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A Tale of Two Silos: Collaborative School Facility Planning in Post-Katrina New Orleans

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A Tale of Two Silos:
Collaborative School Facility Planning in Post-Katrina New Orleans

A Thesis

Submitted to the Graduate Faculty of the
University of New Orleans
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

Master
of
Urban and Regional Planning

by

Lauren Elizabeth Mikulak

B.A. University of Notre Dame, 2006

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Dedication

For Erik, for everything.

Acknowledgment

This thesis is the result of many months of work, supported by many individuals. Thank you first to my family—for your proofreading, cheerleading, patience, and love. Mom, thank you especially for teaching me this mantra: “If you can think, you can write.”

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Abbreviations

2030 Plan	<i>A Plan for the 21st Century: New Orleans 2030</i>
BESE	Louisiana Board of Elementary and Secondary Education
BNOB	Bring New Orleans Back
CC&S	Center for Cities & Schools, University of California-Berkeley
CEFPI	Council of Educational Facility Planners International
Cowen	Cowen Institute for Public Education Initiatives, Tulane University
CPC	City Planning Commission
CSP	Collaborative School Planning
CZO	Comprehensive Zoning Ordinance
DOE	Department of Education
EPA	Environmental Protection Agency
FEMA	Federal Emergency Management Agency
GIS	Geographic Information System
HB	House Bill
HCR	House Concurrent Resolution
La. Rev. Stat.	Louisiana Revised Statutes
MSC	Multi-Service Center
NOPS	New Orleans Public Schools
NORA	New Orleans Redevelopment Authority
NORD	New Orleans Recreation Department
OPSB	Orleans Parish School Board
PAC	Planning Advisory Committee
R.S.	Revised Statute
RSD	Recovery School District
SB	Senate Bill
SCCR	School-Centered Community Revitalization
SFMP/SFMPOP	<i>School Facilities Master Plan for Orleans Parish</i>
SZEA	State Zoning Enabling Act
TDM	Transportation Demand Management
ULI	Urban Land Institute
UNOP	Unified New Orleans Plan

Abstract

Cities and schools are traditionally planned in separate silos by local governments and school boards. Collaborative school facility planning (CSP) unites these two silos and integrates decision-making by city and school entities.

This research addresses the relationship between urban planning and school facility planning in New Orleans, Louisiana, where CSP is particularly important in light of rebuilding efforts since Hurricane Katrina. The researcher examines the extent, challenges, and opportunities for CSP in New Orleans. Based on interviews and recent planning texts, little collaboration existed in the past; but the decommissioning of 52 New Orleans public school facilities presents an unmistakable opportunity for improved CSP in the near future.

The broader implications of this thesis suggest that an alternative model for CSP is needed for low-growth, urban communities whose primary concern is not *new* school construction but *old* facility closure and reuse.

Key Words: urban planning, school facilities, comprehensive plan, master plan, collaboration, collaborative school planning, growth

Chapter 1: Introduction

Collaborative public school facility planning entails cooperative planning between local government and school officials.¹ Traditionally, school facility and community land use planning occur in separate silos under the jurisdictions of separate public bodies. School boards alone have authority over public school programming and buildings, so facility planning has occurred in its own silo for decades. Likewise, local governments traditionally have no authority over public schools, so education is often excluded from the scope of local and regional land use planning.

This customary and common practice of separate planning results in a significant disconnect and “tremendous missed opportunities to make better land use and service decisions” to support a community (McKoy, Vincent, & Makarewicz, 2008, p. 19). Schools both *affect* and are *affected by* surrounding land use. Schools impact and respond to growth, and ultimately schools can work with or against community goals (Dalbey, 2010). Well-planned schools can catalyze community improvement and economically fulfill multiple needs—education, recreation, and social services (Atlanta Regional Commission [ARC], 2003; BEST Collaborative, 2005).

Collaborative school planning (CSP) is important because it recognizes these possibilities. CSP recognizes that school facility and land use planners serve the *same* community and have an interest in similar issues, including public health, safety, and community facilities. Collaborative planning integrates the decision-making that affects schools, transportation, and land use within a city to “ensure consistency and coordination between the growth objectives of the school board and the desired development patterns for the community” (ARC, 2003, p. 20).

CSP is particularly important in New Orleans because the city has been rebuilding its infrastructure over the last five years since Hurricane Katrina, and it makes sense to consider schools in the context of economic development, housing, transportation, and other community services. Successive planning processes have occurred since Hurricane Katrina, and post-storm planning has produced many regional and local plans. Among

¹ The phrases “collaborative school facilities planning” and “collaborative school planning” are used interchangeably throughout this paper in addition to the abbreviation CSP. All are referring to the same concept of coordinating city and school planning efforts as related to public school facilities.

these plans are a school facilities and citywide land use plan: the *School Facilities Master Plan for Orleans Parish* and *A Plan for the 21st Century: New Orleans 2030*.

Planning for the *School Facilities Master Plan for Orleans Parish* (SFMP) began in 2007 to address the quantity and condition of New Orleans' public schools. The SFMP represents a collaborative planning effort between the local Orleans Public School Board (OPSB) and the state-run Recovery School District (RSD) both of which oversee public schools in New Orleans. *A Plan for the 21st Century: New Orleans 2030* (hereafter referred to as the 2030 Plan) was started in 2008 and fulfills the City Charter requirement for a 20-year comprehensive land use plan.

This thesis examines the relationship between these documents and the processes by which they were produced. Although the 2030 Plan and SFMP are aligned and identify similar themes, little genuine collaboration existed between school and city entities during the two planning processes. Six primary factors explain this low level of CSP: (1) the post-disaster context, (2) the timing of planning processes, (3) the presence of a designated city-school liaison, (4) the meaning of "planning," (5) power struggles and political self-interest, and (6) the decentralized school governance structure. Looking forward, three specific opportunities exist for CSP in the future; these relate to the (1) reuse of surplus school sites, (2) revision of the comprehensive zoning ordinance revision, and (3) review of the master plans. Finally, four variables could largely affect the possibility of future CSP, including (1) state legislation, (2) permanent school governance, (3) a formalized collaborative processes, and (4) new mayoral leadership.

The most important opportunity for CSP in the near future in New Orleans relates to the reuse of surplus school facilities. In most communities, school closings occur infrequently over many years. The incremental nature obscures the need for CSP, and a collaborative decision-making process for school facility reuse rarely exists. Like other urban communities, New Orleans' public school enrollments have decreased over time, but schools were *not* closed accordingly. Instead, 52 schools were decommissioned simultaneously in 2008.

This phenomenon is important because it not only represents an unmistakable opportunity for improved CSP, it also uniquely highlights the need for an alternative model of CSP that addresses not the *opening*, but the *closing* of school facilities. In most places

where it exists, collaborative school planning is embraced because public school enrollments are increasing, new schools are needed, and there is a concern over new school construction on the suburban fringe. Problems arise when school districts exercise their authority to independently plan for and construct schools where it is cheapest and easiest—often far from the students they serve.

Certain basic principles of CSP are the same regardless of context—city and school entities need to improve communication, share data, and create common goals—but the particulars of collaborative planning are based on the growth trends of a community. The growth-oriented model of CSP is well-established in literature, but the issues and challenges associated with population loss and low-growth communities are understudied. Through examination of the New Orleans experience, this research ultimately demonstrates that an alternative model of CSP is needed for these declining places whose primary concern is not *new* school construction but *old* facility closure and reuse.

Purpose

The purpose of this thesis is to help local planners and policymakers to improve the practice of city and school planning in Louisiana and New Orleans. This thesis investigates collaborative school planning in post-Katrina New Orleans on two levels. First, it evaluates the extent to which the principles of CSP existed during the two planning process. Secondly, this research identifies the particular circumstances that affect CSP in New Orleans. These particulars justify the need for an alternative model of CSP that is more appropriate for older, urban, low-growth communities.

Research Questions

Specifically, this thesis answers three questions:

- What level of collaboration existed between city and school planners in the development of the *School Facilities Master Plan for Orleans Parish* and *A Plan for the 21st Century: New Orleans 2030*?
- What factors encouraged or limited collaboration during the planning processes?
- What are the future constraints and possibilities for collaborative school facility planning in New Orleans?

Significance

This research is significant because it fills a void in CSP literature. The research and practice of collaborative school planning is almost entirely focused on rapid-growth communities and suburban development. This research is important because it identifies the particular concerns of an urban community with decreasing public school enrollments.

This study is also significant because currently no CSP research is based on Louisiana. This is partially explained by the fact that neither the state of Louisiana nor the city of New Orleans has codified criteria related to school planning or facility reuse. Recent legislative activity, however, signals the possibility of upcoming changes related to school facilities. This research offers an overview of national CSP trends and local context that policymakers and planners will need to write effective legislation that supports CSP.

Contents

This thesis contains seven chapters. Following this introduction is a literature review that summarizes current research on collaborative school planning. Norton (2007) describes the body of literature on CSP as an “ad hoc collection of causal factors and corresponding policy recommendations” (p. 480). To some degree Norton is correct, as there are numerous lines of research that identify the relationships between schools, land use, infrastructure, and neighborhoods. This literature review provides a summary of these lines of research, many of which focus on the growth-oriented model of CSP. Chapter two also outlines the basic challenges and principles of CSP that transcend growth scenarios and are pertinent to all communities.

