The Relationship Of Port Development And Urban Waterfront Revitalization

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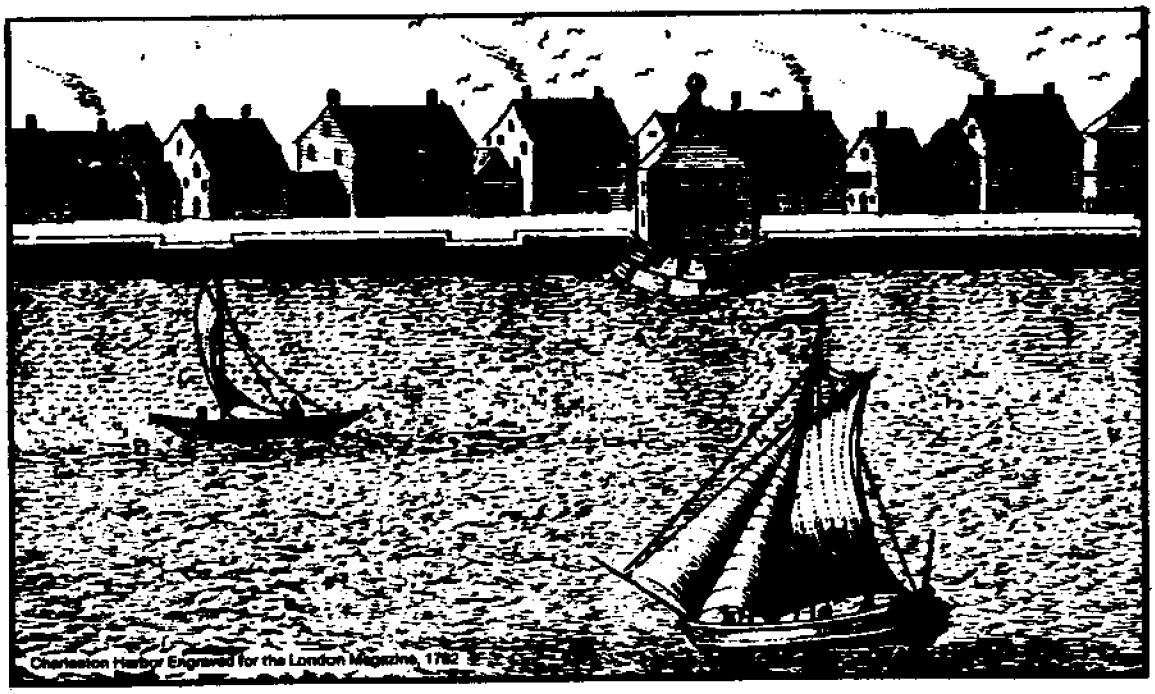

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PORT DEVELOPMENT
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I. EXECUTIVE SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The broad purpose of this report is to examine the relationship of port development and urban waterfront revitalization in the United States. Increasingly, it has been recognized that port authorities tend to maintain an isolated position in the local planning and development scene. Yet, it is also clear that both ports and urban development interests have a compelling stake in mix and type of land and water uses which come to be located in the urban waterfront.

In order to understand more thoroughly and explicity this relationship, the Great Lakes and Marine Waters Center of the University of Michigan at Ann Arbor received a grant from the Maritime Administration of the U. S. Department of Commerce. A study was undertaken which included review of ports and urban waterfront revitalization literature, site visits to cities which had taken innovative approaches to planning, and a nation-wide survey of ports administrators and urban waterfront redevelopment interests. The final stages of the writing of this report were accomplished at the Center for Metropolitan Affairs (CMA) of the College of Charleston, South Carolina, under the auspices of the South Carolina Sea Grant Consortium,[1] from materials and notes mostly collected during the main study.

[1] The South Carolina Sea Grant Consortium is also supporting another urban waterfront project at the CMA and judged this project to be in support of that effort.

We have tried to treat the issues originally identified and to provide some explanatory and illustrative materials. Readers are cautioned not to expect a scholarly treatise, peppered with citations. Rather it is our intent to provide a readable and informal discussion based on information which is fairly well-known in the field. Those who want more detailed information are advised to consult the references in the Select Bibliography and at the end of each chapter.

This report is organized in seven major sections. Following this summary is an overview of port development and urban waterfront revitalization, showing that ports have come to face competition for urban space which is unparalleled in American history. Section III takes up this theme of competition to discuss the port's demand for diminishing land and water resources. Changing technologies have created a period of dynamic tension, and five planning approaches are discussed as possible ways to minimize the negative impact of port growth in an "era of limits". The fourth section focuses on the aims of urban waterfront revitalization, particularly as they relate to the dynamic relationship between the port and the city, and summarizes some of the development strategies which have been applied in an effort to attain a compatible mix of maritime and non-maritime uses. The fifth section uses game theory to introduce the subject of interagency coordination and cooperation by describing the "rules" and "pay-offs" of the port and urban waterfront developers and by showing how communication between the

players can affect the amount of the total pay-off to both. With this background, planning approaches are re-examined with particular reference to this capacity to unite various interests including ports. Section VI provides a brief summary of some of the fiscal aspects of port development and urban waterfront revitalization, with concluding comments about how fiscal structures may intensify the emerging trend for ports to become involved with the broader issues of urban waterfront revitalization, providing public access for a variety of uses. The final section of the text gives our recommendations for future research. The Appendices should be considered as an important part of this report because they present important factual information cutting across various topics.

One thing that our research has shown us that we are dealing with a subject of infinite variety. The relationship of the port and the city is bound up in geography, economy, politics, and history. The kinds of problems vary with each individual community, as do the kinds of solutions which seem promising. However, we have identified some problems and approaches which seem to be fairly-widely applicable. Thus, we offer the following recommendations for consideration of planners, developers, elected officials, ports administrators,and others who are interested in the resolution of port and urban waterfront revitalization interests:

1. Urban areas should establish planning mechanisms which address the needs of the port along with the major considerations of urban waterfront revitalization. Federally-mandated structures

like Regional Planning Councils (or Councils of Governments) and Coastal Zone Management may serve as a lead agency, perhaps securing input from advisory bodies, or power may be invested in comprehensive land use planning. Structures must be adapted to the institutional characteristics of the community, but some means should be provided for broad input and there should be adequate resources available for meaningful analysis and information collection. (Section III.)

2. Planners should seek a compatible balance of maritime and non-maritime uses, recognizing that many functions can be enhanced by the presence of a working harbor. Shipping operations can form the basis for a civic identity of the type which "Renaissance cities" seek to promote. (Section IV.)

3. Site clearance and rebuilding should be considered as a development approach when conditions have very greatly deteriorated. However, such development should be undertaken with full consideration of preservation of valuable structures and of urban neighborhoods. (Section IV.)

4. Adaptive re-use should be made of facilities which have become obsolete but which could serve some productive purpose. However, sensitivity should be exercised to the issue of gentrification and to the preservation of the building's original functional context whenever possible. (Section IV.)

5. Port development of mixed-use facilities (organized either as shared space or shared time) and waterfront parks are means by which ports could maintain good public relations and use facilities

not needed for maritime functions, without sacrificing the long-term control of resources which may be needed in the future. (Section IV.)

6. Ports and other urban waterfront interests should engage in cooperative planning in recognition of their interdependence and close relationship. Through the community's planning structure, and through other channels, the port and other interests can learn each other's language and goals to avoid later conflict and to arrive at mutually-satisfactory development strategies. (Section V.)

7. Governments at all levels should examine the structure of their fiscal relationships to ports to develop incentives for ports to participate in urban waterfront projects which meet local and regional needs. (Section VI.)

8. Ports should consider community needs in resource management, handling leases and property in such a way that public use will be enhanced and other interests will not be induced to extend compulsory jurisdiction over the port in these matters. (Section VI.)

II: THE URBAN WATERFRONT IN TRANSITION: OVERVIEW OF PORT DEVELOPMENT AND URBAN WATERFRONT REVITALIZATION

Ports in American history

In the early history of the United States, the port city was where all the important social, political, and economic forces converged. As the commercial extension of mercantile Europe, the ports gave colonial America its reason for being. Through the ports came the materials and people which were essential to survival and growth. Through the ports crops were converted into cash and the often-tenuous ties to civilization were maintained. Ports were the hub of political, economic, cultural, and population centers. All the major cities were seaports. Because these cities owed their existence to the viability of the ports, their inhabitants conceded to maritime interests a dominant position in town life. Port developers did not have to compete with other potential users for their position on the urban waterfront. A laissez-faire attitude prevailed and port expansion was constrained only by the limits of available capital and technology.

Gradually, however, this situation began to change. The inland expansion of the country inevitably meant that the old port cities declined in relative, if not absolute, importance. As political autonomy and economic development made the country more self-sufficient, the old ties to Europe became less a matter of survival and more a question for debate. For the first time since Columbus, American Isolationism became at least a theoretical possibility. The Industrial Revolution intensified these emerging trends. Then, the introduction of the railroad, and

later, of the automobile and the highway system, surface transportation became not only possible but also economically competitive with water routes for trade within the continent. In the old port cities, many old facilities were abandoned or taken for other uses. A similar process of abandonment acted upon the people who had worked in the maritime industries of these cities. With land, water, and labor no longer needed for shipping, industrialists found conditions well suited to the conversion of port cities to factory towns.

Despite these changes, ports have always remained an important part of the American economy. Ports and the maritime industries have adapted to changing conditions and have expanded with the expanding world wide population and economy. Although no longer enjoying the all-powerful position they experienced in the Eighteenth Century, ports have found an essential place in a complex transportation system. As the United States has emerged as a leading supplier and consumer of the world's production and resources, American ports have played a leading role in distribution. As the economy has come to be dominated by increasingly large and complex institutions, so too have port operations become more systematic and complex. No longer characterized as a loose association of free-wheeling merchant adventurers, today's port functions within a complex set of legal, institutional, economic, and technological parameters. Local port authorities are now aware of responsibilities not only to shippers, but also to the community, region, and national economy in which they operate. To balance these responsibilities and to make decisions which will have impact for decades in the future, port authorities use sophisticated tools from administration, economics,

policy analysis, engineering, and finance. They effectively integrate various professional approaches and deal with a very elaborate regulatory environment.

Varied users of waterfront resources

One aspect of this more complex environment is that ports face increasing competition for the resources of the urban waterfront. As port cities have become less dependent on maritime activities, they have come to regard port operations as merely one among many alternative uses of the waterfront. Not only do ports face competition with alternative commercial users--such as the manufacturing interests which moved into many port cities in the early days of the industrial revolution--but also there is competition from a new constituency, from the citizens themselves. Today it is easy to observe a new approach to the allocation of space. In particular, we can note a dramatic expansion of the roles of political institutions and community organizations in articulating diverse interests and in making decisions about the types and mix of activities which will be situated along the urban waterfront.

Concurrently with increased national attention to areas like urban renewal, resource conservation, economic development, and historic preservation, there has emerged a movement aimed at waterfront revitalizations; under this general label can be included a great variety of activities directed to a great variety of purposes. A key theme is that of diversity in use patterns, the creation of an urban water-related environment which would not be solely dedicated to the purposes of any one commercial interest but which would also meet the diverse needs of the

people who reside in the city or region. Another dominant theme is that of citizen participation in securing access,not only to the waterfront as the ultimate product but also to the planning process.

Typically, urban waterfront revitalization brings together a number of actors in varying ways to work for often-contradictory, sometimes-complementary, purposes. Municipal officials may be interested in balanced economic development to eliminate blight and increase the tax base. Regional planners may be interested in resource conservation or in jobs for the unemployed. Business interests may be concerned with the effective and efficient location of their enterprises or of activities which support or enhance their activities. Citizens' groups may join in to advocate for or against a given activity on the grounds of safety, aesthetics, or access. All of these actors operate within a very complex and often fragmented milieu, which is,of course,affected by decisions made outside of the bounds of the particular city or region in question.

Public policy and the urban waterfront

Federal legislation indicates a strong commitment to many of the aims of urban waterfront revitalization, regulating some types of activities and providing incentives to others. Through a large number of programs and agencies, from Housing and Urban Development to the Department of Interior, the U. S. government has often provided the funds necessary to the realization of many revitalization ideas originating at the local level. The Coastal Zone Management Act of 1972, as amended, seeks to address the issues of conservation, preservation, and public access in a coodinated and public way. As 16 U. S. C. 1451 states:

> in light of competing demands and the urgent need to protect and to give high priority to natural systems in the coastal zone present state and local institutional arrangements for planning and regulating land and water uses in such areas are inadequate.
>
> The key to more effective protection and use of the land and water resources of the coastal zone is to encourage the states to exercise their full authority over the lands and waters of the coastal zone by assisting the states, in cooperation with Federal and local governments and other vitally affected interests, in developing land and water use programs for the coastal zone, including unified policies, criteria, standards, methods, and processes for dealing with land and water use decisions of more than local significance.

Additionally, the federal government has, over the course of time, continually reaffirmed its understanding of the importance of ports to the national interest. Through such varied Departments as Commerce and Defense and through other entities like the Army Corps of Engineers, the U. S. has been deeply involved in the activities of port operation.

Both federal policy and local policy-making in the areas of port development and urban waterfront revitalization have been criticized as fragmented and incoherent. Perhaps this situation is almost inevitable given the multiplicity of interests involved. Perhaps bargaining within a range of institutional and legal constraints does in fact provide the fairest way to arrive at decisions. On the other hand, such a process cannot reflect all the relevant interests unless they are willing and able to participate in the decision process.

Port involvement in community decision making

It is clear that ports have a very definite stake in the decisions which affect the allocation and use of urban waterfront land.

Obviously, as decisions are made on development projects which must project far into the future, it is essential that the port have some degree of certainty that adequate land and water will be available. Also, the port has an interest in whatever affects the community in which it resides. Part of the potential for future development depends on the cooperation and support of the surrounding community, and that cooperation may depend on good public relations and strategies for mutual cooperation. Further, the port has an interest in the creation of a community environment which will meet the varied needs of its employees and which will be hospitable to those with whom it deals.

Yet, it is also clear that in some instances ports have not participated in the decision processes relating to urban waterfront redevelopment. This report will seek to understand the reasons for this lack of participation. By describing the goals and contexts of both port development and urban waterfront revitalization we hope to identify barriers to cooperation and possible areas of common interest. By looking at the experiences of communities nation wide, we will discuss some of the strategies which have been used to approach this problem. Through such discussion, we hope to encourage other communities to implement suitable approaches leading to the integration and reconcilation of these two interests which are both so important and which are so closely intertwined.

