In 1964, with a grant from the Astor Foundation, the Greater New York Council of the Boy Scouts of America prepared a plan to promote the Boy Scout program in ghetto areas of the City. The aim of this program was to reach and influence a large number of boys in areas in which the Scouting movement had not penetrated. The YMCA has also located facilities in ghetto areas and is providing recreational, educational, and other services in deprived neighborhoods. Such programs as these tend to counter the oft heard complaint of ghetto residents that these semi-public and religious organizations are middle-class oriented, and not mindful of the needs of the poor.

The Protestant Council of the City of New York sponsors a youth services program through which church facilities are used for recreation, education, and job placement programs.

The Arts and Education Council of Greater St. Louis attempts to stimulate the widest possible community interest and participation in cultural, recreational, and educational activities and to assist its 90 member organizations provide



A recreation-school complex now being developed by the Peoria Pleasure Driveway and Park District. In all cities visited, school and recreation personnel endorsed such joint development. To permit the construction of this facility, which serves both public and parochial schools, the City of Peoria vacated sections of two streets bisecting the area.

programs and services. The Council runs a Community Music School that provides low cost professional musical training to talented children in financial need, and it is presently funding a program of art instructors-in-residence at community centers in poverty neighborhoods. Project Street Corners in Peoria is sponsored by 12 governmental and non-governmental agencies including the Park District, YMCA, Boy's Club, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and Council of Churches. The purpose of the Project is to contact hard-to-reach teen-age youths, gain their confidence, and encourage them to go back to school, or to get vocational training or jobs. The Project sponsors basketball, volleyball, softball, and baseball teams, but recreation is used as a tool to reach those young people who have "dropped out" rather than as an end in itself. In each of its two years of operation, over 700 boys and girls have been enrolled in Project sponsored teams and programs.

Community action agencies funded by the Office of Economic Opportunity have contributed substantially to summer recreation programs in cities as previously indicated. An extremely effective program is Operation Champ conducted by the Baltimore community action agency. The Champ recreation program is geared specifically to the needs of inner-city youths. The program provides organized physical fitness and recreational activities that help young adults and teenagers acquire the physical and social skills that will aid them in overcoming the handicap of poverty. In addition, it also provides employment opportunities for those young people in poverty areas serving as junior counselors and assistant program supervisors in the administration of the program.

Industrial concerns throughout the country sponsor recreation programs for their employees. However, in the 15 cities surveyed, local business concerns were seldom involved in supporting public recreation. Notable exceptions were found in New York, Chicago, and Peoria. A Citizens Summer Committee in New York, composed of private citizens and corporation offi-

Semi-public agencies make significant contributions to overall city recreation programs. Pictured is the staff of the Peoria Project Street Corners jointly sponsored by 12 governmental and non-governmental agencies. Photo: Peoria Journal Star.

cials, has been established to promote and coordinate private contributions to the summer recreation effort. Private businesses and corporations in the city contributed more than half a million dollars to the Committee for summer recreation programs.

In Chicago, Sears Roebuck and Co. has supported six community center playlots for the last four summers. Games and activities available include dancing, basketball, volleyball, skating, and arts and crafts. On special activity days, outdoor movies are shown. In addition, Sears provides equipment and uniforms for summer recreation programs conducted at 26 public playground and school sites. In 1968, over 6,000 boys and girls participated in baseball, softball, basketball, and volleyball leagues in this program. Supervision for this program is provided by Youth Action, a cooperative agency created and supported by such organizations as the Chicago Boys Club, Hull House, YMCA of Metropolitan Chicago, and Youth Centers, as well as private business.

In Peoria, a baseball diamond, basketball courts, and horseshoe pits were constructed on land leased to the Park District by the Pabst Brewing Company. These facilities, adjacent to a public housing project, are jointly maintained and operated. An eleemosynary foundation in Peoria has shifted its area of interest in order to include outdoor recreation. The foundation has been instrumental in assisting the rapid growth of the park system by the outright donation of land, by leasing acreage to the District at no cost, by providing the local matching share required under the Federal Open-Space Land program, and by holding options on land until the Park District accumulated the necessary funds to purchase desired parcels.

Unused, Underused, and Potential Recreation Resources

Optimum utilization of potential recreation resources is not being achieved in most cities in the nation. Many publicly owned facilities are underused because they are not available in the evening or on the weekend. This is particularly the case with public schools, even in those communities in which the city and the school district have formal agreements for joint recreation programs. For example, in Peoria, elementary school gymnasiums are available for Park District recreation programs, but high school gymnasiums are not available for public use in order to preserve the wooden basketball floors. In Baltimore, only a quarter of the schools are open after school hours during the school year for recreation purposes, and none of the schools are open during the summertime.

Expressways and highway interchanges are absorbing substantial areas of land within the nation's cities. To date, among the 15 cities studied, only Oakland indicated any real effort to utilize this land. The City now operates a totlot under an existing freeway and is exploring possible uses for two acres within a cloverleaf. However, even more unfortunate is the underutilization of existing parks and recreation facilities. This often occurs because such facilities are unsafe or because disadvantaged citizens, particularly the slum children, do not have a means of transportation to such facilities.

The Open Lands Project in Chicago – an organization supported by the Community Trust, the Field Foundation of Illinois, and the Woods Charitable Fund, Inc. – has as its objectives the acquisition, preservation, and conservation of open land in the metropolitan area. The director of the organization has outlined several potential recreation ideas and resources, as follows:

1. Adventure playgrounds that minimize the use of fixed equipment in favor of children building their own equipment from tools and materials available.

2. Park District and school system cooperation for the development of a nature education program.

3. Development of recreation malls and the utilization of streets for recreation space.

4. New types of recreation buildings including an experimental high rise structure.

5. Multiple use of air rights for new recreation facilities.

6. Temporary use of land for recreation purposes, especially in urban renewal projects where land is awaiting development.