Chapter three narrows the focus and introduces the legislation related to school and land use planning in Louisiana and New Orleans. State and local laws add a layer of complexity to CSP and also explain why city and school planning often occur in separate silos. This legislation is important because if a CSP framework is adopted in New Orleans, it will likely be done within the context of existing legislation.

Chapter four provides a historical perspective specific to New Orleans. This chapter presents a chronology of the land use and school facility plans that preceded and culminated in the *School Facilities Master Plan for Orleans Parish* and *A Plan for the 21st Century: New Orleans 2030*.

These national, state, and local contexts all inform the possibility of collaborative school planning, but none explain the current state of CSP in New Orleans. The research questions that frame this research consider past and future possibilities for CSP. Chapter five briefly explains the methods by which these questions are answered; chapter six provides those answers. This research finds little in the name of collaborative planning existed during the school facility planning process, and six key factors explain this conclusion. These factors as well as three opportunities for future collaboration are explained in chapter six. Primary among these is the possibility for collaboratively planning the reuse of vacant school facilities.

New Orleans is adjusting to a new mayoral administration, anticipating a reorganized school system, and transitioning from post-Katrina recovery planning to long-range planning. Given these changes and the fact that surplus schools sites affect nearly every neighborhood, there is ample reason to embrace the practice of CSP *now*. Public schools are perceived as an essential component of the public realm, regardless of the independent existence of local governments and school boards. If city and school leaders recognize the particular circumstance of New Orleans and dedicate themselves to the principles of CSP—improved communication, shared data, and common goals—then a CSP process for New Orleans and other low-growth communities could be formalized in short order.

Chapter 2: The Basis and Practice of Collaborative School Facilities Planning

Although the tradition of independent planning for land use and school facilities continues in most parts of the country, there is growing awareness amongst educators, planners, and elected officials of the mutual benefits of collaborative school facility planning. This awareness is reflected a growing body of literature that addresses both the “why” and the “how” of CSP.

There is no single body of literature on collaborative school planning, so the first part of this chapter outlines the numerous lines of research that identify the relationship between schools and urban planning. The first section outlines the principal connections between schools, sprawl, transportation, and land use that justify CSP in high-growth communities. CSP in low-growth communities is under-studied, but the budding urban topic of school-centered community revitalization (SCCR) is significant and is summarized here. Finally, trends in school planning recognize that schools can provide many community services; research on co-location and community schools highlight the case for collaborative planning and are also outlined below.

The second part of this chapter summarizes literature on *how* to integrate city and school facility planning. It outlines the challenges and principles of CSP that transcend growth scenarios and are pertinent to all communities. This chapter concludes with a brief survey of the current research that addresses the particular circumstance of school facilities in New Orleans. Only one recent report specifically discusses CSP in New Orleans, so this thesis fills a considerable void in scholarly research.

Why Collaborative School Planning Makes Sense

School Sprawl Problem

The relationship of schools and sprawl makes the argument for collaborative planning by highlighting the problems that arise when school and land use planning occur in separate silos. The practice of CSP is not yet widespread, but it is receiving increased attention because of school siting trends in rapidly growing suburban areas. Over the last 60 years in the U.S., public school enrollments have increased and school construction has yielded increasingly large facilities (International City/County Management Association [ICMA], 2008). The impact of this trend is staggering: since the 1930s, the number of

public schools in the U.S. dropped from over 262,000 to around 90,000 (Salvesen, 2003). During the same period public school enrollments nearly doubled from 26 to 48 million students (ICMA, 2008). These numbers indicate that the average school size (in terms of enrollment) has increased by 500%.

With higher enrollments, new schools are built to relieve overcrowding. Because of policies like minimum acreage requirements, new school construction often follows the model of suburban development locating on cheap land far from the students they serve (Beaumont & Pianca, 2002). A study of South Carolina counties shows that the size of school sites has actually increased every decade since the 1950s, and schools built in the last 20 years are over 40% larger than those built previously (Passmore, 2002). These larger and more distant schools result in fewer neighborhood schools, higher busing costs, the neglect of older facilities, and arguably more sprawl.

Because of this pattern, W. Cecil Steward of the College of Architecture at the University of Nebraska refers to schools as “advance scouts for urban sprawl” saying that “the public school system...is the most influential planning entity, either public or private, promoting the prototypical sprawl pattern of American cities” (as cited in Beaumont & Pianca, 2002, p. 18). Indeed, the specific contribution of new school construction to suburban sprawl has been identified as a national phenomenon (Agron, 2005; Beaumont & Pianca, 2002; Donnelly, 2003; Eisberg, Friedman, Lollini & Slingluff, 2006; Maryland Department of Planning, 2008; McClelland & Schneider, 2004; McMahon, 2000; Passmore, 2002; Torma, 2007). Schools both affect and respond to community growth, but as Wagner (2009) documents, it is often difficult to distinguish the direction of this relationship.

Beyond simply identifying the school sprawl phenomenon, Norton (2007) analyzes the decision-making framework that causes school sprawl and identifies it as an opportunity for collaboration. Norton’s research is significant because it suggests that schools do not inherently cause sprawl, rather schools contribute to sprawl as a product of local decision-making. Norton (2007) concludes:

This ‘school and sprawl’ phenomenon [...] will be resolved only when the decision-making process itself is fundamentally reformed, and only then if those reforms compel school district officials, local government officials, and local citizens to work together and think through carefully the tradeoffs they face from the very start of a school board’s deliberations on school facilities. (p. 494)

Coordinated decision-making between land use and school planners can result in school location decisions that reduce sprawl, rather than contribute to it.

School-Related Transportation Planning

The impact of schools on transportation supports collaborative planning as a means to mitigate school-related travel problems in all communities regardless of growth. Research shows that school location significantly impacts traffic patterns and mode of travel. In particular, new school construction on the suburban fringe significantly limits walkability among K-12 students and contributes to childhood obesity (Centers for Disease Control & Prevention [CDC], 2007; Falb et al., 2007).

Recent descriptive and empirical studies identify the significant effect of school location on environmental quality, traffic congestion, school transportation budgets, students' ability to walk to school, and children's health in urban and suburban environments. The impact of isolated decision-making by school and transportation planners has been documented, and the data reveal startling trends in mode shift: in 1969, nearly 50% of students ages 5 to 15 walked or biked to school; in 2001, less than 15% walked and only 1% biked (EPA, 2003). A study by the CDC produced similar findings: among students ages 5 to 15 living within a mile of school, 90% walked or biked in 1969, compared with only 31% in 1999 (EPA, 2003).

This mode shift is reflected in increased busing and auto travel to school. A traffic engineer for Santa Rosa, California reports worsened traffic congestion and estimates a 30% increase in cars on the road between 7:15 a.m. and 8:15 a.m. during the school year (EPA, 2003). Research also unveils the substantial cost associated with less walking and more busing to less-centralized schools. In Maine, the number of students declined in the state by 27,000 from 1970 to 1995, but the cost of busing rose from \$8.7 million to over \$54 million during the same period of time because of poorly located school facilities (Beaumont & Pianca, 2002).

Research suggests a wide range of variables affect mode of transportation, including: travel time and distance to school, density of development, diversity of land uses near and en route to school, urban form and block length, pedestrian-friendliness of a school, pedestrian-friendliness of the route to school, auto ownership, and household

income (Beaumont & Pianca, 2002; Dellinger & Staunton, 2002; Falb, Kanny, Powell, & Giarrusso, 2007; McMahon, 2000; McMillan, 2002; Mitchell, 2000; Passmore, 2002; Schlossberg, Greene, Phillips, Johnson, & Parker, 2006). These authors unanimously conclude that smaller schools located in the middle of neighborhoods will lower busing costs and parking requirements because students are more likely to walk or bike to school. Alignment of multimodal transportation planning with school facilities planning could save money, encourage walking and biking, and relieve traffic congestion.

Public Schools as Public Infrastructure

As communities grow new development requires expanded infrastructure. Concurrency is a growth management and regulatory tool that lessens the negative impact of new development on existing infrastructure. It ensures adequate infrastructure is in place or will be made available as a precursor to permitting new development (Weaver & Solov, 1998; Gibson, 2006). Traditionally, city infrastructure refers to roads, sanitary sewer, solid waste, drainage, potable water, and parks; and traditional concurrency systems are only applied to these infrastructure systems.

There is a movement, however, to also consider public schools as public infrastructure. Vincent (2006) describes schools as “essential public infrastructure” (p. 433) and as “one of the most important infrastructure assets in neighborhoods” (Vincent, 2009, p. 2). The inclusion of schools as infrastructure suggests, “public schools are not isolated from the other systems in the community” (Feld, 1986, p. 1).

McKoy et al. (2008) describes California’s gradual progress toward embracing schools as public infrastructure;² but Florida is the only state to comprehensively adopt this view, mandate public school concurrency, and *require* CSP. Florida’s mandated system of public school concurrency responds to tremendous population growth and overcrowded schools.³ The state’s growth catalyzed an extended legislative effort to establish a public school concurrency system for urban and high-growth counties (Trevarthen & Friedman,

² In 2006, voters approved bond measures for the *California Strategic Growth Plan*, providing billions of dollars to upgrade six pieces of “critical infrastructure:” transportation, levees and water systems, public safety, housing, the judiciary (courthouses), and education facilities.

³ From 1970 to 2000, the state’s population jumped from about 6.75 million to 16 million, and school enrollments rose from 1.4 million to 2.5 million (Lees, Salvesen, & Shay, 2008).

2005). Ultimately, in 2005 the Florida Legislature adopted Senate Bill 360, mandating that public schools be included with other public infrastructure subject to statewide concurrency.