*The above discussion is intended to raise issues which will be developed later in this paper. Related discussions can be found in Cowey (1976) and in the Overview Section of the Committee on Urban Waterfront Lands' (1980) Urban Waterfront Lands.

III. COMPETITION ALONG THE WATERFRONT: THE PORT'S DEMAND FOR DIMINISHING LAND AND WATER RESOURCES.

Impact of technological change on ports

In the last few decades, the maritime industries have been profoundly affected by technological innovations. These developments have important consequences which ripple out to the whole range of port operations. In particular, ports are taking a new look at what kinds of facilities will be needed in the future, and port development is reflecting fundamental changes in the amount and type of space demanded for port operations. Such changes are often cited as being nothing short of revolutionary and have important implications not only for ports but for the urban waterfront in general.

Much of this revolution can be attributed to changes in cargo handling technology. By far the most significant development in recent years was the introduction of containerization in the late 1950's by the MacLean Trucking Company. This method and other alternatives to the traditional break-bulk methods allow for much quicker loading and unloading and greatly increase economies of scale. To handle the larger ships which can take advantage of these economies of scale, larger ports with deeper channels are required. Because cargo can be unloaded quicker than it is sent out, more back-up land is needed. Containerization has already brought about huge amounts of capital expansion, both to enlarge ports and to install the enormous lifts and cranes needed to load the large cargo units. It is expected that such capital investments will be only justified with a life span of

approximately twenty years, and expansion has taken into account projected growth in cargo trade and the possibility of attracting trade from competitive ports. Thus, the extent to which ports have committed themselves to the new cargo handling methods is indeed significant. It has been argued that competition has driven the ports into over-expansion of facilities, beyond what could reasonably be expected to be demanded by the volume of trade. Such a situation has not yet been clearly observed; however, the possibility is real enough that ports have become increasingly interested in long term planning and other strategies to narrow the range of uncertainty and ensure the viability of their expansion. The goal of such planning might be summed up by a port administrator's survey response (see Appendix II for discussion of Survey) that he seeks "service, efficiency, competitive rates, and speciality handling."

Not only has the technological revolution brought about an expansion of existing port facilities, but it has also changed the patterns of their distribution. Many old port facilities' shallow channels and finger piers have become or seem likely to become obsolete. Rather than adapt these facilities, many ports are electing to relocate their operations to other sites, often outside of the central city, where land is more available or more suitable. Furthermore, the new technologies' economics of scale encourage ships to stop at fewer ports, unloading more at each port. In the short term, there is reason for concern that this fact will lead to damaging competition and over-supply of port facilities. In the long term, the trend may be toward

the concentration of facilities and regional ports which are large enough and sufficiently well equipped to handle the new kind of trade efficiently. Alternatively, it is possible that individual ports will become specialists in one type of traffic, rather in the same manner that the market in many consumer goods has come to be characterized by monopolistic competition. In this type of industry, each firm produces a slightly different product, so that product differentiation, rather than price, becomes the basis for competitive advantage. Thus, historic rivals like San Francisco and Oakland would no longer engage in direct price competition for a single kind of trade.

Impact on the urban waterfront

The impact on the urban waterfront is enormous. Obviously, the tendency toward part expansion would add to the pressure on waterfront resources which are already in great demand. For urban areas, problems with crowding, congestion, and pollution may be exacerbated; expansion into undeveloped areas may be severly constrained by environmental regulations or inhibited by local waterfront plans. In contrast, the tendency to relocate port facilities may free urban waterfront land for other uses, or may repeat the processes of the Nineteenth and Twentieth Centuries when port facilities were simply abandoned and blight left behind. In either event, it is clear that the relationship between the port and the urban waterfront is in a particularly important period of transition. This period, like all periods of change, is likely to be characterized by conflict and tension.

The basis for this conflict is the existence of many competing in-

terests which all demand a part of the urban waterfront, as our Survey (see Appendix II, figure 1A) clearly indicates. Maritime activity demands a very specific configuration of land to water, and, historically, this function has been granted a predominant place. Ports also demand a range of support services, particularly an adequate inland transportation network, which consume still more space. At the same time, other interests demand space for activities which are dependent on, or could be enhanced by, location on the urban waterfront. Recreation, open space, private business, and community-oriented activities are among the functions which might be traded off against port expansion. All of this is acted out against a background of diminishing resources. The severe effects of environmental degradation have already been experienced, as when a river becomes unable to cleanse itself. As yet, there has been no definitive institutional response to this "era of limits", but a host of approaches have been applied to the allocation of scarce resources and the minimization of the adverse impact of port expansion.

Planning approaches

One such approach is the regional land use planning commission with police power, of which the foremost example is San Francisco's Bay Conservation and Development Commission (See Appendix I.F.). In this framework, a political mechanism is created to study the available land and water resources and the demands upon them by various competing uses. With such information the planner seeks the optimal mix of uses and allocation of resources. Rather than considering individual sites in isolation, the regional approach is to map out the whole area and consider each part in relation to the whole. Uses are to be considered as part of an integrated

system, and each activity is to be located with thought to positive or negative impacts on other uses. In this framework, transportation networks and other integrating features, like topography and aesthetics, are of paramount importance. Support facilities like parking are to be located in a rational relationship to the anticipated demand. Regional planning seeks to allow all possible uses to be considered simultaneously with all available resources so that uses with the most specific site requirements (e.g., those which are most heavily water-dependent) would have priority for the use of those few sites which meet their needs. Further, this approach should enable to the community to set the overall limits for the growth of various activities, to keep their impact within the range that the community can absorb.

However, in practice, this approach is not without problems. First, any plan is only as good as the information from which it is derived. The mere mapping of topographical features of waterfront lands or of harbors may in many instances present enormous practical problems; other issues, like the level of pollution which a community is able to tolerate, are of even greater difficulty because they depend on fundamental considerations of value about which there is not likely to be community-wide consensus. Another set of problems relates to the amount of control which is part of this approach. While police power is needed to enforce the plan and assert the public interest over the interests of individual actors, too much control will lead to rigidity and red tape. Further, like all kinds of enforced compromises, the result is likely to please no-one, leading to the political vulnera-

bility of the planning effort.

A second approach is regional coastal zone management. Given impetus by the Coastal Zone Management Act of 1972, the planning approach seeks directly to balance needs for environmental preservation and economic development in coastal areas. Derived from the environmental/ ecological movement, the Act originally focused on the preservation of undeveloped coastal areas. However, in subsequent years, the process came to be applied to urban waterfronts in recognition of the fact that most coastal inhabitants live in cities and that the urban environment must be addressed. Regional coastal zone management, used in Baltimore (Appendix I.A.), shares with other regional planning strategies an emphasis on systems and interrelationships among component parts. However, it is narrower than land use planning in that it is concerned only with lands which fall into the pre-defined Coastal Zone. Regional coastal zone management has the advantage of a clear focus on some of the most important impacts of growth. Conversely, this focus can be a hindrance in that coastal zone management may tend to be isolated from other interests. Although established with clear mandates for community participation, it may be handicapped by its relatively technical focus which creates a tendency for important interests not to participate. Further, CZM plans typically are not related to enforcement powers, so that there may be serious difficulties in their implementation. Even when states elect to create an enforcement mechanism, like South Carolina's Coastal Council, such enforcement usually acts only in the negative sense of exercising a permitting

authority, controlling the extent but not the nature of resources utilization. Thus CZM is sometimes perceived as a regulatory rather than planning instrument. As a survey respondent remarked about zoning, "it is not good enough to create new uses-only to prevent abuses."

A third approach, used in Seattle, is local coastal planning. This approach shares the basic orientation of (and is sometimes supported by grants from) coastal zone management and has many of the same weaknesses. The local focus means that system-wide planning is not possible. While decisions are made at the local level, conditions are often shaped at the regional level. Thus the approach has fundamental problems as a way to minimize the negative impact of port expansion on the community. However, the approach is probably not an unmitigated disaster. It can be argued that it makes the task of planning manageable by making it small. Local planners may reach the community more directly and attain a better understanding of that community's interest. Further, the smaller planning body may fit better with existing jurisdictional lines, facilitating relationships with other local governmental units, such as city planning departments, and strengthening the planning and control activities of all. In some areas it is the only game in town. It seems fair to say that local coastal zone planning is effective as a strategy to minimize the impact of port expansion insofar as the local jurisdiction's territory reflects the "natural" boundaries of the metropolitan area, or insofar as the particular locality is free from outside influences.

A fourth approach, used in the state of California, is the unified

port district with state coastal zone management. The unified port district is a geographical area in which port functions are controlled by an autonomous board with members politically selected. The state coastal zone management agency exercises planning and management functions and administers various grants. The unified port acts as sponsor for some CZM grants. The port district, as an autonomous local unit, is in a position to hear and respond to local community interests. There are built-in checks and balances. However, the strength of the unified port district can mitigate against efforts to check port expansion. State coastal zone management can easily be overwhelmed by the clout of the numerous port districts. Although the unified port district is likely to take some account of community wishes, the fact remains that its primary motivation is economic and that it must reflect market forces.

A fifth strategy is the bi-state regional land/water use plan. This mechanism seeks to address the problems of port expansion when two states, like Minnesota and Wisconsin (Appendix I.C.) and New York and New Jersey, share a single harbor. In many ways, this approach resembles regional land use planning, when the region may cross several jurisdictional lines. However, the need to cross state lines presents more complex organizational problems. Historically, the authorities by which localities regulate their waterfronts emanate from the state, and states have been extremely reluctant to surrender their sovereignty to other entities. Thus the bi-state regional planning mechanism, established by mutual agreement of two states in a process almost like forming an international treaty, is likely to be quite limited in

authority, often existing only in an advisory capacity to the two states without enforcement powers of its own. Given the voluntary nature of this association, there may be difficulties in curbing the tendency toward competition between the states--the conflict between local and regional interests--and to arrive at the level of expansion and growth which best meets the needs of the region as a whole. In spite of these difficulties, some states have elected to implement this mechanism because of the compelling interest in minimizing the negative effects of port expansion, an effort which is often meaningful only at the regional level. It seems likely that this approach will become more popular in the future. As metropolitan areas continue to expand, the bi-state city will become more common and the need to address interrelationships which cross jurisdictions will be more acutely felt. Further, the increasing role of the federal government is likely to encourage this sort of arrangement. More and more, environmental standards are being set at the national level and impetus is being given to localities to conform with national standards in the utilization of federal funds. Such emphasis at the national level could minimize inter-state conflict by setting the ground rules and thus serving to reduce the practical importance of the theory of state sovereignty. State governments may, of course, debate this contention.

Summary

In summary, we have seen that technological changes have spurred port expansion and/or relocation in recent years, which have had a profound effect on the urban waterfront. As concern with the quality

of life for the urban resident has increased, community interests have become less willing to grant ports a dominant place on the urban waterfront. Competition for scarce land and water resources is being acted out against a complex regulatory environment. Five planning approaches--the regional land use plan with police power, regional coastal zone management, local coastal planning, the unified port district with state coastal zone management, and the bi-state regional land/water use plan--have been discussed as potential means to minimize the negative impact of port expansion. All are imperfect instruments, and depend on the merit of the information which reaches them and the extent to which they are able to secure participation from the interested parties. In particular it is essential that planners understand the needs of the port and they they be able to work closely with this major user of the urban waterfront in making decisions about allocation and growth. It is arguable that only by participating in the planning process can ports assure that they will have access to the resources which they will need to maintain their position in a period of port growth. Moreover, by failing to participate, ports are missing opportunities to shape the direction of the development of the urban waterfront.

*A great deal of information on the port's demand for resources is contained in the various port studies listed in the Select Bibliography. For planning approaches, see the cases in Appendix I. An excellent discussion by Henry Marcus, et. al. on "The Impact of Changes in Transportation Technology on the Use of Land in Harbor Areas" appears in Urban Waterfront Lands (Committee on Urban Waterfront Lands, 1980) and related issues are discussed throughout

that volume. See also Pithen, Knecht, and Brinson (1979), Panel on Future Port Requirements of the United States (1979), Committee on the Impact of Maritime Services on Local Populations (1979).

IV. REVITALIZATION OF THE URBAN WATERFRONT

Problems and issues

It is perhaps paradoxical that a period of growth in the maritime industries should have brought about a deterioration of conditions along the urban waterfront. However, a time of growth is a time of change and change almost inevitably brings with it friction and displacement of elements which had been well adapted to conditions in the old order. In the last section, technological innovations and competition were discussed as forces leading to port expansion and increased pressure upon the finite resources of the urban waterfront. However, as has already been mentioned, crowding is not the only way that changes in the shipping industry have affected the urban waterfront. This section will discuss the processes of abandonment and underutilization as they relate to urban waterfront revitalization.

In cities throughout the United States, changes occur--sometimes rapid and sometimes, as in Boston, developing over the course of a century--in the kinds of land and equipment utilized; many piers and warehouses have been allowed to decay or relegated to non-maritime use. This underutilization presents a problem to the local jurisdiction since land is not given to the optimal use and the local economy suffers.

Another face of the same problem is the issue of blight. Abandoned and non-productive facilities become eye-sores and contribute to the general problem of urban decay which has long

been a big issue in American life. The city's center becomes economically non-productive and is occupied by people and activities which are too marginal or too poor to go anywhere else. A depressed commercial sector keeps people in poverty, and deprived citizenry are unable to support higher-level commercial activity. The exodus of port activity to out-lying areas exacerbates the problems created by highway-dependent suburbanization. In cities which have traditionally depended on maritime activity, the problem is crucial.

Deterioration of the urban waterfront also means a loss of a part of America's heritage. When port cities lose their traditional focus on the waterfront, when maritime activity no longer is the basis for economic and social life, the community loses a link with its past. Decay and inappropriate adaptation of maritime facilities can destroy buildings of architectural importance. In addition, the character and flavor of the community can be distorted and the sense of identity lost. Sites of historic events become unrecognizable, and, without the maritime context, surviving structures no longer seem to "make sense."