7. Closer realization of the relationship between recreation and housing.

8. Utilization of the Chicago riverfront for "sitting space."

NEW AND IMAGINATIVE APPROACHES TO RECREATION

Two significant attitudinal changes have occurred with respect to recreation in response to the social and economic forces at work in America's cities. First, and perhaps most important, it is now generally accepted, both within and without local government, that providing recreation for the nation's urban inhabitants is basically a local responsibility, and must be considered an essential municipal service as are fire and police protection and sanitation. The old concepts that recreation is a quasi-welfare activity and that parks are window dressing for the city are gone. Without this change and the accompanying acceptance of responsibility by local governments, all efforts to achieve viable and responsive recreation programs would be futile. The second change is one of emphasis. Cities have found that just providing facilities is not enough. Activities must be organized and promoted and supervision and leadership provided. Programs dominated by swings, slides, sports, and athletics are not enough. Recreation officials must provide something for everyone – programs responsive to neighborhood needs.

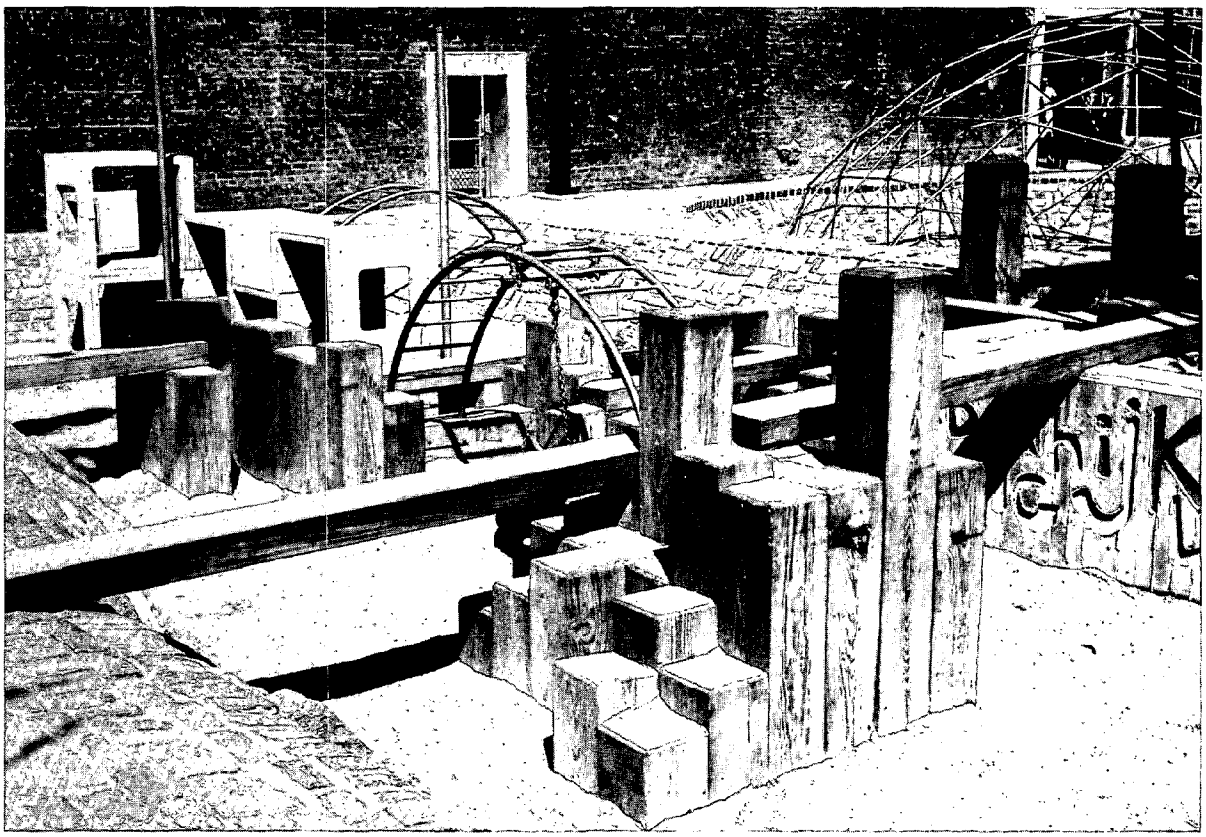
Demands for expanded recreation programs and additional facilities increase without regard to the availability of resources to provide them. City recreation officials, therefore, must devise new, imaginative, and creative approaches to recreation that will facilitate the utilization of existing resources to the fullest extent possible.

Land Use and Development

Multiple use of facilities is an effective method of optimizing the use of limited space. New York City recreation officials recognize that good design is the basic tool for achieving quality and effective utilization of space. A planetarium, located in a small vest-pocket park, has been constructed below grade, and the dome of the planetarium has been built in the shape of a pyramid for climbing so that no play area is sacrificed.

Revolutionary planning concepts in the design of new parks and playgrounds have resulted in a new look. Swings, seesaws, and slides are out of vogue; tunnels, earth mounds, and concrete forms are "in." The use of parks and playgrounds is also "in" because more and more children are beginning to use the playgrounds to take advantage of the new designs and facilities. In place of blacktopped areas, many parks and playgrounds in New York are covered with sand. Slides are placed on earth mounds and children slide into the sand. They crawl in tree houses and through concrete forms. In one new playground, water runs down a hill in an open concrete channel and children float boats in it.