Under Florida's public school concurrency, a developer or homebuilder is required to demonstrate that public schools have the capacity to handle the students generated by new development (Fla. S.B. 360, 2005). Like traditional concurrency, the system is based on level of service (LOS) standards that measure the "adequacy of facilities in terms of current and future capacity" (Weaver & Solov, 1998, p. 3), but with school concurrency LOS standards are established collaboratively by the local government and school board.⁴ The other major mandatory elements of Florida's public school concurrency include an interlocal agreement (ILA) and a Public Schools Facility Element in the local comprehensive land use plan.

Florida planners and lawyers have published extensively to explain the history and requirements of the new system (Gibson, 2006; Powell, 1999; Powell & Zakin, 2005; Tindale-Oliver & Associates, Inc., 2006; Trevarthen, 2007; Trevarthen & Friedman, 2005; Weaver & Solov, 1998). This research suggests that although a mandated concurrency framework offers a template for cooperation, it also invites a new level of complexity in the facility and urban planning processes. The complexity arises because unlike road and sewer concurrency, which only requires coordination between different departments within the *same* governmental body, school concurrency requires planning across *separate* entities—local government and the school board.

Public school concurrency represents the most formal, growth-oriented model of CSP. Implementation has required ample technical assistance from the Florida Department of Community Affairs who has been essential in clarifying the roles, requirements, and best practices associated with CSP (2006a; 2006b; 2006c; 2006d; 2007). Florida's public school concurrency system justifies the view of schools as infrastructure and proves that

⁴ Florida's public school concurrency differs from traditional concurrency in that it only uses public school enrollment projections to evaluate the impact on residential development. Concurrency requirements for other infrastructure systems use general population projections and account for the impacts of residential, commercial, and industrial development.

collaborative school planning can legally, logistically, and effectively respond to high regional growth.

School-Centered Community Revitalization

Concurrency systems are particularly effective in high-growth suburban areas, but in older urban neighborhoods with sufficient school capacity CSP is needed to meet a different set of community goals. School-centered community revitalization (SCCR) represents an application of CSP principles in older, low-growth, urban communities. SCCR is based on the core belief that improvement of distressed neighborhoods requires more than housing redevelopment. It suggests a redevelopment strategy that includes school improvements and maximizes coordinated investment in target neighborhoods. SCCR is derived from the community development framework but is based on the belief that neighborhood and school quality are inextricably related and therefore require a collaborative planning approach (Khadduri, Schwartz, & Turnham, 2007, 2008a, 2008b; Proscio, 2004).

Fundamentally SCCR is based on the complex relationship between urban disinvestment, the flight of middle-income families, and the well-documented relationship between housing and school quality (Bierbaum, 2007; Black, 1999; Brasington, 1999; Des Rosiers, Lagana, and Theriault, 2001; Weimer & Wolkoff, 2001). Research shows that higher standardized test scores increase housing cost by \$18,719 on average (Bierbaum, 2007) and that people will pay a premium for better schools: 2.5% more in housing costs for a 5% increase in test scores (Black, 1999). Based on this evidence, school-centered community developers leverage residential and educational improvements to attract mixed income families to urban neighborhoods:

...central cities cannot thrive without holding and attracting families who want good public schools for their children. Poor schools continue to lead to an exodus of middle-class families and serve as a deterrent to immigrants locating in central cities....Poor schools weaken demand for life in central cities, and that loss of demand from middle-income parents with children further weakens school systems that need revenue and parental involvement at the school and school-system level. (Proscio, 2004, p. 20)

Poorly performing schools can accelerate neighborhood decline, whereas coordinated investment in neighborhoods and schools can reverse this downward trend. SCCR calls for

improvements in school program and facilities, emphasizing that both are required to reinstate schools as neighborhood centerpieces.

School-centered community revitalization is a relatively new strategy, so literature on the movement is primarily limited to documentation of recent attempts to implement SCCR by its two leading proponents: Enterprise Community Partners and the Center for Cities & Schools (CC&S). These organizations have launched programs that require collaborative planning to achieve the goal of residential stability and improved quality of life in underserved neighborhoods. In 1991, Enterprise launched the Neighborhood Transformation Initiative in the urban Sandtown-Winchester neighborhood of Central West Baltimore (Proscio, 2004).⁵ The organization provided financing and expertise for an all-encompassing redevelopment agenda that included program reform and facility enhancements of a local elementary school. This project was Enterprise's first SCCR project, and its process, outcomes, and lessons learned have been documented in a series of publications (Fenwick, 2006; Khadduri et al., 2007; Khadduri et al., 2008a; Khadduri et al., 2008b; Proscio, 2004).

Because SCCR is highly sensitive to local context, neither Enterprise nor CC&S claim to have developed "models" for revitalization. Rather, common traits and implementation techniques define SCCR and can inform other collaborative projects. CC&S makes implementation recommendations⁶ (McKoy et al., 2009), and Enterprise defines SCCR by five core elements:

- improvement of one or more schools in the neighborhood,
- safe, affordable housing that is attractive to families with children,
- high-quality child care and early childhood education programs,
- affordable health services for children, and
- workforce training and economic development activities (Khadduri et al., 2007).

At the core of all SCCR literature is an emphasis on the fundamental requirement of collaboration and a belief that schools and communities benefit from greater interaction. Research stresses that SCCR does not replace the best practices of community development that have emerged over the years, but it builds upon them with a focus on coordinated

⁵ See Table A-2 in Appendix A for a summary of this initiative and the other case studies most commonly cited in SCCR literature.

⁶ See Table A-1 in Appendix A for a summary of implementation recommendations related to SCCR.

investment and school improvement in declining urban neighborhoods (Khadduri et al., 2007).

Collaborative planning in SCCR literature depends on a key requirement: a local third-party facilitator. Rather than depending on school facility or local planners, the literature unanimously emphasizes the need for a third-party leader or sponsor to facilitate collaboration between the neighborhood and school. Khadduri et al. (2008b) specifically discuss how outsiders can be effective advocates for SCCR in the *Community Developers' Guide to Improving Schools in Revitalizing Neighborhoods*. The authors conclude that sponsors of SCCR can come from a variety of backgrounds, but must possess four qualities:

- political influence,
- long-term commitment to the neighborhood,
- financial resources, and
- a local presence and staff (Khadduri et al., 2008b).

These criteria ensure a third-party leader is equipped and committed to handling the complexities associated with collaborative planning at the neighborhood level.

Case studies indicate positive results are associated with school-centered community revitalization in urban neighborhoods, but all SCCR literature calls for additional research (Khadduri et al., 2007; Khadduri et al., 2008a; Khadduri et al., 2008b; McKoy et al., 2009; Proscio, 2004). The relationships between housing, poverty, and school quality are significant and complicated; it is not reasonable to assume that SCCR will effortlessly attract the reinvestment needed to renew urban education. Proscio (2004) says it is “too early to quantify the incremental benefits of most coordinated neighborhood and school improvement programs” (p. ii), but it is certain that collaborative school planning in urban neighborhoods does no harm.

Joint Use and Community Schools

Schools are one of the largest capital investments made by taxpayers, and two related trends in school facility planning recognize that multi-functional schools make the best use of space and dedicated tax revenue. The first trend refers to the joint use of school facilities for community purposes and is also sometimes referred to as co-location. The community school model is a second trend, which expands on the idea of joint use. Co-

location and community schools both require CSP because they depend on an intimate relationship between community needs and school services.

Gymnasiums, auditoriums, and performing arts spaces are commonly shared assembly spaces that require simple joint use agreements between school and community groups (Castaldi, 1982; Myers & Robertson, 2004; Ortiz, 1994; Tanner & Lackney, 2006). In recent years, the joint use concept has broadened to include large-assembly forums, job-training spaces, libraries, and health care centers that serve citizens outside the school community. The shared use of school facilities for these purposes requires more involved and more cooperative school planning efforts. Tanner & Lackney (2006) strongly encourage alignment of school facilities and city plans to efficiently co-locate public facilities at existing and planned school facilities.

Community schools are neighborhood anchors that not only house co-located facilities, but also depend on community partnerships to serve the student, family, school, and community (Epstein 1987). The Coalition for Community Schools uses this definition:

A community school is both a place and a set of partnerships between the school and other community resources. Its integrated focus on academics, health and social services, youth and community development along with community engagement leads to improved student learning, stronger families and healthier communities. Community Schools are centers of the community, open to everyone—all day, every day, evenings and weekends. Using public schools as a hub, community schools bring together a wide variety of partners to offer a range of services and opportunities to children, youth, families and communities. (Coalition for Community Schools, n.d., p. 1)

The terms “community school,” “full-service school,” and “community-oriented school” are often used interchangeably, but they all refer to the same concept of holistically addressing the needs of students and the community by integrating schools and social services.

Until recently, the community school model has been largely discussed by educators from the perspective of school programming, rather than by planners from the school facilities perspective.⁷ This changed in 1998, when the U.S. Department of Education (DOE) recognized that the demands for shared use of modern community schools require the

⁷ One notable exception is urban planner Clarence Arthur Perry, who extensively considered the facility and planning implications of multi-functional, community-oriented schools in the 1920s-30s in the United States. See Appendix B for more on Perry’s school-centered Neighborhood Unit plan.

formal reconsideration of the location and design of school facilities. DOE assembled educators, architects, facility planners, elected officials, and citizens to discuss how school facility planning and design could be improved to better meet the needs of modern schools and neighborhoods. Participants agreed on six design principles for community-centered schools (see table 1).