Of course these problems are typical of urban decay in many cities, but they take on a special significance when a waterfront is involved. Increasingly, city residents invest their waterfronts with great symbolic significance and are beginning to see its vast unrealized potential as a focus of community identity. Many community activists see in the current period of change a unique opportunity to do creative things with the urban waterfront, to open it up to a variety

of uses for a variety of people. The new emphasis on access includes access for such uses as fishing, boating, tourism, and swimming. It also includes visual and aesthetic access, since the water may offer a unique opportunity to experience open space and to view the city from a distance.

Urban waterfront revitalization:mixed uses

Urban waterfront revitalization seeks to realize the full potential of the waterfront as a commercial and social center. "Renaissance" cities seek to preserve what is valued in their past and social fabric while eliminating blight and improving access and opportunity. To accomplish these aims, it is essential that a compatible balance of maritime and non-maritime waterfront uses be found. While many functions compete for a place on the waterfront, many activities could be enhanced by the presence of viable port operations. Not only are ports important to the economic revitalization of the waterfront, but they can also contribute to the recreational and aesthetic goals. If properly integrated with other activities, ships improve the view and contribute to opportunities for public education. Most importantly, port operations fit into the scheme as part of a living heritage. Without the continued practice of maritime activity, much of historic preservation becomes artificial and backward-looking. Continued shipping operations offer a much more genuine foundation for civic identity than would a museum-waterfront, no matter how attractive and interesting the monument to a maritime life now vanished.

Approaches to revitalization

Various approaches to development have been applied in an effort to attain a compatible balance of maritime and non-maritime uses. The first of these, site clearance and reconstruction, is generally associated with urban renewal projects in the 1950's and 1960's. Urban renewal policy at the federal level grew incrementally from post-war efforts to clear slums and eliminate substandard housing stock. Later legislation emphasized renewal per se and based eligibility for funds on the existence of a workable development plan. Such plans typically included efforts to re-shape the central business district, providing for a mix of such uses as housing, commercial facilities, office space, recreation, and parking and roads. The urban waterfront revitalization efforts of Boston and Baltimore were spearheaded by federal urban renewal funds. The impact of this approach was particularly great on urban waterfronts since these areas were typically the oldest and most dilapidated parts of the city. Cities often took over un-used maritime facilities like shipping offices, piers, and warehouses, cleared the land, and turned it over to private developers for total rebuilding. Such radical re-development had the advantage of allowing for comprehensive planning toward the goal of optimal land use. However, it came under widespread attack because of this very comprehensiveness. The program was criticized for destroying the social fabric of urban neighborhoods. It was felt that middle-class planners failed to meet the needs of all urban residents: the resulting developments typically

were efforts of "gentrification" which rarely offered real benefits to the poor. The jobs created were often for the highly skilled and the housing inappropriate for the needs of the urban poor. Thus, the program fell into political disrepute and was largely replaced in the 1970's by other development approaches and other policies, including "New Federalism" programs like Community Development Block Grants and Revenue Sharing.

A development strategy which has gained popularity in recent years is adaptive re-use of existing facilities. This approach has been applied in cities like Boston and Philadelphia where historic preservation is a guiding principle and has received national attention as a strategy for "Community Conservation." It can involve modernization of obsolete facilities or re-dedication to entirely new functions, e.g. from warehouse to condominium or from pier to restaurant. While this strategy has obvious merit and is generally preferable to blight and underutilization, it is far from perfect. Adaptive re-use, like the clear-and-rebuild approach of urban renewal, can disrupt the lives of city dwellers and destroy or "gentrify" the social fabric. Further, it is less well suited than site clearance and reconstruction to comprehensive planning and revitalization. Even the issue of historic preservation is problemmatic. While adaptive re-use does make preservation economically viable, there is always room for heated controversy about the suitability and integrity of any single restoration. Many preservationists feel that it is fruitless to preserve architecture without preserving the functional context of the building. In all of this, a key determinant is likely to be cost. As the cost of

new construction continues to rise relative to the cost of renno-vation (a tendency which may be reinforced by current federal policy, exactly as site clearance was encouraged by past incentives), adaptive re-use will receive increased attention from a broader segment of the development community.

The port as mixed-use developer

Historically, waterfront revitalization and the development strategies discussed above have been characterized by leadership from local government, with state, federal, and private involvement. Port authorities generally have not been thought of as land developers. However, a broader concept of the port's role is beginning to emerge by which the port could take a leading role in decision-making and in providing access for varying uses of the waterfront. Compatible with both urban renewal and adaptive re-use are two strategies which are particularly promising for maritime interests and others who have a stake in the urban waterfront: the port's development of mixed-use facilities and of mini-parks.

Through mixed-use facilities, the port can permit greater public access without displacing its own operations on the urban waterfront.* Facilities which are only partly needed for port operations, like passenger terminals, could be leased to other users which would share maintenance costs without taking control away from the port, which might want to retain the facility for possible future use. Such shared use could be organized either by leasing space in partially-used buildings or by leasing time in facilities which are not in current use.

The same rationales are applied to land in the creation of mini-parks. The Port of Oakland has turned unneeded land into small parks where people can enjoy the waterfront without interfering with the operation of the port. The Port of San Diego has planned viewing areas and walkways. The Port gets city help with a maintenance problem and simultaneously maintains good public relations. By making this land available to the community in the short term, the port preserves control over the long range, insuring itself against the possibility that future changes in technology might make this land necessary once again, just as recent changes have made it unnecessary. Such concessions can effectively defuse community opposition by removing the provocative presence of un-used, dilapidated, or inaccessible waterfront land which has so often acted as a catalyst for community action.

*Robbins, et.al., 19--. points out two possible pitfalls of these approaches: implied dedication or adverse possession and liability. We agree that these problems should be guarded against.

Again, the papers in Committee on Urban Waterfront Lands (1980) provide a great deal of useful information. Of particular relevance to this chapter is the paper by Helen Manogue on "Citizen Groups: New and Powerful Participants in Urban Waterfront Revitalization." Caputo (1976) gives an overview of urban policy. Robbins et al (19--) discuss related subjects.

V. THE PORT AND URBAN WATERFRONT REVITALIZATION: INTERAGENCY COORDINATION AND COOPERATION

The waterfront "game"

We have already described the urban waterfront as the site of valuable resources for which many interests are competing. No longer enjoying its traditional position of hegemony, the port is finding that it must deal with pressures from a number of uses which demand some share of these resources. To understand the nature of this competition it may be helpful to think of it as a game, in which players seek to optimize pay-offs according to set rules.

Game theory has as its most basic game the zero-sum game, in which one player wins exactly what the other player loses. There is a fixed amount of benefit to be won, and the players can only compete against each other. In this game, the interests are diametrically opposed and there is no reason for them to collude or communicate. It is sometimes argued that the port is involved in a zero-sum game with other community interests like planners and regulators. In this White-hat /Black-hat approach, the port is seen as bent on unlimited expansion, with a voracious appetite for land on which to erect container facilities. The planners and regulators are seen as being just as hungry for the same land and determined to wrest its control from the port. From this standpoint, there is absolutely no reason for the two players to come together for a solution. In fact, it is to each player's

advantage to conceal whatever information he has about the possible outcomes in the hope that the opponent will make a mistake.

However, the use of a zero-sum game is patently inadequate as a way to conceptualize the relationship between ports and urban waterfront development interests. It leaves out the essential fact that ports and the other interests may be playing according to significantly different rules and seeking fundamentally different kinds of pay-offs. This complexity means that there exists a Non-zero-sum game with the possibility of outcomes in which one player wins more than the other loses,or in which both may gain something. The amount of benefit which may be won is not fixed, but the "size of the pie" may be affected by the various strategies undertaken. Table 1 shows a hypothetical comparison of the pay-offs and rules for two players, a port (A) and local urban waterfront revitalization interests (B), who may be vaguely understood to represent planners, regulators, and elected officials. Even from this greatly simplified list, it is clear that a free-form environment-rich game in which the rules are extremely complex is involved. In fact, the rules are so complex that neither player can completely understand them and most of the play consists of their interpretation and discovery. Complexity is heightened by the facts that each player's set of goals contains potential contradictions and the relative weight or ranking of each goal is not explicity defined.

Without grappling with these difficulties, it is possible to use these goal and rule structures as the basis for various scenarios

TABLE 1

PLAYER A	PLAYER B
1. Market incentives: goal is profit	1. Political incentives: goal is pleasing constituency
2. Rewards accrue directly from beneficiaries	2. Rewards accrue from non-beneficiary grantors
3. Serve maritime needs	3. Benefit diverse user groups
4. Rules are individualistic/competitive	4. Rules are collectivist/cooperative
5. Resources should be used to maximum profit	5. Resources should be conserved
6. Institutional survival depends on long-term control of resources	6. Institutional survival depends on establishing credibility with grantors

TABLE 2

	IMPACT ON GOALS	
STRATEGY	PLAYER A	PLAYER B
	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
1. Dump toxic wastes	+ = - + = -	- - - - - -
2. Lease for mall development	+ + - + + +	= = = = - =
3. Create minipark	= = = - = +	+ + + + = +
4. Leave vacant	+ = + + - -	- - - - + -
5. City condems land for planned development	- - - - - -	+ + + = = +

for port and urban waterfront activity. It should be emphasized that the relationship between the two players is not conceptualized as being strictly competitive; consequently, moves and countermoves are not described but rather a single choice opportunity with various possible strategies. In this "One Move Variable Outcome" game (our coinage) either player may make the move, but the costs would be great to both if both do not acquiesce. Table 2 shows possible strategies for vacant port land in the urban waterfront and whether their implementation would have positive (+), negative (-), or neutral (=) impact on the players' goals. Assuming equal weights for all impacts, this example shows that the total amount of the pay-off for both A and B is quite variable. Each player may want the optimal pay-off, but given the need for consensus, there is room for agreement in alternatives 2 and 3. The other strategies are too harmful for one player or the other for their mutual acceptance. Clearly, communication between the two players is essential to reconcile the differences and to arrive at a move satisfactory to both. There is only one move.

Real world complexity

This simple formulation of the two interests involved in waterfront revitalization shows that without communicative planning there would be a permanent state of impasse. In real life, conditions are far more complex but the need for interagency cooperation is no less apparent.

The hypothetical example assumes that both players have complete knowledge of all the rules and goals, including those of the other player. In actual fact, we know that such is not usually the case. Port authorities of necessity lack complete information on all the goals and constraints of the myriad interests involved in urban waterfront revitalization, particularly since these interests are in a continual state of flux. Likewise, local officials cannot be totally aware of the needs of the Port. Much of the information upon which ports base their decisions is highly technical and reflects a long experience with maritime matters. Planners and regulators are involved in so many constituencies that it would be impossible for them to keep in touch with all the considerations which are important to the port. Often, the two groups do not even share the same vocabulary. As a survey respondent expressed it: "They who regulate know precious little about ports, but they who are regulated care damn little about regulation."

Furthermore, the game does not treat in any explicit fashion the inter-dependency between port and community interests. For instance,the interest of urban waterfront planners, regulators, and local officials in pleasing their constituencies and in benefiting diverse user groups is partly dependent on meeting the needs of the port, which is both a constituent and major user of the urban waterfront. Similarly the fact that the port's institutional survival depends on long-term control of resources makes it somewhat

disposed to accommodate other interests to maintain their long-term goodwill. Thus, in real life, the interests' lack of complete information, the goal structure, and the reward structure make it in the interest of all participants to engage in cooperative planning and management decision-making.

Institutional approaches to cooperative planning

The ways that such cooperative planning can be undertaken are as varied as other conditions on the urban waterfront. Obviously, the appropriateness of any single mechanism depends on the institutional framework in which it must fit. Our survey showed that the number and variety of jurisdictions and organizations with which ports deal in our nation vary greatly with individual situations. Some ports indicate that they deal primarily with groups like the Army Corps of Engineers, while others list a host of local, regional, and state planning and regulatory agencies. In some cases the authorities are so fragmented that a formal and comprehensive means of communication does not seem feasible without massive reorganization. In other areas, the interests are so stable that informal communication seems an adequate approach. However, most port areas have some sort of coordinated planning, so the following discussion will focus on examples of institutional frameworks in which ports have a potentially-important role.

The first such institutional approach, a regional planning authority with policy power, has already been described. It is clear that ports should have a role in this kind of activity. The regional and system-wide approach means that regional planners

must take into account all competing uses and needs. The complex relationship of ports to other waterfront features, the specific site requirements and connections with transportation networks, means that port planning is best done in the context of the total urban system. However, the very comprehensiveness of regional planning can make it unmanageable. Planners may be ill-equipped to understand the technical needs of the port, including the need to keep a wide range of options open as a hedge against the future. It is up to the port to advocate for these needs. Such advocacy is effective if undertaken in a obviously cooperative spirit with full recognition of other points of view and other interests. In San Francisco (Appendix I.F.), the regional planning authority and port districts have established a joint advisory committee on port development which works closely with both interests for mutually-acceptable development approaches. A variant of this approach is the bi-state regional land and water use plan of Duluth-Superior (Appendix I.C.) with its Harbor Coordinating Council.

A similar approach is Baltimore's regional planning council with an advisory council on coastal affairs. This framework seeks to combine aspects of several review and planning activities with the goals of coastal zone management. Less formal than San Francisco's approach, a Metropolitan Coastal Area Study is to identify and analyze issues of broader than local concern. An advisory committee is to work with the various planning bodies to coordinate mutually acceptable resolutions. An added emphasis is

on the dissemination of information and expertise. In this framework, ports have the opportunity to participate and communicate with many of the interests and authorities which are involved in urban waterfront planning. The voluntary and fluid nature of this association has the advantage of compatibility with the existing institutional framework: no one's turf is seriously threatened. However, this same aspect means that system-wide planning and management are more difficult to attain. The structure is as good as the commitment and seriousness of the participants.

The unified port district with state coastal zone management can be overlaid upon a limitless number of local institutional patterns. It is potentially consistent with cooperation between the port and other interests. The unified port district has a great deal of power in the urban waterfront and is easily recognized as a major actor. (See, e.g. Oakland, Appendix I.D., and San Diego is a good example.) Likewise, state coastal zone management has an important and clearly-defined mission which is closely related to many aspects of development. The combination of these two interests would be a powerful lead for other jurisdictions in the waterfront region to follow. Of course, the fundamentally different interests of the port district and coastal zone management could be a major barrier preventing their cooperation. Competition is particularly likely to ensue, with each party seeking a dominant position with other jurisdictions.