Similarly, play equipment takes the form of rigid steel frames for climbing, open cubes, wooden logs bolted together to make climbing pyramids, and concrete U- and V-shaped modules. With the help of private sponsors, five "adventure playgrounds" are being constructed at several sites in the City. These playgrounds utilize a variety of mounds and pyramids for climbing and sliding; tunnels, concrete volcanos, tree houses, and a wooden stockade permit a wide range of interpretation by children. At another



Creative play experiences are encouraged by use of equipment designed to permit interpretation by children. New York City has retained a landscape architect to obtain the maximum advantage that can be achieved through proper design techniques. Photo: New York City Administration of Parks, Recreation and Cultural Affairs.

site, a recreation center for teen-agers is being turned into a "fun palace." This center will feature activities that young people want but do not find in the usual municipal recreation center. There will be a dance floor with a juke box overlooking a swimming pool, club rooms, game rooms, and sport courts. Another park features a central pool and fountain that are used for wading by day and can be drained for plays and dancing in the evening. At another site, a combination parking garage-playground has been created. The garage roof is a sports playfield; a deck over an adjacent ravine and railroad tracks is a children's playground. To encourage creative play experiences, standard equipment in unstandard uses such as slides pressed into mountains, sculptured stepping stones with sprayheads for hot weather, and playful structural frames for shade were specially designed.

Another example of multiple use of facilities is a swimming pool-recreation complex in Bedford-Stuyvesant that was constructed half a level below grade to permit use of its roof for a children's playground. Exhaust fan housings were designed as pyramid slides and vent stacks were designed as climbing poles. Under a grant from the Department of Housing and Urban Development, a local landscape architect has designed a variety of kinds of play equipment that can be placed on city-owned vacant lots and easily demounted and moved elsewhere when necessary.

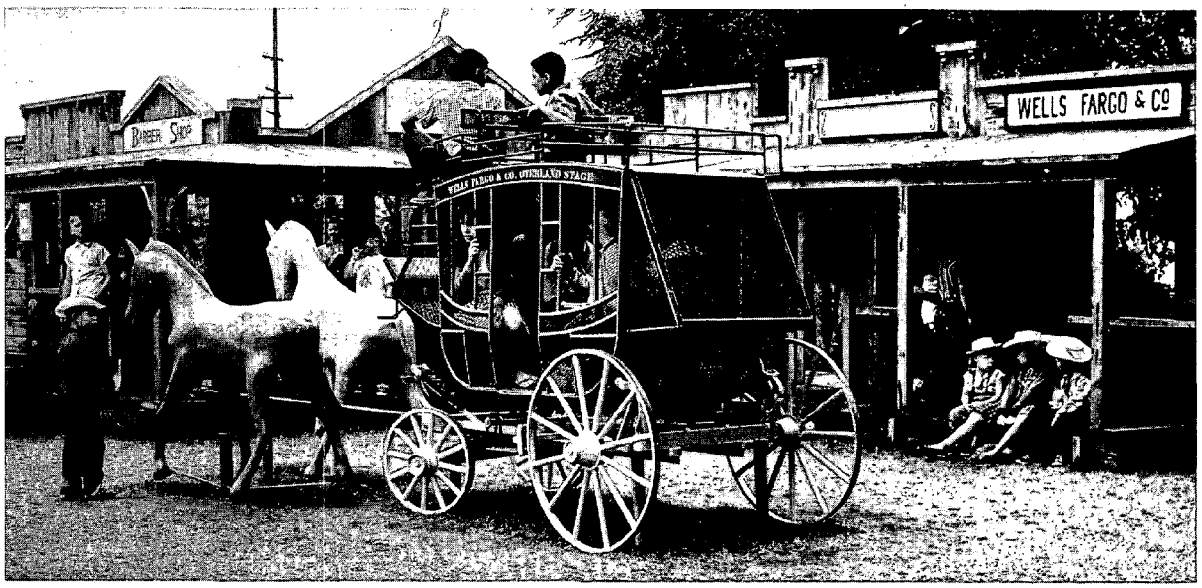
The Department of Parks plans to transform the Corona-Flushing Meadows Park, site of the 1964

World's Fair, into a truly urban park featuring an endless variety of active and passive forms of recreation. There will be outdoor playing fields of all kinds; indoor courts, tracks, ski and toboggan runs; and ingenious devices for improving one's baseball or golf game. Swimmers will enjoy a romantic spa-like environment featuring statuary, plants, and live music from platforms suspended over the pools. It is estimated that the park will accommodate some 100,000 persons at a time – 38,000 in specific activities, the others walking, sitting, or picnicking on the park's 1,257 acres.

A new approach to providing recreation in the City of Baltimore has been the construction of play lots in new housing projects undertaken through the Baltimore Urban Renewal and Housing Agency. When completed, these play lots are operated and maintained by the Department of Recreation and Parks. Baltimore has also employed a professional architect to design the new playground facilities. Resulting facilities are more attractive and therefore of greater recreational value to the City.

The City of Oakland is experimenting with multi-purpose use of land. It has developed a totlot under an existing freeway and consideration is now being given to the development of land encompassed by cloverleafs at freeway interchanges for recreation purposes. The recreation department has also developed an 18-hole golf course under the flight pattern at the local airport. The use of parks by younger children in Oakland has been promoted through the devel-

Standard playground equipment in unusual settings creates enthusiasm among children. This "adventure playground" in New York's Central Park illustrates the point. Photo: U.S. Bureau of Outdoor Recreation.



Theme parks developed by the Oakland Recreation Department offer opportunities for imaginative play experiences. Portable units, such as this one, are periodically moved to other locations throughout the City. Photo: City of Oakland Recreation Department.

opment of "theme" parks. Four such parks have been developed, one as an Old West city, one developed with a Japanese theme, one with a Swiss theme, and one with a Mother Goose theme.

Park facilities in most cities are painted a drab color such as "army green." The Superintendent of Parks in Minneapolis is having all park facilities painted bright colors so that they will look more cheerful. A lakeside beach house, previously utilized only during the summer, has been winterized so that it can be used by skaters during the winter. The Park Board has built "trike tracks" on several City playgrounds. Children can ride their tricycles on these hard surface "roads," that feature lane markings and miniature signs. These have proved quite popular with young children. With the recent popularity of jogging, Minneapolis has developed jogging trails at eight lake sites, and opens a local stadium daily from 7:00 a.m. to 8:30 p.m. to permit use of the quarter-mile track. There are many triangles and bits of land throughout Minneapolis that are too costly to maintain properly. Senior citizens who live near these pieces of land are encouraged to plant flowers and maintain gardens there. This provides a great deal of useful recreation, eases municipal property maintenance problems, and helps beautify the City.