Table 1: Six Design Principles of Community-Centered Schools

1. Enhance teaching and learning and accommodate the needs of all learners
 2. Serve as a center of the community
 3. Result from a planning and design process that involves all community interests
 4. Provide for health, safety, and security
 5. Make effective use of available resources
 6. Be flexible and adaptable
- (Bingler et al., 2003)

Bingler, Quinn, and Sullivan (2003) published a comprehensive guide to planning community-centered school facilities based on these principles. The guide marks the introduction of community-schools in modern planning literature. The authors treat schools “like a new version of the old town square” (Bingler, et al., 2003, p. 8) and infuse the school facility planning process with the community involvement practices of neighborhood planning. The guide outlines a step-by-step, “systematic planning approach that can result in the successful development of schools as centers of community” (Bingler, et al., 2003, p. 3). The approach recognizes the importance of CSP because the location and services of a community school critically affect the surrounding neighborhood.

Bingler (2006) advances the community-school model with his “community nexus” model. Bingler’s nexus planning framework includes six components—educational, social, economic, cultural, physical, and organizational (see figure 1)—and wholly depends on collaborative planning. Bingler (2006) introduces the concept of a Community Trust: a collaborative governance entity that is “composed of representatives from a full range of public and not-for-profit entities with the responsibility for coordinating and improving the delivery of all community programs and services” (p. 6). The Community Trust helps to overcome the institutional challenges of collaborative planning and facilitates CSP and the realization of community schools.

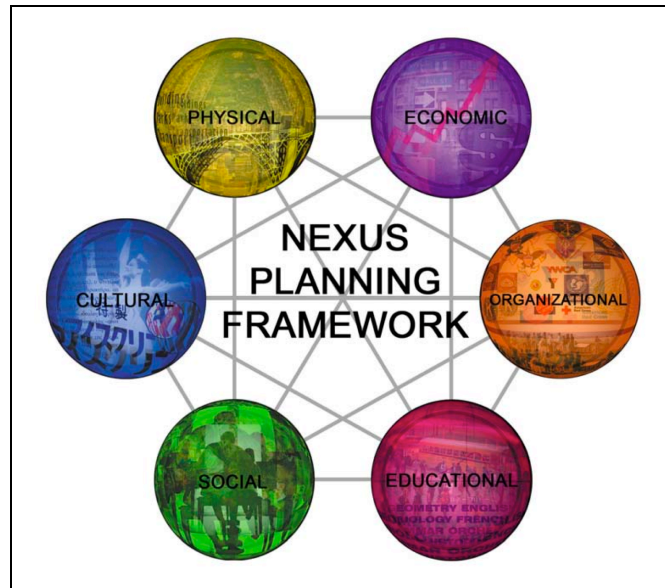


Figure 1: Concept Diagram of the Nexus Planning Framework (Bingler, 2006)

Responding to the increase of co-location and community schools, current school planning guides now broadly define the school planning team to include municipal planners and the local planning commission (Myers & Robertson, 2004; Tanner & Lackney, 2006). Inclusion of local and regional planners brings additional data, resources, and expertise to the school planning process, as well as the opportunity to minimize duplicate efforts in a community. Earthman (2000) writes, “Cooperation between agencies and levels of government has long been viewed as advantageous to the community and at the same time a good use of limited resources” (p. 2).

The Practice of Collaborative School Planning

Though cooperation between city and school entities is advantageous, it is not easy to achieve. Research clearly demonstrates the connections between schools and urban planning that justify CSP; what remains less clearly defined is how to implement a CSP model.

Challenges to Collaborative Planning

Given the longstanding tradition of separate city and school planning silos, there are a number of challenges to collaborative planning. In high- and low-growth communities, these challenges generally fall into three broad categories: institutional barriers to

collaboration, technical and logistical difficulties, and social or political challenges. They are documented in recent literature (Donnelly, 2003; Earthman, 2000; ICMA, 2008; McKoy & Vincent, 2005; Salvesen, Sachs, & Engelbrecht, 2006; Vincent, 2006).

Primary among the institutional barriers to CSP is that school districts and municipal governments are constitutionally separate agencies, with independent responsibilities and different purposes. Logistical difficulties can include different boundaries for schools and cities, different budget cycles, insufficient staff, and conflicting schedules. Common political challenges to collaboration include a lack of political will, a history of distrust, political turnover, and self-interest. In some communities, collaborative planning elicits power struggles rather than productive solutions (Donnelly, 2003; Earthman, 2000; ICMA, 2008; McKoy & Vincent, 2005; Salvesen, Sachs, & Engelbrecht, 2006; Vincent, 2006).⁸

Beaumont & Pianca (2002) describe additional challenges specific to the preservation of historic school buildings in facilities planning. Among these are deferred maintenance of older buildings, school officials or consultants who lack interest or expertise in renovation techniques, and building codes that only address modern construction methods and materials. The authors identify public policies that discourage preservation of historic school facilities and implicate schools in the sprawl phenomenon. These policies include:

- minimum acreage laws,
- minimum requirements of students per school,
- school exemptions from zoning regulations, and
- funding formulas that favor new construction over restoration (Beaumont & Pianca, 2002; Emerson, 2006).⁹

These policies undermine the collaborative effort to site schools in mutually beneficial locations.

⁸ See Appendix C for a summary table of common challenges to implementing collaborative school planning.

⁹ School facility funding formulas that favor new construction over historic preservation are commonly referred to as the “60% rule” or the “two-thirds rule.” These policies state that if a school renovation project exceeds 60% of the cost of new construction, then state funding can *only* be used for new construction. The 60% rule is criticized because cost estimates for new construction are rarely complete and percentages are often arbitrary (Beaumont & Pianca, 2002).

Overcoming the Challenges to CSP

In 2006, the University of North Carolina's Center for Urban and Regional Studies hosted a summit for schools and local governments to begin establishing a framework for cooperative school facility planning. Derived from the summit were five required components of successful intergovernmental collaboration: (1) trust, (2) politics, (3) time constraints, (4) communication, and (5) commitment (Salvesen et al., 2006). Some of these components cannot be established simply through policy changes: no law can mandate trust. However, other components of CSP can be achieved through the use of policy and procedural changes.

For city and school entities that want to engage in collaborative school facility planning, research recommends common CSP principles: improve communication, share data, create common goals, formalize agreements, institutionalize the collaborative process, and change policies that currently work against effective collaboration (ARC, 2003; Beaumont & Pianca, 2002; Building Educational Facilities Together [BEST] Collaborative, 2005; BEST, 2006; ICMA, 2008; Jones, 2002; McKoy et al., 2009; NGA Center for Best Practices, 2007; Salvesen, et al., 2006).

State, local, and school board policies provide a framework within which school location decisions are made. ICMA (2008) observes, "State and local policies influence decisions about where and how school facilities are built, maintained, and used" (p. 5). Local policy changes that support collaborative school planning entail:

- revised school site acreage standards,
- school funding strategies that promote small neighborhood schools,
- required compliance of schools with local zoning,
- mandated feasibility reviews that demonstrate full cost of construction (school building and physical infrastructure costs),
- early consultation between school board members and municipal governments in selecting school sites and design, and
- prioritized bike and pedestrian connections (Emerson, 2006; Salvesen, 2003, 2010).

State education departments can also support collaborative school planning and prudent siting decisions by recommending small schools and renovations, de-emphasizing minimum acreage guidelines, revising funding formulas, providing funding to improve walking and biking routes to schools, and providing staff expertise to help communities with land use decisions related to schools (Salvesen & Hervey, 2003).

In high- and low-growth communities, establishing a formal process for collaborative school planning requires changes by local government and school officials. For example, local planners may have to change land use policies, and school officials may have to change the school siting process. Ideally, both entities agree on formalized procedural changes that ensure a collaborative process and establish the rules and expectations of CSP. These changes may include:

- formalization of a collaborative plan review process,
- establishment of a regular joint meeting schedule,
- procedures to share data,
- joint use agreements,
- interlocal agreements,
- inclusion of school siting criteria in the local comprehensive plans, and a
- Public School Facilities Element in the local comprehensive plan (ARC, 2003; BEST, 2006; ICMA, 2008).¹⁰

Informal commitment to collaboration is an acceptable alternative, but collaborative planning is better institutionalized and more sustainable when challenges are resolved with formal agreements.

Place-Specific Collaborative Planning

Local and state laws add a layer of complexity to collaborative school facility planning. The bulk of state-specific literature focuses on two states: California and Florida. In California the Center for Cities & Schools has propelled the issue of collaborative school planning to the attention of the state legislature. The center's researchers have written in great detail pertaining to state-specific funding restrictions and legislation (Cooper & Vincent, 2008; McKoy, 2007; McKoy et al. 2009; McKoy & Vincent, 2005; McKoy et al., 2008; PACE & CC&S, 2009; Vincent, 2009).

In response to the mandated concurrency requirements, the Florida Department of Community Affairs (DCA) Division of Community Planning has produced best practice guidelines, provided innumerable sample documents and policies, and offered technical assistance to local governments and school districts (2006a; 2006b; 2006c; 2006d; 2007). While many of these documents provide invaluable case studies and policy guidance that

¹⁰ See Appendix D for a model interlocal agreement and Appendix E for a model school siting policy.

can be transferred to other jurisdictions, it is important to note that they are specifically crafted to meet Florida's legislative requirements.