It should be emphasized that because different areas of the country have different political, legal, economic, and social

features affecting the relationships among ports authorities and state, local, and federal agencies, these examples cannot be offered as prescriptive solutions. Rather, they are organizational alternatives with different degrees of responsibility and influence. The role of the port authority varies.

Summary

In summary, it has been argued that the inter-dependency of ports and the other interests on the urban waterfront makes communication beneficial to all. Only by communication is it possible to assess potential impacts to different groups and determine what trade-offs need to be made. From the port's perspective, it is important to participate in the formulation of plans and policies and articulate needs early so that potential conflicts can be avoided. From an institutional perspective, it is important that ports participate in the administrative processes of implementation in order to minimize conflict between other resource users and present or future port facilities, to coordinate and facilitate the permit process, to facilitate funding, etc. There are many structures within which this process could function, meeting various community needs. However the effective structures share such activities as consciousness raising, the identification of concerned interests, feedback and understanding, seeking comment and advice, responsiveness, and continuity and timeliness. Many media which have traditionally been used to inform could be applied to a two-way process of communication by which consensus can be built.

*On gaming, see Duke (1974) and Shubik (1975). For planning approaches see cases in Appendix I and the reference given. "Rules" for ports and community interests are loosely adapted from the sources given under Chapters III and IV.

VI. FINANCING THE URBAN WATERFRONT: APPROACHES TO JOINT PROJECTS

Our survey of port administrators and urban waterfront planners (see Appendix II) indicates that lack of funding is seen as a major barrier to the implementation of urban waterfront redevelopment projects. The two groups agree that the lack of money to maintain facilities is a fairly severe problem. In addition, port interests feel that there is a serious lack of funds to revitalize and re-use facilities. The community and planning groups agree, but to a much lesser extent, perhaps because of their greater consciousness of the availability of federal funds at a time when ports have continued to rely on traditional revenue sources. This section will describe how revenue structures can affect development and will survey some of the methods used by both ports and community groups to fund projects in urban waterfront revitalization. Additional information is provided in the case materials (Appendix I) and in the list of federal sources (Appendix III).

Waterfront redevelopment projects have almost all been initiated at the local level. The projects typically begin on a small scale, like the creation of a small park or refurbishing one waterfront structure, and are funded through Community Development Block Grants or through Revenue Sharing funds. As the initial project develops, local officials tend to expand their vision to include other sites and projects. The success of the original project serves to justify the use of additional CDBG and Revenue Sharing

funds. Support is also secured through federal and state programs like the Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service, the Economic Development Administration, the Urban Development Action Grants, HUD 701, and the National Endowment for the Arts. These sources and occasional foundation support are used to lever additional support from the public and private sectors for the expanding program of waterfront redevelopment. As it becomes clear that multiple resource bundles are available for waterfront-related projects, communities show an ever-increasing tendency to tie more formally individual waterfront development projects to community-wide planning and management efforts.

Two examples can illustrate how federal and other grants can be the basis for the funding of urban waterfront projects. The redevelopment project for the Long Wharf area in Boston will receive funding of $1.7 million from the U. S. Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service and Boston's Community Block Grants program. The Western Waterfront Trail in the city of Duluth was funded in much the same way. The land was donated by private industry, the Burlington National Railway. The city received a trail development grant of $137,500 from the state of Minnesota. The Community Development Block Grants from the federal government have provided an additional $10,000.

Port Authorities generally take a quite different approach to the financing of their activities. A major revenue source is general obligation bonds, usually issued by the city (for unified

port districts) or state to finance port activities. These bonds are secured by the jurisdiction's power of taxation and are not obligations of the port. Junior lien bonds are secured by a surplus of revenues in a Ports Revenue fund. The port may finance certain activities through the issuance of Certificates which are secured by a pledge of income brought in from the facility so financed. A large amount of many ports' operating costs are financed through leasing agreements. Plant and equipment are held for lease. Because all leases have been classified basically as operating leases, all of the port's operating revenue comes from these leased facilities. Certain terminal facilities are leased under agreements which provide the tenants with special but not exclusive use.

The thriving Port of Oakland is an example par excellence of the application of all of these funding techniques. It is also important as an example of the role that ports can play in urban waterfront revitalization, including the allocation of space to non-maritime uses. The creation of mini-parks has already been described as a technique by which the port can perform a community service and prevent community opposition, while retaining ultimate control of the land and the option of future use for port expansion. Lease agreements offer another way to become profitably involved with multiple uses. However, the most important point is that Oakland has become involved with urban waterfront revitalization largely in response to the changing revenue structure in the state of California.

California's Proposition 13 is merely the most famous manifestation of a general awareness that many local revenue sources, like the property tax and sales tax, are approaching the limit beyond which their exploitation would create public unrest and counterproductive strain on community resources. One reaction to this situation has been a shift of many traditionally-local responsibilities to the federal government, as in Revenue Sharing and the Community Development Block Grants. Another response has been increased attention to those public agencies which generate substantial amounts of revenue. From this standpoint, ports are particularly attractive. Ports can operate as profitable business, and in spite of their recent emphasis on capital expansion they often find themselves with more cash on hand than they need. Planners are understandably envious. Noted as one in our survey, the "Port is rolling in money, it has virtually automatic... levy...each year, not requiring voter approval." However, the ports' reliance upon city or state bonding authority for the issuance of their General Obligation Bonds makes them potentially subject to some public control, as does their public and tax exempt status. With the intensification of the fiscal squeeze on local governments, it may be that local governments will become more pressured to impose the power of the purse on those ports which seem to be in such an advantageous position. A logical step would be to require ports to invest some of their surplus capital in urban waterfront revitalization projects. As this pressure increases

throughout the nation, many ports may find it expedient, as Oakland already has, to launch urban waterfront projects of their own, on their own terms, consistent with their own needs.

*For further information, see sources given under cases and other appended materials. See also Panel and Future Port Requirements of the U.S. (1979).

VII. RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Our work leads us to feel that future investigation and work could profitably address the following areas:

1. There should be more in-depth analysis of intergovernmental activities to coordinate port and urban waterfront development interests.
2. In particular, there should be further study of the intricate and creative methods which can be taken to financing urban waterfront projects.
3. A model or set of models might be developed for integrated local and regional planning for the medium or long-range. Ports in particular have a need to anticipate needs and development opportunities, and both sets of interests have too often been limited to a reactive rather than pro-active role.
4. The role of the federal government as a catalyst to the coordination of port and urban development interests was originally conceived as part of this study. However, we now feel that this subject warrants separate treatment.
5. Ports have already recognized the need to balance long-term and short-term needs in planning. Additional work could treat specifically the way long-term and short-term considerations affect their relationships with planning and revitalization interests.
6. A follow-up to our survey should be conducted with modifications reflecting our current findings. The first stage would

be a general mail questionnaire, the items of which would be adapted by use of content analysis of the current instrument. More extensive efforts would be made to protect its validity by securing a better response rate.

7. The next stage would be detailed case analysis of a small number of ports and urban waterfront revitalization efforts. Detailed information would be gathered about problems, constraints, and resources, with particular attention to coordinative mechanisms. Dimensions along which cases might be selected include: whether the port is stable or growing, size of port and urban area, and the type of intergovernmental/planning arrangement.
8. A practical manual for port planners on how to work with urban waterfront development interests could be produced. Content would include planning jargon, description of planning agencies' purposes, and management and development strategies.

APPENDIX I.

CASE MATERIALS

A. BALTIMORE, MARYLAND

With the advent of containerization the shoreline of Baltimore has undergone much change in response to revolutionary changes in Baltimore's shipping industry. Since the early 1960's over 600 acres (or 10% of the land in the City's coastal zone) have been devoted to container handling. Decisions to continue and expand this trade will generate, along with required services, very real impacts on adjacent land uses, communities, and the water quality of the harbor.

One of the major problems that results from port expansion is the negative impact on the local jurisdiction. Although most port facilities pay little or no taxes, they do require such services as police and fire protection, sanitation, and road maintenance, which must be supplied by the local jurisdiction. In addition, containerization has intensified local problems with traffic and air and noise pollution. Port expansion also causes environmental and ecological problems. Landfill in harbor areas has an impact on water quality and aquatic life. Runoff from paved surfaces, production facilities, storages areas and ship discharge all contribute to water pollution.

Because of the container revolution marine terminals have moved to more spacious shoreline areas with ample backup space, leaving the traditional waterfront area, Inner Harbor, with many vacant, underutilized, deteriorated, or obsolete buildings and piers. Another major problem is competition among varying uses for waterfront land. At present there are several non-water related industries occupying prime shoreline. This underutilization presents a problem to the City.

This competition has hampered public access. The basic right to public access had been reasserted by various Maryland court decisions over the last few years. However, old restrictions on the public's right to cross private waterfront property from public thoroughfares limit the impact of these rulings. Furthermore, nearly all areas which were historically open for public use have been closed off by fences, buildings, and other structures. Most of the City's waterfront is zoned for industrial use, followed in importance by commercial and/or residential use, and the remainder is federal park-land (Ft. McHenry). The deterioration of the Inner Harbor area, with its abandoned warehouses and piers, offered Baltimore the first large-scale opportunity to create public access to the waterfront.

The Baltimore Inner Harbor Project has developed the waterfront area for several different purposes and has provided a wide range of development opportunities. The city and federal governments are investing millions of dollars in shoreline improvements to transform the water's edge, with parks and promenades to attract consumers, office workers, and tourists. One part of the Inner Baltimore Project is the restoration of the U.S.S. Constellation, the oldest fighting warship of the Navy, which adds to the historic significance of the harbor. The Baltimore waterfront project is also being aided by the private sector. The Rause Company is constructing a $22 million market with small ships and eating places in two glass pavilions on a 3.1 acre site along the North and West shores. The City has constructed playing fields at the foot of Federal Hill for a variety of city-wide

athletic and public events. A marina with slips for 158 private boats has also been developed. The Baltimore Inner Harbor East projects provide the area with a new Harbor Campus for the Community College of Baltimore. In the fall of 1976 the first of 4,000 students enrolled in liberal arts courses and workstudy programs related to the downtown and maritime businesses. Thus the Baltimore Inner Harbor Project promotes a vast array of usages of these waterfront lands.

The decision procedure of the Baltimore Inner Harbor development combines the City, private business, citizen participation, and state and federal agencies. An example of private business participation is the selection of the Oxford Development Corporation of Lanah, Maryland to build a complex with at least 250 apartments as well as commercial space. Other interactions can be seen in the City of Baltimore's negotiations with a private business, Bore- Restaurant, to develop a steak and seafood restaurant at the end of a new pier. The public also has had an impact on the development. A clear example is the Christ Lutheran Church's construction of a complex containing a 220-bed nursing home, 228 apartments for the elderly, and a public plaza, with underground parking for 135 cars. The federal government has also had a role in the development of the Baltimore waterfront. In December of 1979, the Federal Reserve Bank of Richmond broke ground for a new branch bank on a 8-acre site west of the Otterbin Homesteading area.

The funding of the Baltimore Inner Harbor Waterfront development also combines federal, state, local, and private involvement. For example, Project I, covering approximately 95 acres of land along three

sides of the harbor basin, is estimated ultimately to cost $270 million, of which $230 million will be private and institutional investments. Public expenditures of $55 million have been committed to acquire and clear the land and prepare it for development to create the new environment needed to attract massive private investment. Public funds include federal grants amounting to $35 million (from such sources as the Economic Development Administration, the Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service and the Maritime Administration) and $17 million approved by City voters in 1966 and 1972. Another example of coordination between the city and private business is the first phase of the Inner Harbor West residential area. The city selected the team of Harkins Development of Silver Spring, Maryland, the National Corporation for Housing Partnerships of Washington, D.C., and Louis Sauer Associates of Philadelphia to develop the Harbor West residential area. The voters approved $30 million City bond issue for construction in November of 1975. A 199-unit high-rise for the elderly opened in June of 1980. Construction for the first 275 low-rise units of Market housing started in September of 1979.

Baltimore is important as an example of cooperative planning. The state of Maryland was funded by H.U.D. and the Office of Coastal Zone Management as a pilot project for coordinating local and regional governments' involvement in coastal resource management. Specifically, it was to define the relationship between local and regional comprehensive land use planning and concepts developed by the state under the Coastal Zone Management Act of 1972. The Baltimore Metropolitan

Coastal Area Study was the means by which local governments and the Baltimore Regional Council were to evaluate, discuss, and resolve coastal issues of local and regional concern. A Technical committee was responsible for intergrating elements of CZM, HUD 701, and Water Quality planning. It also provided a forum for state, regional, and local interests to resolve problems and disseminate information to government agencies, the advisory committee, and the public. The Metropolitan Advisory Committee, through the Regional Planning Council, was to: (1) simplify and clarify communication between coastal interests; (2) identify and analyze issues of broader than local concern and attempt to resolve them cooperatively on a regional level to avoid later conflict and delay; (3) provide a means of exchanging information and education between the public and coastal zone managers; (4) involve state and federal agencies in a metropolitan approach to solving urban coastal problems; and (5) aid in local implementation of the goals, policies, and recommendations expressed in the Maryland Coastal Management Program and the Baltimore Metropolitan Coastal Area Study.

*Information pertaining to the Baltimore case has come from, "The Port of Baltimore" by Lauy Reich and David Carroll." A discussion on different Land Use techniques are given in the report. There is also an informative section on meeting the needs for public access to the waterfront.

Other informative material that were used in the Baltimore case can be viewed in the bibliography, Baltimore Metropolitan Coastal Area Study, 1978. Also, The Baltimore Harbor Plan, March 21, 1975.

B. BOSTON, MASSACHUSETTS

In the past, Boston's ports operated as public highways under a laissez-faire economy. Today, however, ports operate more like public utilities, demanding heavy public capital investments and subject to heavy public regulation.