Atlanta has persuaded owners of previously undeveloped land in slum neighborhoods to lease their property for recreation purposes. A survey was made of land availability in the six slum areas of the City. The Department of Parks and Recreation located the owners of some 48 vacant lots, junk heaps, and other littered areas and contracted with them to lease the land for recreation purposes for a token sum. The City formally agreed to absolve the owners from any liability resulting from accidents or other mishaps occurring on the property and also agreed to absorb the cost of cleaning up the areas, clearing them, and installing surfacing and necessary play equipment. This program served to beautify run-down areas as well as providing neighborhood recreational facilities.

In Chicago, the "alley-oop" project, sponsored by the Chicago Committee on Urban Opportunity, encourages closing off alleys and adjacent

land. These alleys, which have already been lighted, are made into recreation areas and painted with hopscotch courts on the pavement and games on the walls. Twenty-five of these facilities were created during the summer of 1968.

The Nashville Department of Parks and Recreation has reclaimed an eight-acre abandoned quarry located in the heart of a slum section of the City. A baseball diamond and park are now located on the site of the old quarry.

Program Development

To make New York City "a city for people and for living," the present City administration has undertaken a number of imaginative approaches to recreation. Three years ago a program was initiated to fill the City's parks at night through a series of events and "happenings" designed to draw the people back into the parks they had been afraid to use. This program has been successful; people are coming back into the parks and their presence and continuing use have made the parks both safe and pleasant.

A new program, called "Broadway in the Streets," was started in the spring of 1968 to bring Broadway productions to slum neighborhoods. The shows use a mixture of prominent Broadway performers and local neighborhood talent. Neighborhood performers are auditioned from each area a few weeks before the show and worked into the program. A flatbed truck serves as a portable stage for these performances and direct dialogue between actor and audience is always invited. Everybody is encouraged to sing or clap with the performers and shout a "YES"

The new look in parks includes futuristic playground equipment designed to capture the imagination of youngsters. The City of Minneapolis has installed play equipment like this in several parks throughout the City. Photo: Minneapolis Star and Tribune Co.

or "NO" to air their feelings. The real triumph of the show is the mixture of top professionals with judiciously-picked local talent. It has been a source of pride to the community to see that its own members are being recognized.

One of Atlanta's most unusual and effective efforts in the field of recreation is being made by the owner of a local radio station serving the Negro community who started working with the Recreation Division about 12 years ago. The station owner and a local phonograph record distributor combined forces in a musical effort to prevent troubles during the summer of 1968. In an unprecedented action, the two marshalled the services of the Office of Economic Opportunity, the Atlanta Police Department, the Board of Education, the Parks and Recreation Department, and the Atlanta Youth and Children's Services Commission, to use recorded music to prevent disorders. Using a $3,000 grant from OEO, the radio station staged between 5,000 and 6,000 record hops in underprivileged areas throughout the spring and summer. The local record distributor provided all the records free of charge. The station utilized ten assistant disc jockeys, all of whom were from ghettos and many of whom had problem pasts. These individuals were trained to handle the record hops by the operations manager of the radio station. The OEO grant was used to pay the bulk of their salaries. The Police Department provided five new station wagons equipped with sound amplifiers which circulated through the disadvantaged areas putting on daytime record hops in the streets. Members of the crime prevention bureau of the Police Department accompanied the station wagons to ward off trouble. The purpose of the program was to learn where trouble was likely to occur and to go there before the trouble started in hopes of heading it off by getting a dance going. The station owner states that dancing is the only social activity for teenagers and young adults in the lower socio-economic groups. He feels that his program has reduced ghetto tension and created better avenues of communication among the races.

The Pittsburgh summer recreation program this year will include water shows featuring diving exhibitions and synchronized swimming at each of the 25 City swimming pools. Pittsburgh was one of the first cities to realize that the Little League baseball program was not sufficient to provide for all of the City's youngsters who wished to participate in baseball activities. Thus the Parks and Recreation Department organized numerous community playground baseball leagues around the City. Pittsburgh also has an excellent recreation program for senior citizens which includes an annual picnic, games of chance, and auctions conducted with play money provided by the Parks and Recreation Department.

The Chicago Park District operates a traveling zoo to bring small animals into the slums for children to see. The District has employed a sculptor to design playground equipment with both aesthetics and durability in mind. In addition, the Chicago Police and Fire departments have undertaken recreation and sports programs designed primarily for children in slum neighborhoods to supplement the extensive recreation and sports activities of the Park District. The Fire Department has opened its gymnasium to children from 10:00 a.m. to 10:00 p.m. seven days a week throughout the year. Professional instructors are available to supervise basketball, handball, gymnastics, boxing, wrestling, judo, tennis, and volleyball programs. Nine swimming pools have been located adjacent to fire houses and Department personnel supervise swimming activities when not responding to a fire. Handball courts at 17 fire houses have also been opened to the public. Also, the Department sponsors 320 softball teams, provides tours on fire boats, and sponsors outings to major league baseball games. Swimming pools have also been located next to three police stations with police officers supervising pool activities. In addition, the Police Department sponsors overnight camping trips, fishing trips, and trips to major league ball games.