The Gap in New Orleans-Specific Research

As with anywhere, collaborative school facility planning in New Orleans is context specific. No significant amount of literature on school planning in Louisiana exists, but Hurricane Katrina has brought increased attention to the inadequacies of the New Orleans' schools. Early in the recovery process, Hill and Hannaway (2006) discouraged "investing prematurely in school facilities" (p. 8), and Bingler (2006, 2008) wrote on the relevance of nexus planning and co-location in recovering post-Katrina neighborhoods. The Bring New Orleans Back (2006) education report incorporates the idea of co-location, but the National Coalition for Quality Education in New Orleans (2006) critiques the document for its "lofty goals" and lack of substantive, implementable plans.

Tulane University's Cowen Institute for Public Education Initiatives explains the complicated post-Katrina school governance and the existing condition of school facilities, but they have not largely published on school facility planning (Cowen, 2008, 2009b, 2009c, 2009d, 2009e, 2010a, 2010b).¹¹ As part of the public comment period for the *Schools Facilities Master Plan for Orleans Parish*, the Bureau of Governmental Research and the National Trust for Historic Preservation filed official comments, but neither has produced full-fledged reports on school facility planning in New Orleans.

The city's single best example of implemented co-location has attracted attention in popular news outlets and academic publications (Abramson, 2007a, 2007b; Farrell, 2008; Isaacson, 2007; Kennedy, 2009). The Broadmoor neighborhood flooded badly after Hurricane Katrina, but the neighborhood improvement association took local control over rebuilding and formed partnerships with organizations including Harvard's Kennedy School of Government, Bill Clinton's foundation, and the Carnegie Corporation of New York. The resulting Education Corridor is an eight-block area along General Pershing Street and includes Wilson Charter School, Rosa F. Keller Library and Community Center, Apex Youth Center, and Blessed Trinity Fine Arts and Wellness Center (Broadmoor Improvement

¹¹ The Cowen Institute is hosting a School Siting Summit on July 21, 2010 to discuss issues related to school siting.

Association, n.d.). Broadmoor's success is a testament to the success of collaborative planning at the neighborhood level in New Orleans, but it is also a rare example of grassroots organization and leveraged resources. The neighborhood's successes occurred largely in isolation from city and school entities; even the local charter school is run by a neighborhood board.

The only substantial review of city-wide school planning is by the Annenberg Institute for School Reform (2009). As part of the 2009 Emerging Knowledge Forum, Annenberg focused on four urban school systems and dissected their efforts to build a "smart education system." Annenberg advocates collaborative planning, writing that, "Because New Orleans is rebuilding its entire infrastructure, it makes sense to consider the school system in the context of economic development, housing, transportation, health care, and social services" (Annenberg, 2009, p. 1). The authors advocate collaborative planning on the basis of equity, noting that transportation, housing, childcare, and other issues all impact a parent's ability to choose a quality school for their child. CSP "would improve the chances that planning for the core systems on which most families rely will happen concurrently, not serially, and in ways that improve the families' quality of life" (Annenberg, 2009, p. 12).

The report identifies an array of public, private, and non-profit "reform support organizations" with great interest in the local school planning process, but concludes there is no "convener" to bring these groups together. Annenberg identifies additional challenges facing collaborative planning in New Orleans relating to distrust, data, and communication. This thesis research complements and expands upon the Annenberg report and fills a substantial void in collaborative school planning literature related to New Orleans.

Chapter 3: The Legal Context of Planning in Louisiana

Collaborative school planning is context-sensitive in part because of place-specific policies and legislation that dictate and constrain land use and school facility planning. The fundamental challenge of collaborative school facilities planning is that city planning and school planning traditionally occur under the jurisdictions of two separate local public bodies—the local government and school board.

This chapter explains the tradition of separate planning in Louisiana from the legal perspective. This legislation is important because if a CSP framework is to be adopted in New Orleans, it will likely be done within the context of existing legislation.

Land Use Law in the City Silo

Louisiana's State Enabling Legislation

Planning enabling legislation grants local governments the authority of police power and land use planning. Planning enabling legislation defines land use planning and outlines the procedures, duties, and framework that guide local land use controls. In 1918, Louisiana passed its first planning legislation, and in 1926 the state adopted the *Standard State Zoning Enabling Act* (SZEa) that had been published by the United States Department of Commerce (Villavaso, 1999).

The SZEa is codified in Title 33 of the Louisiana Revised Statutes that specifically addresses zoning and comprehensive planning.¹² Section 101 defines a master plan as “a statement of public policy for the physical development of a parish or municipality adopted by a parish or municipal planning commission” (La. Rev. Stat. 33:101). Rev. Stat. 33:102 grants parishes and municipalities the right to establish a local planning commission, and section 106 states that “a municipal planning commission shall make and adopt a master plan for the physical development of the municipality” (La. Rev. Stat. 33:106). This authority is not interpreted as a requirement to create a plan.

¹² There is no state planning enabling legislation related to recovery planning in Louisiana. The enabling legislation discussed in this section relates only to master planning or comprehensive land use planning.

For those who do adopt them, comprehensive plans help municipal governments plan for change by expressing how a community wants to develop in the future. In Louisiana, the purpose of a master plan is defined by Rev. Stat. 33:107:

A plan shall be made with the general purpose of guiding and accomplishing a co-ordinated, adjusted, and harmonious development of the parish or municipality [...] and its environs which will in accordance with present and future needs, best promote health, safety, morals, order, convenience, prosperity, and general welfare... (La. Rev. Stat.33:107)

Rev. Stat. 33:106 outlines the suggested content of a comprehensive plan but does not *require* the inclusion of any specific chapters:

B.(1) Any such plan shall provide a general description or depiction of existing roads, streets, highways, and publicly controlled corridors, along with a general description or depiction of other public property within the jurisdiction that is subject to the authority of the commission.

(2) Any such plan, with the accompanying maps, plats, charts, and descriptive matter *may* [emphasis added] include a commission's recommendations for the development of the parish or municipality, as the case may be, including, among other things, the general location, character, and extent of railroads, highways, streets, viaducts, subways, bus, street car and other transportation routes, bridges, waterways, lakes, water fronts, boulevards, parkways, playgrounds, squares, parks, aviation fields, and other public ways, grounds, and open spaces; the general location of public buildings, schools, and other public property; the general character, extent and layout of public housing and of the replanning of blighted districts and slum areas; the general location and extent of public utilities and terminals, whether publicly or privately owned or operated, for water, light, sanitation, communication, power, transportation, and other purposes; and the removal, relocation, widening, narrowing, vacating, abandonment, change of use, or extension of any of the foregoing ways, grounds, open spaces, buildings, property, utilities, or terminals. (La. Rev. Stat. 33:106)

Unlike other states, Louisiana's planning enabling does not specifically require certain elements to be included in a master plan, which explains why New Orleans' master plans have varied somewhat in length and content. The current legislation still largely reflects the 1920s one-size-fits-all SZE model legislation that most other states have already updated.¹³ The only major changes to local planning laws in Louisiana are a 1977

¹³ Other states' legislation outlines required elements to be included in local comprehensive plans. For example, in Florida all counties and municipalities are required to adopt Local Government Comprehensive Plans, and state law mandates the elements that must be included: future land use, housing, transportation, infrastructure, coastal management, conservation, recreation and open space, intergovernmental coordination, public school facilities, and capital improvements (Fla. Stat. 163:3177).

amendment authorizing state planning and development districts (1977 La. Acts 472) and a 2004 amendment requiring training for planning and zoning commissions (2004 La. Acts 859). An attempt to create a Commission on Statewide Regional Planning in 2000 was unsuccessful.

In sum, land use planning is optional in Louisiana. Local governments are neither required to have a planning agency nor to adopt a local comprehensive plan. For those parishes and municipalities who *do* engage in planning, no specific requirements exist for the preparation of a master plan. Louisiana's planning enabling legislation has been routinely criticized (Villavaso, 1999, 2002, 2003) for not providing "all communities the tools and resources necessary to ensure growth is managed, before it becomes unmanaged" (Villavaso, 2002, p. 250).

Land Use Planning in New Orleans' Home Rule Charter

Despite the gaps in state level planning legislation, many parishes in Louisiana have undertaken planning efforts and established their own policies for comprehensive planning. In 1954, New Orleans adopted a home rule charter in 1954 and consolidated city and parish governments. With a home rule charter, a community may deviate from state legislation in the establishment of a planning commission and its functions (La. Rev. Stat. 33:103). The *Home Rule Charter of the City of New Orleans* establishes the City Planning Commission (CPC) and outlines its functions and organization in sections 5-401 to 5-410. The CPC is authorized to:

Prepare, adopt, amend, and recommend to the [City] Council a twenty year Master Plan for the physical development of the City consistent with the requirements of Section 5-404. The Master Plan shall consist of a statement of development goals, objectives, and policies for the physical growth and development of the City, and shall include maps and a text setting forth principles, standards, and proposals. The Master Plan shall include, but not be limited to, the following elements: Vision, Goals, and Policy; Land Use; Transportation; Housing; Community Facilities and Infrastructure; and Historic Preservation. The elements are to be interrelated with each other and shall provide the overall guidance for city policy and priorities. (Home Rule Charter, 2009, p. 132)

According to section 5-402, the CPC is also responsible for preparing and recommending to the City Council "plans for the replanning, improvement, and reconstruction of neighborhood and community centers and of areas or districts destroyed or seriously

damaged by fire, earthquake, hurricane, flood or other disaster” (Home Rule Charter, 2009, p. 133-134).