There have been several major problems in Boston's effort to redevelop its waterfront for more diverse uses. A major conflict exists between the Port Authority's view and the views of the political participants. For example, the South Boston Naval Annex has for some time been viewed by many, including the authors of the state's Coastal Zone Management Plan, as the best site in Boston Harbor for port development. It is an industrial area and has the water depth and 100 acres of supporting backland which are desperately needed for port expansion. Instead, the area is being used for a variety of non-maritime uses. The political struggle into which the property has sunk is an excellent example of the worst kind of land use decision making. The city is unable to make long-term commitments to users who would develop the site and benefit from its waterfront location because of continuing negotiations with the Port Authority which wishes to build the seaport. Another problem is the animosity of the waterfront neighborhood toward the redevelopment authority. The neighborhoods argue that, despite the regional economic benefits, a seaport facility that consumes a large area of land and produces a low job-to-acreage ratio would not be in the best interest of their community. However, the members of that community would have to deal with the noise, congestion and pollution

generaged by a new facility. There is also a conflict pertaining to recreational use of the waterfront lands: different areas of the Boston Waterfront have different priorities for recreation. While the city itself is eager to open the waterfront to extensive use, the costs of building and maintaining parks are becoming an increasing problem in Boston as in other cities. There is also a problem in public access to the waterfront which has become more in demand as waterfront areas have been redeveloped. In Boston, local residents have been cut off from the water by either military facilities, as in Charlestown, or by commercial and industrial uses, as in East Boston, Downtown and South Boston. Little by little the genral public's hopes for better public access have been largely reduced to those few areas open to them when individual owners allow non-residents around their properties. People moving into the high-income housing located directly on the water are not inclined to allow the general public into their front yards. They already view many of the attractions meant to bring people to the waterfront as incompatible with their new location. Another problem pertains particularly to Boston Harbor; the problem of multiple jurisdictions. Studies have identified 130 governmental organizations, federal, state and local, with jurisdiction over some aspect of the harbor. This interjurisdictional conflict acts as a stumbling block in the redevelopment of Boston Harbor.

An important issue in the development of Boston's waterfront is the allocation of space among residential, maritime, other commercial, industrial, and recreational uses. The area affected by redevelopment

have been used in various ways.

Massport, the port authority, is the largest single owner of harbor property and is undergoing major expansion. A multi-million dollar seaport has been launched. Investments of $12.3 million are going toward the improvement of the Castle Island terminal. Construction of a new container facility should be complete by 1981. Ten million dollars, supplemented by federal grants, are being applied to the revitalization of a fish pier and cold storage facilities to create (according to a Port official) an estimated 800 jobs. At the Naval Annex on Boston's South Side, Massport plans to fill 30 acres of marsh land for cargo storage. Sixty-five acres will be filled for expansion of Logan Airport. A 22-acre mixed commercial development will include office buildings, a 500-room motel and conference center, a ferry terminal, and marina.

The naval yard in Charlestown was one of the major areas of the waterfront redevelopment program. From the start the City's strategy was to take advantage of the site's waterfront location in planning for its reuse. The resulting redevelopment includes the 23-acre Boston National Historic Park, home of the USS Constitution, and a 16-acre park that provides access to the harbor for Charlestown residents long cut off from their waterfront. The remainder of the site is being developed for mixed residential/commercial activities, to include 1,200 new housing units, a 1,000 room hotel, and commercial office, loft and light industrial space. The project represents a total public investment of $17 million. It is estimated by the Boston Redevelopment

Authority that when completed the redevelopment of the Charlestown Waterfront will create 1,300 permanent jobs and $3 million in tax revenues annually.

The decision procedure and the principal actors involved in the determination of the use of the waterfront land are quite unique. In the Boston project public action during the past decade has made dramatic changes along Boston's Downtown waterfront. Initially spurred by urban renewal in 1960, waterfront redevelopment continues at a rapid pace. The interaction between the public, the city, and the redevelopment authority can clearly be seen in the redevelopment of Boston's North End. Residents were predominately working and middle class. A large proportion were elderly. The neighborhoods saw an opportunity to accommodate their needs for elderly housing, for relief from the congestion that made moving through their double parked streets impossible, for open space oriented to the elderly and the remaining young families in the area, and for North End businessmen to have a role in the financial rewards that such development would bring. However, the original plan stressed luxury housing in high-rise towers, hotels to serve tourists, an aquarium, museums, and a large park. The waterfront would become exclusively for the well to do. The usual problems with such areas in approvals for financing, demolition, and utilities caused delay which gave the residents an opportunity to form a line of action to stop the development. A suit was brought by the waterfront residents and developers to restrain the Boston Redevelopment Authority from proceeding with the original plan. In the course of resolving the court suit, the North End became more aware

of what was happening in its own backyard and demanded a role in Downgown Waterfront redevelopment. As a result, the plan was redone with extensive participation, this time by both the new waterfront residents and those of the North End. The Downtown Waterfront plan deals with the creation of 1,800 housing units in a newly renovated building, an aquarium, a marina, new restaurants and a pier for harbor tour boats.

Given the scope of the proposals for the Downtown Waterfront/ Fort Point Channel area, it is clear that implementation requires a coordinated funding strategy. Many of the proposals are regional in scope, benefiting people beyond the City of Boston. Responsibilities for funding therefore must lie jointly with the federal and state governments and as well as with the City. In addition, some proposals, particularly those related to private development, will be the responsibility of the private sector. Joint funding can be seen in the development of the Long Wharf area in Boston. The improvements, totaling $17 million, will be funded by grants from the federal Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service and Boston's Development Community Block Grants (CDBG) program. Another project, establishing two terminal facilities between Long and Central Wharves, will be implemented by the State Executive Office of Transportation and Construction with Urban Systems funds and additional state bonding authorities for improvement of harbor transportation facilities. Public areas to connect access to the harborfront are being funded by the federal Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service. Examples include public

access from India Wharf to Rowes Wharf, from Foster's Wharf to the Northern Avenue Bridge, and other connection links along Fort Point Channel.

Pressures for development of waterfront land in Boston are likely to continue for a long time. Proposals will require decision makers to address the issue of compatibility as industrial and non-industrial uses co-exist on the waterfront and industrial port use expands to more waterfront residential areas. Other issues which will play a vital role in the use of waterfront lands revolve around goals, priorities, and decision-making strategies. A great deal of broad participation, negotiation, and compromise will be needed for progress and a successful redevelopment.

*Much of this section is abstracted from Urban Waterfront Lands, Commissioned Papers. P. 21-49. Related subjects are treated in Boston Redevelopment Authority, Boston Harbors: Challenges and Opportunities for the 1980's. Funding strategies were discussed here.

Information on Massport developments came from Brian Shee who is with Massport.

C. DULUTH, MINNESOTA AND SUPERIOR, WISCONSIN

The Duluth-Superior Harbor Plan establishes the direction which the public is to take in guiding the development and use of the harbor. The plan sets forth policies for recreation, dredge disposal, industrial development, natural resources, and similar concerns. The plan also describes a preferred pattern for land use by designating areas for general types of development. There have been several major problems in the Duluth effort for redevelopment. A major environmental problem is dredge disposal. This problem is two-fold. First, some of the material is polluted and its disposal into Lake Superior or habor waters is deemed water pollution. Second, much of the creation of land through disposal has come at the expense of biologically-valuable areas. Another problem relates to the ties between land and water use along the waterfront. For instance, residential neighborhoods along or near the water's edge can be expanded, taking space from water-dependent uses like a marina.

There is also a conflict in the use of the waterfront for re-creation: recreational access to the harbor is hampered by the lack of boat landings. Another reason for tension is that, as the water quality of the harbor improves because of new sewage treatment facilities, greater numbers of people are attracted to the waterfront. A major difficulty is transportation. There is a conflict between the different modes of transportation around the Duluth waterfront and bridges are the key problem area. This problem detracts from the coordinated effort to link access to the waterfront area. In the

future, demand for commercial, industrial and residential waterfront land is expected to increase.

The overall goal is to maximize the value of all harbor resources through the multiple and complementary use of the land and water. According to Duluth's harbor study, the sound use and development of the Duluth-Superior waterfront area is based on multiple purposes:

(1) Transportation - To form and develop an intermodal system for efficiency.

(2) Natural Resources - To maintain the existing significant wildlife habitat, fisheries, and scenic views and to develop new areas in these fields.

(3) Residence - To strengthen existing residential areas and plan new housing areas in a manner that preserves the beauty of the surrounding terrain and utilizes to the utmost advantage the waterfront location.

(4) Recreation - To strengthen and expand the recreational character of the harbor and to develop a system of public open spaces and recreation areas that realizes the recreational potential of the waterfront land.

(5) Industry - To promote maritime industrial activities in those portions of the harbor which are served by active deepwater channels.

(6) Commerce - To develop commercial activities along the waterfront that will satisfy the needs of the metropolitan area and will significantly benefit from a waterfront location.

(7) General - To develop the full potential of the waterfront in accord with the unusual opportunities presented by the relationships

between the harbor, Lake Superior, the operating port, the maritime character, and the aesthetic qualities offered by water and view of the surrounding area.

Decision-making and management has been complicated by the fact that the harbor is shared by two states. However, important strides were made with the creation of the Duluth-Superior Harbor Coordinating Council (HCC), an advisory body to the Metropolitan Interstate Committee (MIC), to coordinate existing management authorities relative to the harbor redevelopment and to work toward the full implementation of the adopted plan for the Duluth-Superior harbor. Some of the major actors of the HCC are U.S. Army Corps of Engineers, Seaway Port Authority of Duluth-Superior, and Board of Harbor Commissioners. Citizens are involved through representation of the movie industry, environmental organizations, marine unions, waterfront neighborhoods, and public interest committees. The powers of the HCC are extremely limited because it is an advisory body to the MIC. The powers of the MIC are:

(1) To direct the research studies, collections and analysis of data, the preparation of plans, to guide the economic and social development of the Duluth-Superior Metropolitan Area. Program responsibilities will be specified in the work programs adopted by MIC and contractural obligations established by NWRPC and ARDC. All policies and plans of the MIC will be subject to review and comment by NWRPC and ARDC pursuant to the Regional Development Act of Minnesota and the Regional Planning Commission Law of Wisconsin and appropriate federal regulations.

(2) To perform the federal grant review and coordinating function for NWRPC and ARDC for the Duluth-Superior water area.

(3) To review and comment upon all policies and plans provided to the MIC by local units of government that have jurisdiction in the metropolitan area.

The funding for the Duluth-Superior waterfront development uses a variety of sources. Some of the major federal agencies involved are the U.S. Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service, Coastal Zone Management, and the Maritime Administration Office of Port and Intermodel Development. A good example of one waterfront project with a multiple interplay of funding is the Western Waterfront Trail. Land was donated by private industry, the Burlington Northern Railway. The City of Duluth has received a grant of $137,500 from the State of Minnesota for trail development. Funds of $10,000 have been allocated from federal Community Development grants.

*Much of the information about the Duluth-Superior area comes from the Duluth Planning Commission, "The Western Waterfront Trail" 1979. Other references also cited in bibliography.

D. OAKLAND, CALIFORNIA

Various problems have affected the growth and development of the Port of Oakland. A major problem faced by the Port was the need for land. The Port saw an opportunity in 1970 when the Bay Area Rapid transit tube was built and spoil from the excavation became available for filling. However, due to growing public concern that the Bay be preserved from over-fill, it was necessary to find other means of creating useable space. A major step was the removal of old sheds, warehouses, and industrial buildings between the rail lines and waterfront to create space for containerized cargo.

In the late 1960's the port began to address access and aesthetic and recreational needs. A new Oakland Museum was built around the port area. The Oakland Symphony moved into a renovated movie palace and a new sports complex was also constructed. The port expansion was the economic counterpart to the cultural boom in the city of Oakland.

Many of the conflicts that are faced by the Port of Oakland seem to be related to its proximity to San Francisco Bay. Oakland's lack of early development was basically the result of its location. However, as time passed, Oakland became one of the world's major containership ports and largest on the Pacific coast. Its trade in containerized cargo has grown from 365,000 tons in 1965 to over 7,300,000 tons in 1977. Oakland now shares with Seattle, Los Angeles, and Long Beach the Pacific Coast leadership in general cargo tonage.

Much of Oakland's waterfront is devoted to the continual development of marine terminals. The port of Oakland is exceptionally well suited to containership terminals and has taken advantage of this fact. The trend of maritime commerce on the Pacific Coast is such that the Port of Oakland will require additional facilities for containerized cargo to maintain and improve its competitive position.

The continuous development of the Metropolitan Oakland International Airport is a major goal of the Port of Oakland. The airport is an important regional center and now produces about 35% of the gross revenues available for the Port's revenue bonds. Another major use of waterfront land is the Port of Oakland's leasing property for industrial and commercial use. The Properties Department has more than 250 leases and licenses agreements in effect which it is estimated about $8.5 million in revenues for the Port. Thus these leasing agreements play a vital role for the Port of Oakland.

The Port of Oakland is often cited for the leading role it has taken in providing public access to the waterfront. Near some of the busiest containership terminals in the world, the Port owns and maintains Port view Park (2½ acres) and Middle harbor park (0.83 acre) which have facilities for swimming, fishing, and picnics. Another park, Estuary park, is leased from the port for a nominal fee and maintained by the city. It has the only public boat ramp on the Oakland estuary.

The City of Oakland has operated a public harbor to serve waterborne commerce since its incorporation in 1851. Management of the

Port has been in the hands of the Board of Port Commissions since 1927. The Port of Oakland is an independent agency of the City of Oakland, California, with jurisdiction over the Port area. It is responsible for the operation of city-owned harbor and airport facilities and it has exclusive control of all Port revenues and proceeds of all bond sales for harbor and airport improvements. The Board of Port Commissioners is empowered to issue revenue bonds for harbor and airport improvements under provisions of the Oakland City Charter approved by the voters. The seven Commissioners are appointed for 4-year staggered terms by the City Council upon nomination by the Major and serve without compensation. This major decision-making as well as executive department of the Port of Oakland must approve all policies affective the operation and maintenance of the Port. Given the importance of the unified port district to the community, the Board of Port Commissioners has a major impact on the urban waterfront.

The Port of Oakland is financed primarily through Revenue Bonds, Junior Lien Bonds, Certificates, and leasing. The city of Oakland has issued two series of general obligation bonds to finance Port activities: $9,784,000 of 1925 Harbor Improvement Bonds and $10,000,000 of 1955 Airport Bonds. In 1957 the Port began to use revenue bonds to finance the construction of certain revenue producing facilities. These facilities included overall port development and the Oakland International Airport. These 1957 Revenue Bonds are

secured by the gross revenues of all project facilities and by the net revenues of all existing facilities.

Under agreement with the Economic Development Administration of the U.S. Department of Commerce, the Port has issued $9,719,000 of 1966 Revenue Bonds secured by a lien on Surplus Revenues in the Port Revenue Fund. Proceeds of these bonds, together with EDA grants of $14,178,300 were applied to the development of the 7th Street Marine Terminal, 30 acres of the Port's industrial park, and airport construction.