The Department of Parks and Recreation in Nashville has instituted two programs that provide both recreation and job skill training. For

Many city recreation departments are aided by other city departments in their efforts to provide a complete program of recreational alternatives. Here, athletic activities sponsored by the Chicago Fire Department supplement the Park District's Program. Photo: Chicago Fire Department.

older youth, the Department of Parks and Recreation has hauled old cars to school grounds throughout the City. Here, neighborhood youth can work on these cars and obtain practical mechanical experience. This is a completely unstructured recreational opportunity in which tools are provided and an adult is present only to answer questions and to share his mechanical knowledge. In the second program, professional musicians teach teen-agers and young adults to play musical instruments. This provides an indirect means of entry into the music industry, the largest industry in the City.

The City of Oakland has several recreation programs oriented toward the City's poverty areas. Included are a teen arts program; instruction in dressmaking, design and painting, and crafts; a free swimming program; talent shows and talent clinics; free tickets to motion picture theater parties; block dances for teen-agers; free tickets to major league baseball games; and local appearances by various entertainers and sports personalities.

The City of Los Angeles has several programs and means of implementing programs that are worthy of special note. One such program is the Athletes For A Better America program. Under this program professional athletes conduct sports clinics for the City's youth. The program is not only useful in teaching athletic skills, but also serves as a physical fitness program. A second sports activity was the organization of the Los Angeles Municipal Games. With this type of program, interest in sports activity is maintained throughout the entire summer as competition leads up to the final city-wide championships. Particular emphasis in this program is given to expanding the range of sports activities to offer opportunities to many children who have not previously competed in sports. In addition, the

Athletics other than team sports are becoming more and more popular. The annual Los Angeles Municipal Games provide meaningful competition for participants in 17 different events. Photo: Los Angeles City Recreation and Park Department.

Los Angeles Department of Recreation and Parks provides free slot car racing facilities in empty stores in slum neighborhoods and arranges with a local airline for free flights over the City and Pacific Ocean, thus providing many children a first experience in flying, and a chance to have a pre-flight tour of flight facilities. The Police and Fire departments in Los Angeles, as in Chicago, make a significant contribution to recreation. During 1967, they provided buses and drivers for the transportation of young people to beaches, parks, Disneyland, and other recreation sites in the metropolitan area.

The Pleasure Driveway and Park District of Peoria has only recently begun to enlarge the types of recreational programs available to city residents. Two extremely successful programs have been the day camp and fishing trips. The programs were for all City children, but residents of deprived neighborhoods were given two opportunities to participate in each program. For the fishing program, a total of 1,400 pounds of bullheads were stocked in two lakes on Park District land. A total of 1,105 children went on the fishing trips and caught 390 fish. The day camp was designed to provide city children with

a "taste of nature." Among the unusual park and recreation facilities operated by the District is a "nature trail" in one park in which visitors can see a wide variety of plant life, including rapidly vanishing prairie grass.

Communications and Public Relations Programs

The Street Club Service is a special program established by the Baltimore Bureau of Recreation to communicate with hard-to-reach young adults and teen-agers in order to encourage their participation in available recreation activities. Street Club Service workers spend the majority of their time on the street, in pool halls, or other places where young people congregate. Once initial contact has been made and the street worker has the confidence of the young, the worker attempts to interest them in constructive activities provided by both the City and private agencies. Individual and family counseling are provided through cooperation with public and private welfare agencies. The Service has also arranged special talent shows and camping programs for young people from deprived neighborhoods.

The Minneapolis recreation division has adopted a new approach to recreation based upon the

Successful recreation programs are those that provide something for everyone, and meet the specialized interests of various segments of the population. The fishing program in Peoria included stocking two lakes on Park District land. Photo: Peoria Journal Star.

idea that the effect of a recreation leader on younsters can be all important. Consequently, the entire recreation division is being restructured for the development of recreation leaders in order to provide a lower leader-child ratio. It is hoped that this will have a significant effect on anti-social behavior.

To overcome a communication gap, officials in Nashville have used newspaper advertisements to inform the general public of recreation programs and special events. With the cooperation of the Metropolitan Action Committee, the local outlet of the Office of Economic Opportunity, a meeting was held with young Negroes to get their ideas on recreation and other community services. The use of comic books in remedial reading programs is another innovative concept of the Recreation Department.

For promotional purposes, Oakland has developed a series of four brochures designed to outline the recreational activities available in each of four neighborhoods in the City. In addition to providing general information on city-wide recreation facilities, these brochures also describe the activities taking place within these neighborhoods.

RECREATION AND PARK PLANNING

Through the years, the Federal and state governments have planned and developed excellent national and state park systems in rural America, while many municipal recreation areas have been acquired through gifts of land or money, frequently without benefit of an overall plan. The development of effective park systems and recreation programs depends to a great extent upon the continuing availability of adequate financial resources. However, there is almost universal agreement that some kind of park and recreation planning is necessary if the best interests of city residents are to be served. All too often, acute land deficiencies, especially in high density neighborhoods, are directly attributable to inadequate planning.

Reasons for Planning

Planning is particularly important with regard to land acquisition and the designation of open spaces within a metropolitan area. There is little available land for parks and recreation in most cities, and what land is available is rapidly being developed. A park and recreation plan indicating the future needs of the city for land and facilities can be a valuable tool to city officials in meeting city recreation needs. Although the plan itself does not solve any problems, it presents a consensus of community views toward overall park and recreation development if properly conceived.

Most park and recreation master plans at present are land and facility oriented. In San Antonio, for instance, the basic objective of the master plan is the planned acquisition of land. The City has control over the development of all land for a distance of five miles outside its corporate limits. This permits control over subdivision growth and enables planners to designate specific sites for the development of an area-wide park system.

The primary emphasis of Baltimore's master park and recreation plan is on open spaces. The stated objectives of the plan are to: (1) establish a park and recreation open space policy that provides a structure for the future development of the City, insures high quality in the living environment, and provides adequate public open space and a well-rounded recreation program properly distributed in relation to future population; (2) promote expanded city participation in outdoor recreation, open space, and natural resources programs; (3) develop recreation, open space, and environmental considerations relating to the City's transportation system; (4) outline the possible contribution of private individuals, institutions, and industries; and (5) relate the total outdoor park and recreation program to Federal and state aid programs and to develop an outline of the capital budget for City expenditures for the next 20 years.