As of November 2008, the city’s charter is more definitive than state law: it now specifically identifies required elements of the master plan and establishes the legal relationship of the master plan to the zoning ordinance and capital improvement plan.¹⁴ The home rule charter also identifies the master plan as having “the force of law.” This legal implication refers to a requirement of consistency between the master plan and future land use actions, the zoning ordinance, and the capital improvement plan.

Planning Legislation in the School Silo

Public Schools and Planning in State Law

Although the City Planning Commission has the authority to create and adopt comprehensive plans, local governments have no control over the funding, construction, or operation of public schools. City plans can include schools, but only the school board has authority over the school facilities planning process.

As early as the 1800s, local school boards were created in the United States to remove schools from the influence of partisan local politics (Land, 2002).¹⁵ Article VII of the Louisiana Constitution provides for the structure of public education in the state and requires the legislature to “establish and maintain a public educational system” (La. Const.). No formal relationship exists between municipal governments and school boards, and the state constitution explicitly states, “No home rule charter or plan of government shall contain any provision affecting a school board [...] which is inconsistent with this constitution or law” (La. Const., art. VI, §5).

¹⁴ Prior to a voter approved charter amendment in November 2008, section 5-402 did not require the master plan to include specific elements. Previously, the section read:

“Prepare, adopt, amend and modify a long term Master Plan for the physical development of the City, which shall consist of a statement of development goals, objectives, and policies and which shall show the general location, extent, and character of streets, bridges, waterways, and other public ways; parks and open spaces, public buildings and structures; public utilities and terminals, whether public or privately owned; public housing, slum clearance, and redevelopment projects and areas; and any other physical public facility with due regard to the aesthetic characteristics of all public structures. (New Orleans City Planning Commission, 2008, p. 58)

¹⁵ For a thorough discussion of the history and evolution of school governance see Danzberger, 1992; Land, 2002; and Urban & Wagoner, 1996.

The state constitution establishes the Board of Elementary and Secondary Education (BESE) as the chief policy-making body and coordinator of Louisiana’s system of public education. The board establishes policies for student assessment, approves teacher certification, and appoints the State Superintendent (La. Rev. Stat. ch. 17). The State Superintendent implements the policies of BESE and is the administrative head of the Department of Education, which is the administrative agency for the entire educational system (La. Const., art. VIII, §2; La. Rev. Stat. 36:642-644). The Department of Education manages and allocates funding for public schools, establishes the statewide curriculum, and ensures that the public education system has adequate schools, courses, and services (La. Rev. Stat. 17:24; 36:649).

It is the local school boards, however, that are primarily responsible for public education in Louisiana. School districts generally follow political boundaries, and most parishes represent a single independent school district.¹⁶ Authority over public schools rests with the locally elected school board, which ensures that schools are operated according to standards determined by BESE and in “the best interest of the children and taxpayers” (OPSB, *Policy*, 2008, p. A102). School boards are institutionally and financially independent of the local municipal government and have the authority to levy taxes.

Louisiana state law defines the responsibilities of the school board, which include determining the number and location of school facilities as well as sole authority to fund, construct, locate, and operate public schools (La. Rev. Stat. 17:81). Each local school board owns the educational facilities within its district and “may change the location of a school house, sell or dispose of the old site, or of any site which for any reason can no longer be used” (La. Rev. Stat. 17:81).

While legislation is clear regarding a school board’s responsibility for its facilities, there is no legislation regarding long-term school facility planning in Louisiana.¹⁷

¹⁶ La. Rev. Stat. 17:1371 provides for the creation of school districts. Current exceptions to parish-wide school districts in Louisiana are those that follow city boundaries—including the cities of Baker, Bogalusa, Central, Monroe, and Zachary—and the Recovery School District, which is a state-wide, state-operated school district.

¹⁷ In 1964, the Louisiana Department of Education published *The Planning and Construction of Louisiana School Buildings*. The guide is specific to the planning and design of single school buildings, and not relevant to strategic planning of an entire system of schools (Holly, 1964). It has not been updated since its original publication.

Louisiana has neither a state level public school building authority nor designated state funds for public school capital projects. During the last ten years, however, major events have drawn attention to the state's insufficient role in school facilities construction.

During the 2001 regular session of the Louisiana Legislature, a Public School Construction and Modernization Fund was proposed, but it did not make it out of the Senate Education Committee (S.B. 1021, 2001). In 2003, plaintiffs sued BESE alleging the omission of capital funding from Louisiana's educational funding formula violates the state constitution by denying equal rights because taxpayers pay dramatically different amounts in different parishes to fund school facilities (*Jones v. BESE*, 2003/2005). The Louisiana Court of Appeals dismissed the claim, stating that the constitution only requires a formula to exist, but the inclusion of particular expenditures, such as facilities, is not included.

In 2007, the Louisiana Legislature passed House Concurrent Resolution (HCR) 230 requesting a task force to study state and national school facilities planning practices. The task force outlined the purpose, contents, and goals of a school facilities master plan:

In general, a [school facilities] master plan determines how many new buildings are needed, which buildings should be replaced, renovated or modernized, which should be demolished, and ideally, a list of the specific order in which all of the above should be accomplished. (State Board of Elementary and Secondary Education [BESE], 2008, p. 13)

The task force found that Louisiana is one of only nine states that does not provide state funding for public school facilities. It concluded that a facilities master plan is important to "ensure that schools are interwoven into the fabric of communities and contribute to their economic viability and quality of life" (BESE, 2008, p. 14). The task force's final report was approved by BESE and submitted to the state legislature.

As a result of task force recommendations, two bills were proposed during the 2008 regular session of the Louisiana Legislature: House Bill 962 and Senate Bill 632. They establish the Statewide Education Facilities Fund and the Statewide Education Facilities Authority, respectively. The purpose of the Authority is "to provide funding, coordination, assistance, and oversight for the repair, renovation, and construction of public school facilities" (S.B. 632, 2008, p. 2) and to disburse the money in the proposed Statewide Education Facilities Fund. Both bills were unanimously approved by the House and Senate, but vetoed by Governor Jindal who wrote:

While this appears to be a worthwhile goal, it represents a fundamental shift in the planning and financing of school facilities and would open the door to a very costly state-funded school facilities program. This has traditionally been a local responsibility driven by the needs and wishes of citizens in each school district. (S.B. 632, 2008, *veto*)

Similar bills were again filed during the 2009 legislative session. The Statewide Education Facilities Fund *was* established with the passage of House Bill 689 (Act 226), which provides state level funding for school construction and repairs. School boards may apply for funds to support their school facilities needs, while retaining full control of facilities. Senate Bill 90, however, was unsuccessful in its proposal of the Statewide School Facilities Authority. In 2010 the Louisiana Legislature approved a similar bill (Senate Bill 584), but Governor Jindal again vetoed the formation of a Statewide School Facilities Authority in July 2010.

In sum, local school boards are legislatively independent bodies. They are solely responsible for locating, constructing, funding, operating, and decommissioning school facilities. Although they have the authority to plan for school facilities, there are no state requirements or guidelines regarding school siting criteria or master planning. Consequently, there are neither requirements nor incentives for school boards to collaborate with other governmental entities as they plan for school facilities.

School Governance and Planning in New Orleans

In Orleans Parish, the Orleans Parish School Board (OPSB) has historically been responsible for New Orleans public schools. This includes a duty to “assure that adequate educational facilities are provided” (OPSB, *Policy*, 2008, p. B201). To this end, the OPSB Property Committee reviews and executes construction contracts, reviews the disposal and acquisition of school property, initiates and reviews plans for capital improvements, and assures that property and facility maintenance meets the goals of the board (OPSB, *Policy*, 2008, p. B206).

At one time, OPSB policy mirrored state law and had no provisions or requirements related to facility planning. Facility related policies only addressed procedural requirements pertaining to site acquisition, construction reporting, change orders, and procurement (OPSB, *Policy*, 2008, p. F600-603). With the SFMP process, however, a

September 2008 amendment added sections F604 and F605 on Facilities Planning and Property Disposition to the OPSB policy manual.

Section F604 adds detailed requirements for facility planning, which include the purpose of a master plan, requirements for a 3-year capital projects plan, and a 1-year capital budget to complement the facilities master plan. Section F605 provides for the closing and disposal of sites. It outlines requirements for a Comprehensive Closing Study and the process for handling surplus properties. Notably absent from the new policy is a timeline for updating the master plan; it only says, “Upon adoption of a school facilities master plan, the Orleans Parish School Board shall establish [...] by board action the interval or schedule for the master plan review and update” (OPSB, *Policy*, 2008, p. F604).

Since 2003, local school facility planning has been complicated by the creation of a *second* school board in New Orleans. The OPSB has long been plagued with problems including political and financial turmoil, federal investigations, and criminal indictments (Cowen, n.d.). Over time, enrollment in New Orleans Public Schools has decreased and student achievement has declined. In response, the Louisiana Legislature established the Recovery School District (RSD) in 2003 to overtake academically unacceptable public schools, including five schools in New Orleans (2003 La. Acts 9; Green, 2009). In 2005, the parish ranked second to last in the state for public school student achievement, and OPSB was over \$265 million in debt. In that year, the turnaround company Alvarez & Marsal took control of the district’s financial and human resources systems.