The Port may finance certain kinds of development of the issuance of Certificates, each series secured by income from the lease of the facilities so financed. For example, in 1965, an issue of $800,000 was sold to construct a golf course on Port property leased to the City of Oakland; $465,000 of this debt is now outstanding. It is important to note that Port revenue bonds do not have a lien or rental payments pledged to the certificates.

A means of financing which was mentioned earlier is the leasing of major portions of the Port's properties. These leases generally provide for minimum rentals, and certain preferential assignments provide for both minimum and maximum rentals.

Much of this section information has come from a report on the Port of Oakland, 1957 Revenue Bonds, 1979. A complete description of various funding strategies were explained.

Other information that was part of this case came from Port of Oakland Public Relations Department. This information provided

a view of the different type projects the Port is involved in. Other sources cite bibliogiaphy, Urban Waterfront Lands, A Tale of Two Ports.

E. PHILADELPHIA, PENNSYLVANIA

Penn's Landing in Philadelphia is a good example of community involvement in urban waterfront revitalization. The plan for Penn's Landing was developed in the 1960's as part of the clearance and reconstruction of Society Hill. The city cleared old piers and added fill to create 12 acres for private development. The project also included 7 acres for public use which included a museum and 3½ acres of parking. Along with the land fill came the creation of a 15-acre waterfront lake. Initial land fill was funded by the city and state at a cost of $17 million. In addition, $20 million have been spent for site improvements such as utilities, paving, landscaping, lighting, roads, and marine facilities.

There have been several major problems in Philadelphia's efforts to redevelop their waterfront lands. The first is public access. Interstate-95, linking cities along the eastern seaboard, is almost complete. One unopened section separates Society Hill from the waterfront at Penn's Landing, which aggravates problems of access because developers were reluctant to commit themselves to construction timetables because of the difficulty in attracting tenants. Another problem confronting the Philadelphia Waterfront deals with the construction of a museum, the Park of History Orientation building, which includes a 555-seat auditorium that can be used for multiple purposes. The Legislature has refused to furnish the money for staff or exhibits that would allow the completed museum to open. There is also a problem because the

outboat basin was not designed to provide adequate shelter from the wakes of passing commercial vessels. The choppiness of the basin's waters has discouraged recreational boaters from typing-up when visiting historic Philadelphia.

Philadelphia's waterfront lands are used for industrial and commercial development as well as for recreation. The port of Philadelphia plays an important role in land use in Philadelphia County. Only 17% of the waterfront is undeveloped. The port is responsible for 22% of the waterfront used for port-related commercial and residential uses, such as transportation and industrial cooling.

Plans call for the restoration of existing waterfront parks to their full value. A new federal program would allow the smaller neighborhood parks once again to serve recreational needs. The Philadelphia Waterfront project uses the multi-use development technique, by which recreational areas are used as an important part of commercial and industrial development. Under this procedure small facilities are attached to or developed with larger private ventures. This procedure seems especially appropriate and feasible when combined with a "land write-down" program presently underway in Philadelphia. This marketing strategy has been advertised nationally as the "Philadelphia Land Rush" and allows the Philadelphia Industrial Development Corporation to sell city owned land below market price when industries make certain promises concerning numbers of jobs per acre. This technique of the multiple use development can work in several ways. Public use areas can be dedicated to local or retained

in private ownership. In either case, the public benefits from the improved access, and industry also benefits from improved public relations.

Decision making in the Penn's Landing Project is a joint undertaking of the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania and the City of Philadelphia Department of Commerce and the Pennsylvania General State Authority. The $37 million site development and improvement costs have been shared by the city, state, and federal governments. The city and state will remain partners and plan to lease the site on a long-term basis to a private developer. The Penn's Landing Corporation was formed to coordinate the development of the project. The Old Philadelphia Development Corporation had established an impressive record during the development of Society Hill. The responsibility for project management, governmental coordination and developer selection rest with the Penn's Landing Corporation. An Advisory Committee has been established with citizen, governmental, and corporate representation.

Funding of the Philadelphia Waterfront is shared by the Philadelphia Department of Commerce and the Pennsylvania General State Authority. The project's public improvements have been financed through state and city bonds. Other funds will come from the federal government. For example, in order to restore existing waterfront parks, Philadelphia has received a grant under the federal Urban Park and Recreation Recovery Program of 1978, by which the Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service funds maintenance

and restoration of urban parks in areas of a low economic base. Thus, the Philadelphia Waterfront project is being funded by a coalition of federal, state and local governments, along with the investments of both the private and public sectors.

*Delaware Valley Regional Planning Commission, "Philadelphia Waterfront Profile" 1978. This draft provides a over all look at the developments of existing projects and projects that are still in the planning process along the Philadelphia Waterfront.

F. SAN FRANCISCO, CALIFORNIA

San Francisco suffers from many of the same problems that other port communities face. An important factor in recent land-use conflicts is what has been called the mystique of San Francisco Bay. Over the years that unquantifiable influence has been a determinant of waterfront land use as potent as any economic factor. For example, during the 1970's several private developments were proposed for the Northeastern Waterfront area but were halted because they would have adversely affected the view of the Bay.

A major problem faced by San Francisco is competition among varying uses of waterfront space such as open space, military, port, industrial, and commercial. Even though shipping remains an important economic factor, changes in transportation technology contributed to a decline relative to Oakland's container facilities. The Northeastern Waterfront continues to be used for traditional break-bulk cargo handling and shipping-related activities and is characterized by vacant and dilapidated piers and under-utilized land. The trend in recent years toward economic growth in the commercial, residential, and tourist sectors has increased the higher income people's demand for housing. This gentrification causes acute problems for those in lower income groups who are displaced from occupation of the urban waterfront. The problem is exacerbated by high costs of land, the demand for land for industrial expansion, and traffic congestion.

Another problem is the need for increased open space and recreation. The Pacific Ocean, San Francisco Bay and their shorelines are extremely important natural resources with considerable potential for open space and water-oriented recreation. However, this potential has yet to be realized. Despite the fact that a sizeable proportion of the shoreline is publicly owned, access to the water, except for the ocean, is sporadic and limited. Very little of the eastern shoreline and northern waterfront has been developed for recreation and open space. These problems must be addressed within environmental, ecological, legal and instutional constraints.

The uses of San Francisco's extensive shoreline are very diverse. The western edge, from the ocean to Fort Mason, a natural beach, is accessible to the public as part of the Golden Gate National Recreational Park area. South of China Basin, the Central and Southern Waterfronts are industrial and the location of major new shipping activities. The Northeastern Waterfront, between Broadway and China Basin and adjacent to the Financial District, is the most urbanized port of the City and also the location of port facilities.

Plans for the future envision the continuation of break-bulk shipping in the Northeastern Waterfrontand development of new port facilities in the Central and Southern Waterfront. Lands no longer needed for maritime purposes in the Northeastern Waterfront will be reserved for open space and water oriented recreation. Barriers, particularly the Embarcadero Roadway, will be removed to reintegrate the waterfront with the fabric of the City. The maritime character and historic continuity of the area are to be preserved. At the Ferry

Building, a major transit center will provide a terminus to Market Street and serve as a major entryway to the City from the water. In contrast, a recreational pier adjacent to open water would be developed in the pier 3-7 area.

South of the Ferry Building, plans call for a mixed use activity center with a waterfront park, hotels, restaurants, and plaza. Part of North China Basin would continue as shipping areas, while other parts which are vacant and in bad condition would be developed as a full service marina and small boat harbor. Another waterfront park is to be created at the terminus of the Embarcadero Roadway.

After more than a century of spontaneous harbor growth, the past decade has seen a confusing plethora of plans, counterplans, and amended plans by various jurisdictions. The City of San Francisco adopted a Northern Waterfront Plan in 1969--the same year that the Bay Conservation and Development Commission's plan for the entire bay was adopted. The San Francisco Bay Conservation and Development Commission, founded in 1965, is considered to be the first agency in the U. S. specifically established to assume authority over a major coastal resource that overlapped multiple jurisdictions. At the same time the Port and the Redevelopment Agency, which controlled extensive upland property, had plans of their own. In 1971, the City Planning Commission and the Port Commission presented revised waterfront plans, and a separate analysis was presented by the Citizens Waterfront Advisory Committee established by the BCDC to help make BCDC's own specific waterfront plan. In 1975, BCDC's "Special Area

Plan-San Francisco Waterfront" conflicted with the City's Northern Waterfront Plan, so both the City Planning Commission and BCDC worked to coordinate their planning, assisted by still another citizens's committee called the Northern Waterfront Planning Advisory Committee. In January 1977, the two plans were reconciled. Narrowing the focus, the San Francisco Supervisors called for a detailed survey of Northeastern property and an action plan, including cost estimates. The survey was a joint project of three agencies: the City Planning Department, the Redevelopment Agency, and the Port of San Francisco, assisted by yet another citizen's committee, the Northeastern Waterfront Advisory Committee. In February 1979, the preliminary report reflected certain unresolved controversies.

Special attention has been given to port planning. In May of 1978, the Metropolitan Transit Commission and the San Francisco Bay Conservation and Development Commission entered into an understanding providing for a joint Seaport Advisory Commission. It represents the MTC, the BCDC, the Association of Bay Area Governments, Cal. Trans., the U. S. Army Corps of Engineers, the Maritime Administration, the Bay Area Council, the Save San Francisco Bay Association, and the six bay area ports. Its purpose is to advise the MTC and the BCDC on the development of a Seaport Plan for the nine bay area counties.

Several funding sounces are available to finance public improvements. Local sources include tax anticipation bonds, state Proposition J funds (for acquiring open space), general obligation bonds,

and revenue bonds. State programs include the Harbors and Watercraft Revolving Fund (Department of Navigation and Ocean Development), the Land and Water Conservation Fund (Bureau of Outdoor Recreation through the State Department of Parks and Recreation), various park and open space grant programs, and the California Housing Finance Agency. Several federal sources of funding could be used, like HUD Community Development Block Grants and Section 8 Housing Assistance, the Economic Development Administration (Department of Commerce), Historic Preservation Grants (Department of Interior), and the Urban Mass Transportation Administration (Department of Transportation).

*Information pertaining to the San Francisco case has come from, Department of San Francisco Planning, Northeastern Survey, 1979. Also a discussion on the role of San Francisco Port, as compared to the Oakland Port, is pointed out in Urban Waterfront Lands, papers dealing with the Tale of Two Ports, p. 106.

APPENDIX II.

SUMMARY OF PRELIMINARY SURVEY RESULTS

SUMMARY OF PRELIMINARY SURVEY RESULTS

To gather information about the opportunities and constraints affecting the consolidation of port and urban waterfront redevelopment interests, a mail survey was sent to ports administrators and urban waterfront redevelopment interests in September of 1979.

The survey instrument asked respondents to identify their organizations' function, legal status, and territory. The next set of questions asked for a list of federal, state, regional, local, and private agencies which take a leading role in financing, planning, implementing, and managing waterfront development projects in the area. Two sets of questions asked for a ranking (from very severe to no problem) of given physical and institutional problems and followed up with open-ended questions on the specific nature of the problem, how it is being addressed, and what other approaches need to be taken, either within the existing institutional framework or with institutional change. Other open-ended items asked about financing capital improvement projects and competition from nearby ports.

The 20 responses received were geographically dispersed and included 10 from ports administrators. The others represented a number of different community interests, including planners and coastal zone managers. Few respondents answered the open-ended questions. Accordingly, these items have been used informally in this report to identify issues and to provide examples of some ideas. However, it is possible that future work will include a more sophisticated content analysis, which might lead to hypotheses for future testing.

Of course the small number of total responses would make efforts to generalize beyond the survey group of very doubtful validity. However, our analysis of the closed-ended questions suggests some thoughts which we present as a basis for further discussion. Figures 1A and 1B display the results of the two survey items in which respondents were asked to rank the severity of given physical and institutional problems. We have broken the responses into two categories: port and other (which includes community/planning/regulatory organizations). Thus we can look at the supposed differences of perception and interest around which much of this paper revolves.

Generally, the port authorities see all problems as more severe than do the planning-type organizations. The finding could suggest that ports tend to be more reactive or that their expectations, perhaps based on historic conditions of dominance, are for a less problem-filled environment. In the question set on physical problems (Figure 1A), the only problem which the community/planning groups seem to consider more severe than do the ports is the pressure for recreational use of and public access to the developed waterfront. In the set of institutional questions (Figure 1B), there is also just one problem perceived as more severe by the community/planning groups: overlapping and conflicting policies or regulations from different intergovernmental groups. In other areas, there is either very little difference or the ports consider the problem to be more severe. As Figure 1A shows, major issues of apparent divergence are in pressure for maritime and industrial use for undeveloped land, pressure for

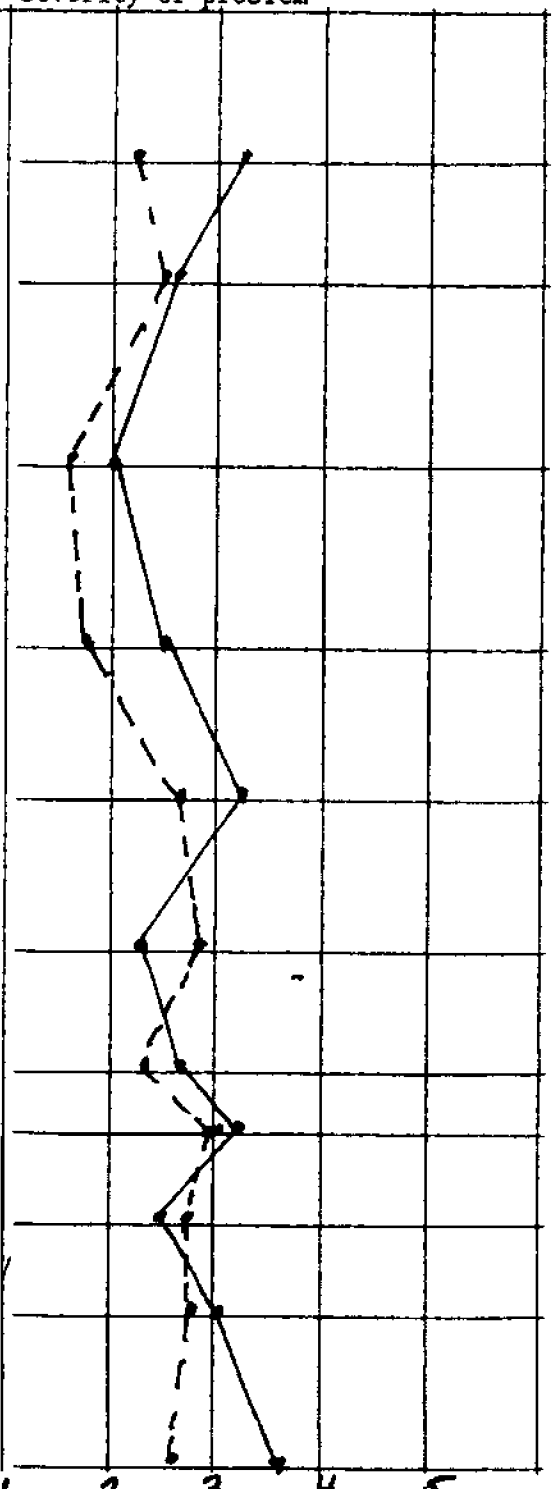
non-water-dependent commercial and residential use of the developed waterfront, pressure for recreational use of and public access to the undeveloped waterfront, the lack of undeveloped waterfront for port expansion, the lack of funding to revitalize/re-use facilities, and impediments to the use of new technologies. In the institutional questions (Figure 1B), there is divergence in all areas except for conflicting or vague state policies and regulations, discontinuity between planners, decision-makers, and managers, and lack of local policy on comprehensive goals and objectives on the use of waterfront space (which is not seen as a major problem by either group).