Portland is an example of a city that did not follow its recreation and park plan. The plan, developed in 1943, stated that ". . . the greatest deficiency is the manner, distribution, size, and equipment of children's playgrounds." Between 1943 and 1964, when a new plan was developed, only 2 of 17 playgrounds recommended for acquisition had been acquired. Of the remainder,

five had been lost through development for other purposes, five were in the planning stage, and five were still available but no plans had been developed for acquisition or use.

In Chicago and Oakland, the park and recreation plans are incorporated in the general city plan for land use and development. As such, they set forth broad community goals as a guide for city action, but do not set forth specific recreational objectives. The city councils use the plans as guides in evaluating proposals for physical changes and the scheduling of municipal improvements. City departments use the plans as guides in recommending changes in the construction of facilities. The plans constitute the framework within which the zoning boards make decisions, and they guide businessmen making decisions concerning the development of private facilities.

Participation in Planning

The end products of recreation planning depend in large part on the factors considered in plan preparation. In addition to professional planning and recreational personnel, elected officials, semi-public organizations and interest groups, and neighborhood associations should be encouraged to participate in the planning process. City councils are more inclined to approve plans in which a broad spectrum of the community has participated, and the plan itself will more likely be relevant to needs because it considers the advice and interest of land- facility- and people-oriented groups. Public participation is also important because it contributes to the citizen's feeling of involvement in decisions that affect him and his community. Insofar as possible, all recreation planning should be based on the desires of the consuming public, but always a balance must be struck between what people want, and what can be provided.

In Atlanta, citizen groups extending down to the block level participated in the formulation of the recreation plan. The Mayor, the Parks Committee of the Board of Aldermen, the City Planning Department, the Department of Parks and Recreation, the staff of Economic Opportunity Atlanta, the Community Council of the Atlanta area, and the Model Cities staff were just a few of the many departments and organizations which participated in the preparation of the plan. Similarly, the master park plan in San Antonio was prepared by the Planning Department in cooperation with the Department of Parks and Recreation, the Department of Urban Renewal, the Land Acquisition section of the City Attorney's office, the Board of Education, and local neighborhood citizen groups. The Health and Welfare Council of Metropolitan Chicago, the Chicago Association of Commerce and Industry, the Chicago Area Transportation Study Commission, and private consultants participated with City officials and professional personnel in developing the City's comprehensive plan.

In addition to citizen participation, opinion surveys, questionnaires, and random canvassing can be utilized to determine the recreation preferences of neighborhood residents. In Los Angeles, personal interviews and questionnaires were used to obtain the views of persons using neighborhood recreation centers. In Nashville, a survey of programs and activities by the Council of Community Services provided information for the City recreation plan.

The information obtained from surveys and through citizen participation in the planning process is of significance for two reasons. First, the data obtained from these sources represents a humanistic factor in planning that cannot be calculated on an "acres per capita" basis. Second, citizen participation helps recreation officials solve the problem of establishing recreation priorities and determining program needs.

Capital Improvement Plans

Capital improvement programs are virtual prerequisites for the implementation of the master park and recreation plan. Such plans usually cover five or six years, the first of which is for-

mally approved at budget time each year. The remaining years of the plan are tentatively approved subject to annual revision to assure that the program objectives are still relevant to community needs. In cities that do not have a master park and recreation plan, the capital improvement plan assumes even greater importance. In St. Louis, for example, the recreation plan has not been revised since January 1944. The City has had, however, a series of five-year capital improvement programs that have effectively provided for park and recreation needs. Similarly, in Minneapolis, the capital improvement plan has been expanded from a narrow budget-oriented tool to a comprehensive plan incorporating a program for park and recreation development.

Operating Without a Master Plan

Examination of Table 13 shows that 4 of the 15 cities visited – Minneapolis, Pittsburgh, St. Louis, and Tampa – are currently operating without a park and recreation plan. The absence of an overall park and recreation plan in Minneapolis apparently can be attributed directly to the City structure that provides for both an independent Park Board and City Planning Department. However, the need for a master plan is recognized and it is hoped that recently initiated Federal programs will result in the mutual development of such a plan. Pittsburgh, St. Louis, and Tampa utilize a capital improvement program for park and recreation facility planning. The danger of operating without a master park and recreation plan is that often the city finds that it is responding almost entirely to localized pressures with very little attention being given to comprehensive community-wide problems. This has been found to be the case in Pittsburgh.

Approach to Planning

Each city must develop a philosophy of planning and an actual plan which reflect the community's recreation and park needs while taking into consideration the area's unique characteristics. Thus, there are almost as many different kinds of plans and approaches to planning as there are cities. In developing its 15-year plan, all of Atlanta's parks were reclassified according to their suitability for community, neighborhood, or block parks. In order to make maximum use of existing parks, service areas were defined around the reclassified community parks using preliminary drafts of the new land use plan and population projections for 1983. Patterns of resident areas, natural boundaries, traditional neighborhoods, and industrial areas were given considerable weight. Chicago's comprehensive plan calls for the City to be developed as 16 separate units. The development plans of each separate unit will be distributed to various organizations and citizens concerned. Meetings will then be held between citizens and representatives of the City to discuss and revise development plans where appropriate. Projects proposed in the 16 development plans will be implemented through capital improvement programming.

The City of Dayton does not have an overall recreation and park plan but is developing individual area plans. These area plans, which must be approved by City Council, do not cover any particular time period, but are presented as stages that may be carried out whenever possible or desired. Park and recreation objectives vary in each individual area. This can be an effective approach to park and recreation planning in the absence of a master plan.