Hurricane Katrina ravaged the city in August 2005, and from an educational program and facilities perspective, many considered the devastation an opportunity to reform and rebuild (Annenberg, 2009). The Louisiana Legislature seized the opportunity: it expanded the Recovery School District and transferred 101 of OPSB’s 117 schools to the state-operated RSD (2005 La. Acts 35; BNOB Education Committee, 2006).¹⁸ At the same time, charter school management organizations were strongly encouraged to apply for charters through both the RSD and OPSB. As a result, governance over New Orleans public

¹⁸ Act 35 created R.S. 17:10.7 and expanded the definition of “academically unacceptable” to include public schools with a School Performance Score below the state average. School Performance Scores are a weighted score of a school’s attendance and dropout rates, as well as students’ scores on the LEAP, Graduate Exit Examination, and Iowa standardized achievement tests (BNOB Education Committee, 2006).

schools is divided across two districts and dozens of independent charter school operators within those districts (see figure 2). The decentralization of the education system has contributed to a lack of clarity regarding the roles and responsibilities of each operator.¹⁹

In general, the RSD has the same authority as a typical local school board, with two significant exceptions: OPSB remains the only entity with the authority to levy taxes for public education, and the RSD does *not* hold the titles for the schools they operate.²⁰ Rather, the RSD has usufruct of the properties, which includes all “rights and responsibility of ownership regarding land, buildings, facilities, and other property” short of full ownership (2005 La. Acts 35).²¹ Although charters represent more than half of the schools in the city, from a facilities planning perspective there is little distinction between charter and district-operated schools. Charters are responsible for preventative maintenance, but not for long-term planning, renovation, or construction.

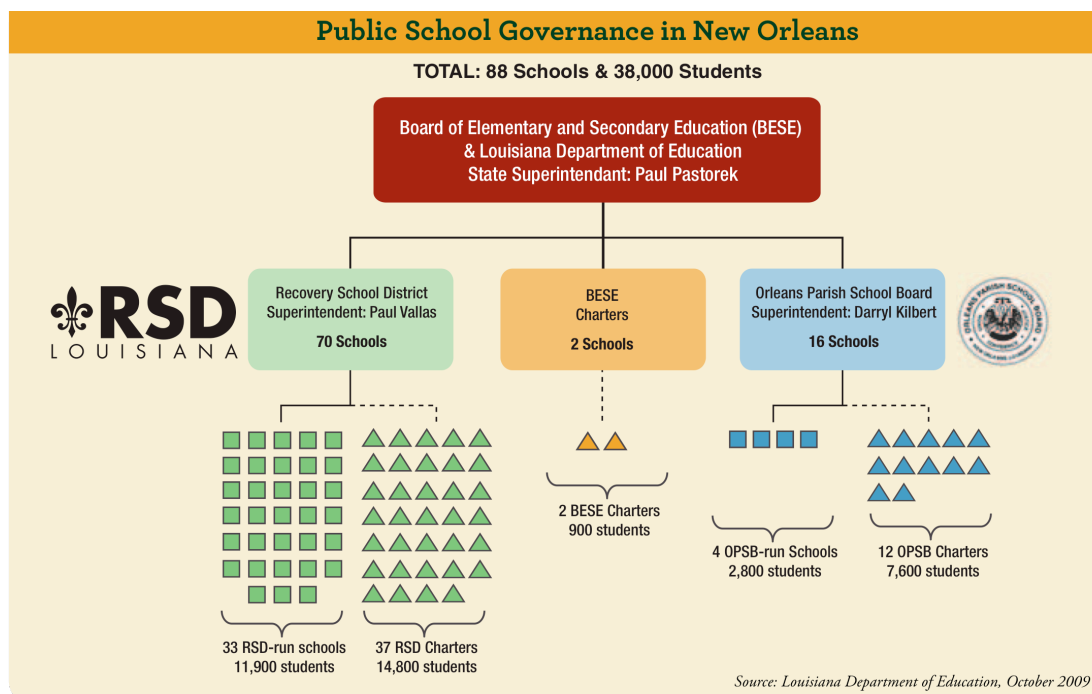


Figure 2: Public School Governance in New Orleans, 2009-2010 (Cowen, 2010b)

¹⁹ See Appendix F for a summary of the responsibilities of the different school operators.

²⁰ OPSB collects local sales and property taxes and transfers them to the RSD and charter schools respectively.

²¹ Usufruct is unique to Louisiana and entails the right to use property but does not include the right to dispose of or destroy the property. Under Louisiana Civil Code, the person who uses the property has usufruct of it, and the owner is called the naked owner (La. Civ. Code, art. 535-549).

New Orleans represents a disjointed system of schools; with multiple school operators, no single entity has the authority to make decisions for all schools. From a facilities perspective, this means that *both* OPSB and RSD are responsible for and must be engaged in the recovery, rebuilding, and planning of public school facilities in the parish (Cowen, 2009; Cowen, 2010).

Chapter 4: A Brief History of Planning in New Orleans

State and local legislation has enabled city and school planning to occur in separate silos for decades in New Orleans. This chapter provides a chronology of city and school planning efforts that preceded and culminated in the *School Facilities Master Plan for Orleans Parish* and *A Plan for the 21st Century: New Orleans 2030*. Prior plans generally indicate slow-growth and minimal CSP in the city. This historical perspective is important because past planning processes establish the traditions and expectations that affect contemporary planning exercises.

Urban Planning in New Orleans, 1900s to Today

The City of New Orleans has consistently undertaken citywide planning since the early 1900s. The first comprehensive plan for the city was published from 1926-1931. This plan was updated under Mayor deLesseps S. Morrison by the firm Harland Bartholomew & Associates from 1948-1954 as *The Master Plan for New Orleans*. Mayors Moon Landrieu and Ernest Morial initiated planning work in the 1970s focused primarily on physical and economic infrastructure. Recent comprehensive planning includes the *New Century New Orleans Master Plan* started in 1990 under Mayor Sidney Berthelemy and continued in 1997 under Mayor Marc Morial. As a result of this most recent planning activity, the City Planning Commission produced a series of vision documents and seven of a projected 14 chapters of a comprehensive plan in the late 1990s and early 2000s.

Hurricane Katrina dramatically interrupted this comprehensive planning process in 2005, but also created a post-disaster sense of urgency to begin planning anew. Recovery planning began immediately after the storm but occurred largely independent of the City Planning Commission whose staff and resources were severely limited.²² Mayor C. Ray Nagin's appointed Bring New Orleans Back (BNOB) Commission produced a plan dated January 2006. By September 2006, the City Council-funded "Lambert Plan" was completed, which included 49 neighborhood plans. The BNOB and Lambert plans did not meet requirements to receive federal recovery funding, nor did the City Planning Commission adopt them. Mayor Nagin solicited numerous foundations to fund a third plan: the *Unified*

²² The CPC staff included only 24 people before the storm, and it was cut by two-thirds immediately after the storm (Eggler, 2005).

New Orleans Plan (UNOP). UNOP is a comprehensive recovery plan that was drafted beginning in August 2006 and approved by CPC in May 2007.²³

Numerous additional district, agency, and neighborhood plans were conceived and written post-Katrina, but the most recent and comprehensive of them all is *A Plan for the 21st Century: New Orleans 2030*. This document is not a recovery plan; rather, it represents a CPC initiative that fulfills the City Charter requirement for a twenty-year master plan to guide future land use. The 2030 Plan provides a “visionary blueprint for moving the city squarely into the 21st century” (City of New Orleans [City of NO], 2010, v. 1 p. 6) and includes an analysis of current conditions and trends as well as goals, strategies, and actions to guide future growth. As such, it is the city’s primary policy and planning document and will eventually inform an overhaul of the Comprehensive Zoning Ordinance.

School Facilities in City Plans

As explained in chapter 3, there is neither state nor local legislation that requires a city master plan to address school facilities, and there is no legal relationship between the local school board and CPC. The city has no authority over public education or school facilities. As a result, New Orleans’ recovery and master plans have minimized any references and inclusion of schools.

The most extensive inclusion of schools in a city comprehensive plan was in the 1950s when Harland Bartholomew & Associates prepared the *Master Plan for New Orleans*. At the same time the firm also prepared a *Proposed Public School Building Plan with a Five Year Improvement Program* for the Orleans Parish School Board. The content of this school facilities master plan was coordinated with the city master plan and heavily incorporated into the city plan’s chapter on schools & recreation. In the introduction to this chapter, Bartholomew writes:

This is a report upon the existing and proposed schools, parks and other recreational areas needed to serve the existing and estimated future population of New Orleans. The physical location of schools, size of sites, arrangement of buildings upon the sites, use of schools, location and type of park and recreational

²³ FEMA also led the ESF-14 planning process immediately following the storm. This process resulted in the Long-Term Community Recovery Plan in August 2006. It is a recovery plan, but it is not considered an influential post-disaster document as demonstrated by its exclusion from the “Recent Planning Initiatives” section of the *New Orleans 2030* plan (City of NO, 2010, v. 3; Nee & Horne, 2007).

areas are discussed herein. Curriculum taught in the schools and administration of the various facilities is not within the scope of this report.

The subject matter of this report is of particular importance at this time. A separate and detailed survey of the physical system of public schools has been recently completed. The findings of that more detailed survey have been of great value in the preparation of this report, which includes not only schools but also parks and other recreational areas. Thus it has been possible to achieve an unusual degree of coordination between the school plans, park and recreational plans, and revisions of the major street, transit, zoning and other city plans. (Harland Bartholomew & Associates, 1950, p. 1)

Since this plan, comprehensive planning has arguably become less comprehensive, and schools have not been included in the city's plans to such an extent.