In summary, for many questions, the survey supports the idea that ports have different interests and needs. However, there is also some common ground. As the graphs most clearly illustrate, ports and other groups act within a very similar set of constraints. The two lines follow very similar paths. However, our findings suggest that ports see most problems as being more severe than do other actors on the urban waterfront. We may speculate that this perception and the port's greater dissatisfaction with conditions may be related to the port's tendency toward non-participation in community planning and decision-making. This non-participation might not only exacerbate its subjective sense of having lost control of development on the urban waterfront but might also lead to a set of decisions and events objectively less favorable to the port than to those interests which had been involved in the planning process.

FIGURE 1A

SURVEY RESPONDENTS' RANKING OF PHYSICAL PROBLEMS

Survey Item 6	Problem
A.	Increasing pressure for maritime/industrial use along undeveloped waterfront
B.	Increasing pressure for maritime/industrial use along developed waterfront
C.	Increasing pressure for non-water dependent commercial/residential use along undeveloped waterfront
D.	Increasing pressure for non-water dependent commercial/residential use along developed waterfront
E.	Increasing pressure for recreational use/public access along undeveloped waterfront
F.	Increasing pressure for recreational use/public access along developed waterfront
G.	Lack of available land for port expansion along developed waterfront
H.	Obsolete facilities
I.	Lack of money to maintain facilities
J.	Lack of money to revitalize/re-use facilities
K.	Impediments to the use of new technologies for improvement/expansion facility



*5= very severe problem; 4=severe problem; 3=moderate problem; 2=slight problem; 1=no problem;

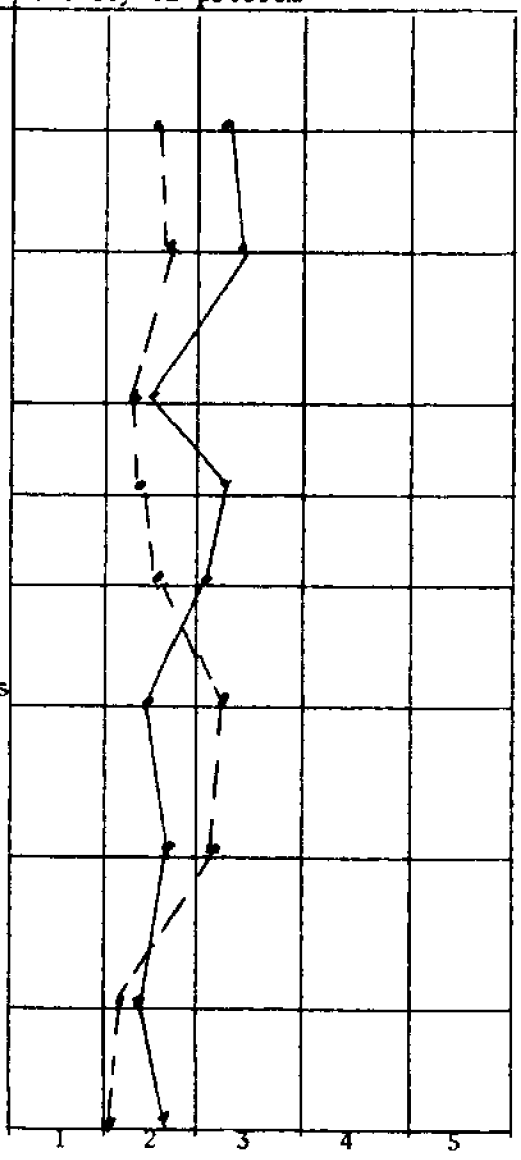
_____ = port respondents

----- = other respondents (includes community/planning/regulator agencies)

FIGURE 1B

SURVEY RESPONDENTS' RANKING OF INSTITUTIONAL PROBLEMS

Survey Item 9	Problem
A.	Permit coordination between port & urban waterfront interests
B.	Coordination of multiple agencies' planning for port & urban waterfront development
C.	Coordination between port & waterfront development interests
D.	Conflicting/vague Federal policies or regulations
E.	Conflicting/vague State policies or regulations
F.	Overlapping/conflicting policies or regulations from different intergovernmental units
G.	Discontinuity between those who plan, those who decide, & those who manage the waterfront
H.	Lack of local policy on comprehensive goals & objectives for use of waterfront space
I.	Lack of adequate communication between private & public sectors



*5 = very severe problems; 4 = severe problem; 3 = moderate problem; 2 = slight problem; 1 = no problem

_____ = port respondents

----- = other respondents (includes community/planning/regulator agencies)

APPENDIX III.

FUNDING SOURCES

for

PORT AND URBAN WATERFRONT REDEVELOPMENT

PROJECTS

FUNDING SOURCES FOR PORT AND URBAN WATERFRONT REDEVELOPMENT PROJECTS

This appendix is a compilation of various federal agencies (programs) which are currently active funding sources for waterfront areas. Program descriptions are provided where possible. The list presented here is by no means exhaustive. State agencies are not considered due to the number and variety of programs peculiar to each state. Additional sources, including private foundation funding sources, can be found in the original publication entitled "Reviving the Urban Waterfront" by Partners for Livable Places, National Endowment for the Arts, and Office of Coastal Zone Management.

Name of Department	Commerce Department - Economic Development Administration
Name of Program	Economic Development-Business Development Assistance
Funding Categories	Acquisition of fixed assets, site preparation and building rehabilitation
Primary Focus	To encourage industrial and commercial expansion in designated areas by providing financial assistance to businesses that create new permanent jobs, expand or establish plants in redevelopment areas for projects that cannot be financed through banks or other private lending institutions.
Type of Assistance	Direct Loans; Guaranteed/Insured Loans
Who Can Apply?	Individuals, private or public corporations or Indian Tribes
Contact and Address	EDA Regional Office or Paul J. O'Neill, Office of Business Development, Economic Development Administration, Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C. 20230.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965; Public Law 89-136, as amended; 42 U.S.C. 3142, 3171. "EDA Business Development Loans - Who Can Borrow - How to Apply."

Name of Department	Commerce Department - Economic Development Administration
Name of Program	Economic Development-Grants and Loans for Public Works and Development Facilities
Funding Categories	Total Public Projects-Acquisition, Construction . . . Roads, Sewers, Port Facilities . . .
Primary Focus	To assist in the construction of public facilities needed to initiate and encourage long term economic growth in designated geographic areas where economic growth is lagging behind the rest of the Nation. Emphasis on increasing private investment in the area.
Type of Assistance	Project Grants
Who Can Apply?	State or local governments, Indian Tribes, private and public nonprofit organizations
Contact and Address	EDA regional office or Charles Coss, Director, Office of Public Works, Economic Development Administration, Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C. 20230.

Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines, and Literature	Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965; Public Law 89-136, as amended; 42 U.S.C. 3131, 3132, 3135, 3141, 3171. Title 13 CFR Chapter III, " Building Communities with Jobs," EDA, "Grants and Loans for Public Works and Development Facilities," EDA. "Qualified Areas under the Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965," "Guide for Overall Economic Development Programs," "Economic Development, Directory of Approved Projects."
Name of Department	Commerce Department - Economic Development Administration
Name of Program	Grants to States for Supplemental and Basic Funding of Titles, I, II, III, IV and IX Activities (304 Grants)
Funding Categories	Construction of Public Facilities and Business Development Loans
Primary Focus	To provide funds which enable Governors to select projects which will assist in the construction of public facilities and other projects which meet the criteria of Titles I, II, III, IV and IX and are needed to initiate or enhance long-term economic growth in areas of their state where economic growth is lagging.
Type of Assistance	Project Grants, Direct Loans
Who Can Apply?	State and Local Governments, Indian Tribes, private and public nonprofit organizations. Corporations and associations organized for profit are eligible only for business development loans.
Contact and Address	Regional EDA Office or Economic Development Administration, Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C. 20230/Charles Coss, Director, Office of Public Works/ Glenn S. Walden, Director, Office of Business Development.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965, Public Law 89-136; as amended; 42 U.S.C. 3131, 3132, 3141, 3142, 3153. Code of Federal Regulations, Title 13, Chapter III, Part 312 (published also in the Federal Register, Vol. 39, No. 220, November 13, 1974); "EDA Grants for Public Works and Development Facilities", "EDA Business Development Loans--Who Can Borrow--How to Apply."

Name of Department	Commerce Department-Economic Development Administration
Name of Program	Economic Development-Public Works Impact Projects
Funding Categories	Construction of public facilities
Primary Focus	To provide immediate useful work to unemployed and underemployed persons in designated project areas
Type of Assistance	Project Grants
Who Can Apply?	State and local governments, Indian Tribes, private and public nonprofit organizations
Contact and Address	EDA Regional Offices or Charles Coss, Director, Office of Public Works, Economic Development Administration, Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C. 20230.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965; Public Law 89-136, as amended; 42 U.S.C. 3131, 3135 Building Communities with Jobs, EDA: "Grants and Loans for Public Works and Development Facilities, EDA": Title 13, Code of Federal Regulations, Chapter III, "Qualified Areas under the Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965." Guides for Overall Economic Development Programs, Directory of Approved Projects.

Name of Department	Commerce Department, Economic Development Administration
Name of Program	Economic Development-Special Economic Development and Adjustment Assistance Program
Funding Categories	Planning, rent supplement, mortgage payment assistance, technical assistance, public facilities, public services and business development.
Primary Focus	To provide special Economic Development and Adjustment Assistance Programs to help State and local areas meet special needs arising from actual or threatened unemployment as a result of economic dislocation or other severe changes in economic assistance.
Type of Assistance	Project Grants
Who Can Apply?	State and local governments, Indian tribes and private and public nonprofit organizations.
Contact and Address	EDA Regional Office or Deputy Assistant Secretary for Economic Development Operations, Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C. 20230

Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines, and Literature	Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965, Public Lab 89-136, as amended: 42 U.S.C. 3241, 3243, and 3245 13 CFR 308, further guidelines and literature to be issued
Name of Department	Commerce Department, Economic Development Administration
Name of Program	Economic Development - Technical Assistance
Funding Categories	Technical Assistance
Primary Focus	To solve problems of economic growth in EDA-designated geographic areas and other areas of substantial need through administrative and demonstration project grants, feasibility studies, management and operational assistance, and other studies.
Type of Assistance	Project Grants (Contracts); Dissemination of Technical Information
Who Can Apply?	Most goes to private, nonprofit groups or State and local government.
Contact and Address	EDA Regional Offices or Israel M. Baill, Director, Office of Technical Assistance, Economic Development Administration, Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C. 20230.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines, and Literature	Public Works and Economic Development Act of 1965; Public Law 89-136, as amended; 42 U.S.C. 3151, 3152 Leaflet entitled "EDA Technical Assistance, What Is It, How to Apply."
Name of Department	Commerce Department, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
Name of Program	Coastal Zone Management Program Development (305)
Funding Categories	Planning
Primary Focus	To assist any coastal state in the development of a management program for the land and water resources of its coastal zone.
Type of Assistance	Project Grants

Who Can Apply?	States in, or bordering on, the Atlantic, Pacific, or Arctic Ocean, the Gulf of Mexico, Long Island Sound, or one or more of the Great Lakes.
Contact and Address	Director, Office of Coastal Zone Management, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Department of Commerce, 3300 Whitehaven Street, N.W., Page Bldg. No. 1, Room 324, Washington, D.C. 20235.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	Coastal Zone Management Act of 1972, Section 306; Public Law 92-583; Coastal Zone Management Act Amendments of 1976, Section 306; Public Law 94-370. 15 CFR Part 920; Grants Management Manual for Grants under the Coastal Zone Management Act

Name of Department	Commerce Department, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration
Name of Program	Coastal Zone Management Program Administration
Funding Categories	Administration
Primary Focus	To assist states in administering the Coastal Zone Management program that has been approved by the Secretary of Commerce
Type of Assistance	Project Grants
Who Can Apply?	Any coastal state whose Coastal Zone Management program has been approved by the Secretary of Commerce
Contact and Address	Director, Office of Coastal Zone Management, National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration, Department of Commerce, Page Bldg. No. 1, Room 324, 3300 Whitehaven Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20235.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	Coastal Zone Management Act of 1972, Section 306; Public Law 92-583; Coastal Zone Management Act Amendments of 1976, Section 306; Public Law 94-370. Grants Management Manual for Grants under the Coastal Zone Management Act.

Name of Department	Commerce Department-Maritime Administration
Name of Program	Development and Promotion of Ports and Intermodal Transportation

Funding Categories	Technical assistance to Port Authorities, governments, private industry and individuals
Primary Focus	To promote and plan for the development and utilization of ports and port facilities, and intermodal transportation; to provide technical advice to Government agencies, private industry and State and municipal governments.
Type of Assistance	Advisory Services, Technical Information
Who Can Apply?	State and Local Governments; individuals, organizations, companies, etc. . . .
Contact and Address	Regional Maritime Administration Office or Armour S. Armstrong, Director, Office of Port and Intermodal Development, Maritime Administration, Department of Commerce, Washington, D.C. 20230.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	Title V of the Merchant Marine Act, 1936, as amended; Public Law 74-835, as amended: 46 U.S.C. 1151-1161. Maritime Administration-General Order 11 (46 CFR 251).