TABLE 13

PARK AND RECREATION PLANNING IN 15 SELECTED CITIES

City	Type of plan	Duration of plan	Updating	Financing for plan	Participants in developing the plan	Public hearings	Capital improvement plan
Atlanta	Park and Recreation Master Plan	15 years	Periodically	50% United Appeal 50% Citizens Park and Advisory Commission	Board of Aldermen, Mayor, City Planning Department, Park and Recreation Department, Community Council	Yes	Yes
Baltimore	Park and Recreation Master Plan	20 years	Periodically	City general fund	Recreation and Park Board, Planning Commission, City Council, City Departments, Citizens Groups, Private Consultant	Yes	Yes
Chicago	Comprehensive Plan for City	15 years	Continuous	City general fund	Plan Commission, City Council, Mayor, City Departments, Park District, Citizens, Semi-Public Organizations	Yes	Yes
Dayton	Area Plans for Parks and Recreation	Indefinite	No	City general fund	City Council, Neighborhood Group, Private Architect	No	Yes
Los Angeles	Park and Recreation Master Plan	10 years	Annual	City Planning Department	City Council, Planning Department, Citizens Groups, City Departments	Yes	Yes
Minneapolis	No Plan	–	–	–	–	–	Yes
Nashville	Park and Recreation Master Plan	6 years	–	City general fund	Park and Recreation Department is now in the process of developing the plan.	Yes	Yes

TABLE 13 (Continued)

PARK AND RECREATION PLANNING IN 15 SELECTED CITIES

City	Type of plan	Duration of plan	Updating	Financing for plan	Participants in developing the plan	Public hearings	Capital improvement plan
New York	Park and Recreation Master Plan	Indefinite	Annual	State and Federal Funds	City Planning Commission, City Operating Departments, State Department of Conservation, Neighborhood Groups	Yes	Yes
Oakland	General Development Plan for City	25 years	Annual	City Plan Commission	City Planning Commission, Mayor, City Council, City Departments, Community Groups	Yes	Yes
Peoria	Park and Recreation Master Plan	Indefinite	At Request of Staff	Park District funds	Park District, City Planning Department, School District, Tri-County Planning Commission, Recreation Advisory Committee	Yes	Yes
Pittsburgh	No Plan	–	–	–	–	–	Yes
Portland	Park and Recreation Master Plan	Indefinite	Annual	City general fund	Park and Recreation Department, City Manager, City Council, Planning Board, City Departments	Yes	Yes
St. Louis	No Plan	–	–	–	1944 Plan has never been updated	–	Yes
San Antonio	Park Master Plan	20 years	Every 5 years	City general fund	Department of Planning, Park and Recreation Advisory Board, Neighborhood Groups, City Departments	Yes	Yes
Tampa	No Plan	–	–	–	–	–	Yes

CONCLUSION

Cities must continue to expand their efforts to provide the kind of recreation the people want, when they want it, where they want it. Recognition of this constitutes the basis for all the changes and trends in recreation noted throughout this report. In much the same way that urban renewal and Model City programs are now attempting to emphasize human development as opposed to physical development, so must recreation be strengthened by citizen participation. To implement the policies and programs formulated in this manner requires the cooperation of all levels of government. Local governments need the active support of the Federal and state governments in such fields as land acquisition, facility construction, personnel training, and technical assistance. Without such support, parks and recreation programs may again be sacrificed for the maintenance of the basic protective functions of local government. Given such support, city officials and recreation personnel can continue to demonstrate their creative ability to innovate and develop recreational programs relevant to today's urban society.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

ACTUAL 1950 POPULATION OF PRESCHOOL AND SCHOOL-AGED RESIDENTS IN 15 SELECTED CITIES[1]

City	Total	Age groups			
		Under 5	5 - 9	10 - 14	15 - 19
New York	2,111,592	665,889	535,039	443,599	467,065
Chicago	991,063	327,176	256,150	205,323	202,414
Los Angeles	504,325	174,120	132,323	99,568	98,314
Baltimore	284,854	92,456	73,495	59,371	59,532
San Antonio	151,658	53,634	39,582	30,085	28,357
St. Louis	232,676	77,223	55,972	47,984	51,497
Pittsburgh	198,159	62,013	49,689	43,254	43,203
Atlanta	99,780	32,467	23,404	20,220	23,689
Minneapolis	143,316	48,632	35,247	27,528	31,909
Nashville	51,915	16,097	11,653	10,563	13,602
Oakland	99,994	35,256	25,104	19,622	20,012
Tampa	35,314	11,351	9,291	7,284	7,388
Dayton	70,619	25,362	17,252	14,123	13,882
Peoria	32,479	10,326	7,863	6,806	7,484
Portland	23,385	7,226	5,785	4,912	5,462
Total	5,031,129	1,639,228	1,277,849	1,040,242	1,073,810

[1] All data for this year derived from: U. S. Bureau of the Census. *U. S. Census of Population: 1960.* General Population Characteristics, Final Report PC (1), 1961.

APPENDIX B

ACTUAL 1960 POPULATION OF PRESCHOOL AND SCHOOL-AGED RESIDENTS IN 15 SELECTED CITIES[1]

City	Total	Age groups			
		Under 5	5 - 9	10 - 14	15 - 19
New York	2,344,736	686,717	595,847	575,321	486,851
Chicago	1,187,224	380,672	312,929	271,083	222,540
Los Angeles	810,950	249,232	221,451	192,416	147,851
Baltimore	339,431	102,609	90,093	81,472	65,257
San Antonio	255,152	79,593	71,415	60,590	43,554
St. Louis	250,483	82,184	66,033	55,736	46,530
Pittsburgh	200,783	58,101	53,137	48,035	41,510
Atlanta	176,844	52,894	46,821	41,492	35,637
Minneapolis	155,096	45,883	38,316	34,605	36,292
Nashville	61,420	18,571	15,646	13,296	13,907
Oakland	115,647	34,771	30,273	28,220	22,383
Tampa	97,461	28,669	26,559	23,925	18,308
Dayton	95,691	29,382	25,651	22,558	18,100
Peoria	36,359	10,793	9,374	8,426	7,766
Portland	25,201	7,135	6,478	6,230	5,358
Total	6,152,478	1,867,206	1,610,023	1,463,405	1,211,844

[1] All data for this year derived from: U. S. Bureau of the Census. *U. S. Census of Population: 1960.* General Population Characteristics, Final Report PC (1), 1961.

APPENDIX C

ESTIMATED 1965 POPULATION OF PRESCHOOL AND SCHOOL-AGED RESIDENTS IN 15 SELECTED CITIES

City	Total	Age groups			
		Under 5	5 - 9	10 - 14	15 - 19
New York[1]	2,891,700	785,700	769,500	704,700	631,800
Chicago[2]	1,264,300	372,500	333,000	302,500	256,300
Los Angeles[3]	1,071,100	277,100	274,400	270,200	249,400
Baltimore[4]	357,000	102,200	95,000	84,100	75,700
San Antonio[5]	293,800	91,600	82,100	70,000	50,100
St. Louis[6]	241,000	79,600	64,300	53,400	43,700
Pittsburgh[7]	192,100	55,000	46,700	46,600	43,800
Atlanta[8]	183,900	55,000	48,700	43,100	37,100
Minneapolis[3]	186,900	48,200	48,100	47,100	43,500
Nashville[3]	175,000	45,200	45,000	44,100	40,700
Oakland[9]	125,800	32,000	33,600	31,700	28,500
Tampa[3]	118,000	30,400	30,400	29,700	27,500
Dayton[3]	104,000	27,000	26,600	26,200	24,200
Peoria[3]	52,800	13,600	13,600	13,300	12,300
Portland[10]	12,200	3,300	3,300	3,100	2,500
Total	7,269,600	2,018,400	1,914,300	1,769,800	1,567,100

[1] Data supplied by Planning and Development Department, Port of New York Authority.
[2] Data supplied by Population Research and Training Center, University of Chicago.
[3] Data derived by the National Rate Method of population projection.
[4] Data supplied by Research and Planning Section, Baltimore Health Department.
[5] Data supplied by City Planning Department.
[6] Data supplied by City Plan Commission.
[7] Data supplied by Center for Regional Economic Studies, University of Pittsburgh.
[8] Data supplied by Physical Health Statistics Division, Georgia Department of Public Health.
[9] Data supplied by Survey Research Center, University of California at Berkeley.
[10] Data supplied by City Planning Board.

APPENDIX D

PROJECTED 1970 POPULATION OF PRESCHOOL AND SCHOOL-AGED RESIDENTS IN 15 SELECTED CITIES

City	Total	Age groups			
		Under 5	5 - 9	10 - 14	15 - 19
New York[1]	2,991,900	807,700	758,300	741,800	684,100
Chicago[2]	1,342,000	365,000	353,000	334,000	290,000
Los Angeles[3]	1,142,700	258,300	301,600	302,800	280,000
Baltimore[4]	359,400	95,200	91,900	93,200	79,100
San Antonio[5]	332,800	103,700	93,000	79,300	56,800
St. Louis[6]	248,500	73,500	73,600	54,900	46,500
Pittsburgh[7]	189,900	57,600	46,000	42,400	43,900
Atlanta[8]	191,000	57,100	50,600	44,800	38,500
Minneapolis[3]	193,200	43,700	51,000	51,200	47,300
Nashville[3]	177,700	40,200	46,900	47,100	43,500
Oakland[3]	150,900	34,100	39,800	40,000	37,000
Tampa[3]	132,300	29,900	34,900	35,100	32,400
Dayton[3]	112,600	25,500	29,600	29,900	27,600
Peoria[3]	53,500	12,100	14,100	14,200	13,100
Portland[9]	12,000	3,000	3,300	3,100	2,600
Total	7,630,400	2,006,600	1,987,600	1,913,800	1,722,400

[1] Data supplied by Planning and Development Department, Port of New York Authority.
[2] Data supplied by Population Research and Training Center, University of Chicago.
[3] Data derived by the National Rate Method of population projection.
[4] Data supplied by Research and Planning Section, Baltimore Health Department.
[5] Data supplied by City Planning Department.
[6] Data supplied by City Plan Commission.
[7] Data supplied by Center for Regional Economic Studies, University of Pittsburgh.
[8] Data supplied by Physical Health Statistics Division, Georgia Department of Public Health.
[9] Data supplied by City Planning Board.

APPENDIX E

PROJECTED 1980 POPULATION OF PRESCHOOL AND SCHOOL-AGED RESIDENTS IN 15 SELECTED CITIES[1]

City	Total	Age groups			
		Under 5	5 - 9	10 - 14	15 - 19
New York	2,929,100	777,800	694,000	673,500	783,800
Chicago	1,293,300	343,400	306,400	297,400	346,100
Los Angeles	1,256,400	333,600	297,700	288,900	336,200
Baltimore	323,900	86,000	76,700	74,500	86,700
San Antonio	324,300	86,100	76,800	74,600	86,800
St. Louis	227,200	60,300	53,800	52,300	60,800
Pittsburgh	191,400	50,900	45,300	44,000	51,200
Atlanta	193,600	51,400	45,900	44,500	51,800
Minneapolis	174,800	46,400	41,400	40,200	46,800
Nashville	177,500	47,100	42,100	40,800	47,500
Oakland	143,600	38,200	34,000	33,000	38,400
Tampa	150,400	39,900	35,600	34,600	40,300
Dayton	111,400	29,600	26,400	25,600	29,800
Peoria	52,000	13,800	12,300	12,000	13,900
Portland	23,600	6,300	5,600	5,400	6,300
Total	7,572,500	2,010,800	1,794,000	1,741,300	2,026,400

[1] All data for this year derived by the National Rate Method of population projection.

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