Name of Department	Community Services Administration
Name of Program	Community Economic Development
Funding Categories	Business, Investment and Development
Primary Focus	Provision of seed money that will spur more investment in an area and/or make a profit for the local development corporation. Emphasis on helping the poor.
Type of Assistance	Grant with 10% local matching share
Who Can Apply?	Local Community Development Corporations
Contact and Address	James V. Digilio, Planning, Design and Evaluation Division, Office of Economic Development, Community Services Administration, 1200 19th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20506.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines, and Literature	Economic Opportunity Act of 1964, as amended by the Community Services Act of 1974, Title VII, Sections 701, et seq., Public Law 93-644; 42 U.S.C. 2981b. Guidelines, Office of Economic Development/CSA.

Name of Department	General Services Administration
Name of Program	Office of Real Property-Legacy of the Parks Program Disposal of Federal Surplus Real Property
Funding Categories	Land Donation
Primary Focus	Give excess Federal Government property to be developed for the benefit of the area
Type of Assistance	Land
Who Can Apply?	Local government or planning agencies can make General Services aware that excess land exists, or land is found through General Services review of its holdings.
Contact and Address	Assistant Commissioner, Office of Real Property, Public Buildings Service, General Services Administration, Washington, D.C. 20405
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines, and Literature	Section 203 of the Federal Property and Administrative Services Act of 1949, 63 Stat. 385, as amended, 40 U.S.C. 484; Section 13(g) of the Surplus Property Act of 1944, as amended, 50 U.S.C. App. 1622(g); Public Law 80-537, 62 Stat. 240, as amended, 16 U.S.C. 667b-d; Section 414 of Public Law 91-152, 83 Stat. 400, as amended, 40 U.S.C. 484b; and Section 218 of Public Law 91-646, 84 Stat. 1902, 42 U.S.C. 4638. "Disposal of Surplus Real Property"; 41 CFR 101-47, Utilization and Disposal of Real Property

Name of Department	Department of Housing and Urban Development
Name of Program	Community Development Block Grants/Discretionary Grants (Small Cities)
Funding Categories	Acquisition, rehabilitation or construction of certain public works facilities and improvements, site preparation, housing rehabilitation, code enforcements, relocation payments and assistance, administrative expenses, economic development, and completing existing urban renewal projects.
Primary Focus	To assist communities in providing decent housing and a suitable living environment, and expanded economic opportunities, principally for persons of low and moderate income.
Type of Assistance	Project Grants

Who Can Apply?	State and local units of Government except Entitlement cities.
Contact and Address	HUD Area Office or Community Planning and Development, 451 7th Street, S.W., Washington, D.C. 20410.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	Title I of the Housing and Community Development Act of 1974, Public Law 93-383, 42 U.S.C. 5301-5317. Administrative Regulations for Community Development Block Grants, 24 CFR 570.

Name of Department	Department of Housing and Urban Development
Name of Program	Community Development Block Grants-Entitlement Grants
Funding Categories	Acquisition, Construction and Improvements
Primary Focus	Helping low and moderate income people and/or preventing slums and blight (blight prevention can be in either residential or non-residential neighborhoods).
Type of Assistance	Formula Grants
Who Can Apply?	Entitlement cities get a set amount of money each year to spend at their discretion as long as it is on projects which fit the primary focus
Contact and Address	Housing and Urban Development Area Office or Community Planning and Development, 451 7th Street, S.W. Washington, D.C. 20410.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	Title I of the Housing and Community Development Act of 1974, Public Law 93-383, 42 U.S.C. 5301-5317. Administrative Regulations for Community Development Block Grants, 24 CFR 570

Name of Department	Department of Housing and Urban Development
Name of Program	Urban Development Action Grants
Funding Categories	Acquisition, Construction, Improvements and Relocation of Business
Primary Focus	To leverage private investments for residential or commercial developments

Type of Assistance	Project Grants
Who Can Apply?	Distressed cities and distressed urban counties
Contact and Address	Department of Housing and Urban Development Area Office or Office of Urban Development Action Grants, Community Planning and Development, HUD 451 7th Street, S.W., Washington, D.C. 20410.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	Title I of the Housing and Community Development Act of 1974, Public Law 93-383, 42 U.S.C. 5301-5317, as amended by Title I of the Housing and Community Development Act of 1977, Section 110, Public Law 93-128, 42 U.S.C. 5304. 24 CFR 570.450 Off.

Name of Department	Interior Department - Bureau of Land Management
Name of Program	Public Land for Recreation, Public Purposes and Historic Monuments
Funding Categories	Public land for lease or purchase for health, educational, public recreation, historical monuments, and other recreational purposes.
Primary Focus	To permit available public land to be leased or acquired for historical monuments, recreation and public purposes.
Type of Assistance	Sale, Exchange, or Donation of Property and Goods.
Who Can Apply?	Federal, State and Local instrumentalities and governments, non-profit associations and non-profit corporations.
Contact and Address	Bureau of Land Management Regional Offices or Division of Lands and Realty, Bureau of Land Management, Department of the Interior, Room 3649, Washington, D.C. 20240.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	Recreation and Public Purposes Act of June 14, 1926, as amended; 43 U.S.C. 869, 869-4, as amended by 90 Stat. 2759-60. Title 43, Code of Federal Regulations, subparts 2740 and 2912, Circular 2307.

Name of Department	Interior Department - Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service
Name of Program	Disposal of Federal Surplus Real Property for Ports, Recreation and Historic Monuments (Surplus Property Program)
Funding Categories	Land for public parks and recreation use
Primary Focus	To dispose of surplus Federal real property for public ports and recreation use and for historic monument use
Type of Assistance	Advisory Services and Counseling
Who Can Apply?	State and Local Governments
Contact and Address	HCRS Regional Directors or Chief, Division of Technical Services, Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service, Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C. 20240
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	Section 203 of the Federal Property and Administrative Services Act of 1949; 63 Stat. 385 as amended; 40 U.S.C. 484. "Disposal of Surplus Real Property" published by the General Services Administration

Name of Department	Interior Department - Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service
Name of Program	Historic Preservation Grants-in-Aid
Funding Categories	Planning, staff salaries, equipment, materials and travel necessary to accomplish the purposes of the program.
Primary Focus	To expand and maintain the National Register of Historic Places -- districts, sites, buildings, structures and objects significant in American history, architecture, archeology and culture at the national, state and local levels.
Type of Assistance	Project Grants
Who Can Apply?	National Trust for Historic Preservation, and State and Territories as defined in the National Historic Preservation Act operating programs administered by a State Historic Preservation Officer appointed by the Governor.

Contact and Address	State Historic Preservation Offices or Chief, Office of Archeology and Historic Preservation, Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service, Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C. 20240.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	National Historic Preservation Act of 1966; Public Law 89-665; 16 U.S.C. 470, amended by Public Law 94-442. "The Secretary of the Interior's Standards for Acquisition and Development Projects" (available upon request from the Department of the Interior, Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service, Office of Archeology and Historic Preservation, Washington, D.C.
Name of Department	Interior Department - Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service
Name of Program	Outdoor Recreation-Acquisition, Development and Planning
Funding Categories	Acquisition and development of facilities not operation and maintenance.
Primary Focus	To acquire and develop outdoor recreation facilities. Priority consideration generally is given to projects serving urban populations.
Type of Assistance	Project Grants
Who Can Apply?	The State agency designated as responsible for the preparation and maintenance of the Statewide Comprehensive Outdoor Recreation Plan. The State agency can apply on the behalf of local governments.
Contact and Address	Regional HCRS Office or Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service, Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C. 20240. Contact: Robert A. Ritsch, Rm. 121, South Interior Building.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	16 U.S.C. 1-4 et seq. Land and Water Conservation Fund Act of 1965; Public Law 88-578; 78 Stat. 897; as amended by Public Law 90-401 (82 Stat. 354); Public Law 91-485 (84 Stat. 1084); Public Law 91-308 (84 Stat. 410); Public Law 92-347 (86 Stat. 460); Public Law 93-81 (87 Stat. 178); Public Law 94-422 (90 Stat. 1313); and Public Law 95-42 (91 Stat. 210). Outdoor Recreation Grants-in-Aid Manual (Government Printing Office). "The Land and Water Conservation Fund Act of 1965, as Amended". Digest of Federal Outdoor Recreation Programs and Recreation-Related Environmental Programs." (Government Printing Office) "Private Assistance in Outdoor Recreation."

Name of Department	Interior Department - Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service
Name of Program	Outdoor Recreation-Technical Assistance
Funding Categories	Technical Information for planning, developing, managing and financing recreation programs
Primary Focus	To promote programs which meet public need for recreation and related environmental quality.
Type of Assistance	Advisory Services, Counseling and Technical Information
Who Can Apply?	Anyone may apply
Contact and Address	HCRS Regional Office or Chief, Division of Technical Services, Heritage Conservation and Recreation Service, Department of the Interior, Washington, D.C. 20240
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	Bureau of Outdoor Recreation Organic Act; Public Lab 88-29; 77 Stat. 49; 16 U.S.C. 1-3. Act of June 23, 1936 (49 Stat. 1894). "Outdoor Recreation Action" Government Printing Office "Private Assistance in Outdoor Recreation."

Name of Department	National Foundation on the Arts and the Humanities-National Endowment for the Arts.
Name of Program	Promotion of the Arts-Architecture, Planning and Design Cultural Facilities Program
Funding Categories	Planning, Design and Technical Research
Primary Focus	To assist in the planning and design of exemplary cultural facilities, and to encourage the commitment of local public and private funds to carry out projects.
Type of Assistance	Grant
Who Can Apply?	Local groups
Contact and Address	Director, Architecture, Planning, and Design Program National Endowment for the Arts, 2401 E. Street, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20506.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	National Foundation on the Arts and the Humanities Act of 1965, Public Law 89-209 as amended by Public Law 90-348, Public Law 91-346, Public Law 93-133, and Public Law 94-462; 20 U.S.C. 951 et seq. "National Endowment for the Arts, Guide to Programs" and "Architecture, Planning and Design Guidelines"

Name of Department	National Foundation on the Arts and the Humanities-National Endowment for the Arts
Name of Program	Promotion of the Arts-Architecture, Planning and Design-Livable Cities Program
Funding Categories	Planning and Design Only
Primary Focus	To encourage communities to introduce exemplary design as an integral part of their planning processes
Type of Assistance	Grant (can be used as matching funds to other Federal sources)
Who Can Apply?	Organizations with tax-exempt status under section 170(c) of the IRS Code
Contact and Address	Director, Architecture, Planning, and Design Program, National Endowment for the Arts, 2401 E Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20506.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	National Foundation on the Arts and the Humanities Act of 1965, Public Law 89-209 as amended by Public Law 90-348, Public Law 91-346, Public Law 93-133, and Public Law 94-462; 20 U.S.C. 951 et seq. "National Endowment for the Arts, Guide to Programs" and "Architecture, Planning and Design Guidelines"

Name of Department	Department of Transportation-Federal Highway Administration
Name of Program	Functional Replacement Program
Funding Categories	Total Cost of Replacement of Public Buildings
Primary Focus	Replace Structures in Public Ownership that are Destroyed through Development of the Federal Highway System
Type of Assistance	Grant
Who Can Apply?	Local government or planning authorities
Contact and Address	State Highway Commission. Located in State Capital or Federal Highway Administrator, Federal Highway Administration, Washington, D.C. 20570.

Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	Federal-Aid Highway Act of 1973; Public Law 93-87; Title 23 U.S. Code as amended; Federal-Aid Highway Amendments of 1974; Public Law 93-643; Federal-Aid Highway Act of 1976, Public Law 94-280. 23 CFR "Highways"
Name of Department	Department of Transportation-Federal Highway Administration
Name of Program	Joint Development Program
Funding Categories	Planning and implementation of landscape plans
Primary Focus	Landscaping and beautification around Federal Aid Systems roads
Type of Assistance	Grant
Who Can Apply?	Local government or planning authorities
Contact and Address	State Highway Commission. Located in State Capital or Federal Highway Administrator, Federal Highway Administration, Washington, D.C. 20570.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	Federal-Aid Highway Act of 1973; Public Law 93-87; Title 23 U.S. Code as amended; Federal-Aid Highway Amendments of 1974; Public Law 93-643; Federal-Aid Highway Act of 1976, Public Law 94-280. 23 CFR "Highways"
Name of Department	Department of Transportation-Federal Highway Administration
Name of Program	Property Acquisition Division
Funding Categories	Donation and Acquisition of Land
Primary Focus	Roads included in the Federal Aid System. When right-of-way land is sitting idle, it can be turned back to the city for sale or for free at the discretion of the Federal Highway Administration.
Type of Assistance	Donation of Land
Who Can Apply?	Anyone, public organizations are more likely to receive land for free.

Contact and Address	State Highway Commission. Located in State Capital or Federal Highway Administrator, Federal Highway Administration, Washington, D.C. 20570.
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	Federal-Aid Highway Act of 1973; Public Law 93-87; Title 23 U.S. Code as amended; Federal-Aid Highway Amendments of 1974; Public Law 93-643; Federal-Aid Highway Act of 1976. Public Law 94-280. 23 CFR "Highways"
Name of Department	Department of Transportation-Federal Highway Administration
Name of Program	Urban Mass Transit Authority
Funding Categories	Acquisition, construction, reconstruction and improvements
Primary Focus	Mass Transit Projects (also People movers, boats, etc.)
Type of Assistance	Grant
Who Can Apply?	Local Government, Local Transit Authority, Metropolitan Planning Authority
Contact and Address	State Highway Commission. Located in State Capital or Associate Administrator, Office of Transit Assistance, Urban Mass Transit Administration, 400 7th Street, S.W., Washington, D.C. 20590
Authorization, Regulations, Guidelines and Literature	Urban Mass Transportation Act of 1964; Public Law 88-365, as amended through February 5, 1976; 49 U.S.C. 1601 et seq. 49 CFR 601.2; "Program Information for Capital Grants and Technical Studies Grants." "Guidelines for Project Administration."

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