The *New Century New Orleans* plan (1992-2005) mentions the contribution of failing public schools to the “parallel decline of our city, with employers complaining about the shortage of well-trained labor, and young people complaining about the shortage of jobs” (Citizen Advisory Committee, n.d., p. 8-9). The document considers education a key component to an improved economy, and suggests in a one-page discussion of schools that “the city's master plan and its education system must work hand-in-hand” (Citizen Advisory Committee, n.d., p. 9).

The BNOB Commission included an Education Committee that produced a 43-page report on reforming the public school system. The document addresses educational programs and facilities with a special emphasis on coordination, governance, financing, and the role of community. Local and national experts contributed to BNOB's *Plan for World-Class Public Education in New Orleans*, but none of the plan elements—including the education report—were well-received because the BNOB plan largely failed to include public participation and particularly because of the stigma attached to the “green dot” map.

The *Unified New Orleans Plan* was the last plan written before the school district initiated its own post-Katrina facility master planning process. The UNOP district plans do not discuss public schools, but the citywide UNOP includes section 4.7 on education in recognition of a need to address schools *and* in order to receive federal funding (T. Birch, interview, Mar 19, 2010). The section offers strategies, policies, programs, and projects that foreshadow the themes of the school's plan.

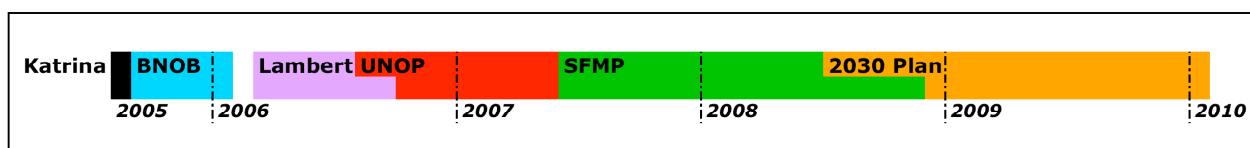


Figure 3: Visual Timeline of Post-Katrina Planning in New Orleans²⁴

Under revision in 2010, the *New Orleans 2030* plan is a comprehensive land use plan. Schools are primarily addressed within the Community Facilities chapter, the extent of which is discussed in chapter six of this thesis.

Short History of School Planning in New Orleans

Chronologically wedged between the UNOP and *2030 Plan* is the *School Facilities Master Plan for Orleans Parish* (see figure 3). Only one other master plan was previously completed for the school system: Harland Bartholomew's *Proposed Public School Building Plan* for city's segregated 1950 school system. In the absence of updated school facilities plans from 1950 to 2008, facility needs assessments of New Orleans' public schools were completed in 1952, 1968, 1974, 1980, 1985, and 1992—none of which, however, constitute a master plan (Ducote, 1989; Hewitt-Washington & Associates, 1999).

In November 2008, the OPSB adopted the *School Facilities Master plan for Orleans Parish*. The Recovery School District and Orleans Parish School Board jointly created the facilities master plan as a “community-supported, implementable, long-term capital improvement strategy for educational facilities” (ULI, 2009, p. 7).

The 2008 SFMP was developed as a result of three circumstances: (1) A surplus of school facilities exists in New Orleans because of declining public school enrollments. Enrollments in New Orleans' public schools peaked in the 1970s above 100,000 and were around 65,000 just before Hurricane Katrina (Cowen, 2008).²⁵ The trend created a need to “right-size the district's facility assets” with respect to the current student population (OPSB, Nov 2008). (2) The physical condition of the school facilities required attention and prioritization because of deferred maintenance before Katrina and damage from the storm. Most of New Orleans school facilities were built prior to 1950, and the cost to address

²⁴ See Appendix G for a more detailed visual timeline of post-Katrina planning in New Orleans.

²⁵ See Appendix H for statistics related to the capacity, age, and condition of New Orleans' public school facilities.

decades of deferred maintenance is estimated at \$1 billion (Vallas, 2008). Compounding this is an estimated \$700 million of damage to facilities as a result of Hurricane Katrina (Vallas, 2008). (3) Money was available to enact a plan because of hurricane-related financing, including storm-generated insurance proceeds, FEMA funds, and Community Development Block Grants. Without these funds for implementation, the SFMP would likely not exist (T. O'Neill, interview, March 25, 2010).

Parsons, a national management and planning firm, and Concordia, LLC, a local architecture and planning firm, were awarded the contract to develop the plan which includes three main components: criteria for planning school facilities, criteria for facility and design standards, and planning for the location of school sites. These components are dependent on future enrollment projections, facility assessments, public input, and best practices. Ultimately, the plan proposes six phases of construction and renovation and two phases of land banking schools at an estimated cost of \$2 billion (SFMPPOP, *Blueprint*, 2008).

Chapter 5: Methodology

This thesis is a qualitative case study of post-Katrina school facility planning in New Orleans. Specifically, this thesis answers three questions:

- What level of collaboration existed between city and school planners in the development of the *School Facilities Master Plan for Orleans Parish* and *A Plan for the 21st Century: New Orleans 2030*?
- What factors encouraged or limited collaboration during the planning processes?
- What are the future constraints and possibilities for collaborative school facility planning in New Orleans?

Creswell (1994) suggests that best practice for case study research entails the collection of “detailed information by using a variety of data collection procedures during a sustained period of time” (p. 12). For this reason, three approaches to data collection were used to answer the research questions:

1. Textual analysis of the *Plan for the 21st Century: New Orleans 2030* and the *School Facilities Master Plan for Orleans Parish*,
2. Interviews with key individuals, and
3. Review of secondary sources and public documents.

Through triangulation, the relationship between land use and school facility planning in New Orleans is analyzed.

Planning Documents

Textual analysis of the city and school master plans offers a starting point for understanding the perceived relationship between school facility and land use planning. The SFMP includes multiple technical volumes, but for the purposes of this research, only the “Blueprint” and “Building Standards” volumes were analyzed.²⁶ Likewise, during the research process, three drafts of the 2030 Plan were released. The third draft, released in January 2010, is the only version analyzed in this research because it is the most recent text available and because this version was approved by the New Orleans City Planning Commission on January 26, 2010.

²⁶ The technical volumes that were not included in the textual analysis include the Building Summaries, Building Assessments, and Educational Program Requirements. These were excluded because they are focused on single facility needs and program delivery, issues that remain outside the scope of this research.

The process of textual analysis was guided by a framework developed by Norton (2007) in his study of school location decision-making in Michigan. Norton provides the only published methodology for reviewing a comprehensive land use plan with regard to school facilities. His methodology includes assessment of plans along four dimensions with the purpose of evaluating the “extent and quality of current local planning efforts [...] with regard to schools and community growth and development” (p. 491). Norton’s assessment criteria are:

1. the extent to which local schools are evaluated in the background analysis of the plan;
2. the extent to which schools are considered in light of changing demographics;
3. the extent to which educational quality is linked to the quality of neighborhoods; and
4. the extent to which the plan addresses coordination between the local government and the school district.

The first criteria was slightly adjusted for application to the school facilities plan, as follows:

1. the extent to which the school plan is related to the broader context of city planning.

In this research, the city master plan is evaluated along two additional dimensions that were *not* included in Norton’s research:

5. the extent to which school-related co-location and joint use is considered; and
6. the extent to which schools are explicitly related to transportation and land use.

The addition of these two criteria is appropriate based on the major themes of collaborative school planning literature. Using these six criteria, the plans are essentially evaluated for the extent to which they address the major underlying principles of collaborative school planning: sprawl, transportation, concurrency, neighborhood quality, co-location, and community schools.

Due to the length of the documents and to ensure thoroughness, PDF reading software was utilized to analyze digital versions of the plans. Key word searches included school, education, collaboration, coordination, land use, and zoning. Partial word searches were used to ensure all versions of keywords were identified in the text.²⁷

²⁷ For example, the search “collaborat” returns collaborate, collaboration, and collaborative.

Interviews

The text of a planning document rarely conveys a complete account of the planning process. For this reason, interviews were conducted with key individuals to obtain a more complete picture and a professional perspective on the level of collaboration that existed during the planning processes. In particular, these interviews illuminate the real and perceived constraints and possibilities for collaboration.

The individuals who were approached for interviews were purposefully selected representatives from city planning, school facility planning, governance, policy-making, and private sector planning (consultants). These individuals were telephoned directly and invited to voluntarily participate. Ultimately, seven individual interviews were arranged in advance and conducted in February and March 2010 in person and over the phone. Interviewees included: Traci Birch, Constance Caruso, Paul Cramer, Lona Hankins, Bobbie Hill, Tara O'Neill and Stephen Villavaso (see table 2).

Table 2: Interviewees Role and Affiliation		
<i>Name</i>	<i>Title</i>	<i>Organization</i>
Traci Birch	Land Use Planner	Villavaso & Associates, LLC
Constance Caruso, AICP	Former Director of Planning	Recovery School District
Paul Cramer	Principal City Planner	New Orleans City Planning Commission
Lona Hankins	Director of Capital Projects	Recovery School District
Bobbie Hill	Partner, Director of Community Engagement	Concordia, LLC
Tara O'Neill	Policy Manager	Tulane University Cowen Institute for Public Education Initiatives
Stephen Villavaso, FAICP	President, Urban Planner, Land Use Attorney	Villavaso & Associates, LLC

During each interview, the interviewee was given an overview of the research project and invited to share his/her role in the planning process and his/her evaluation of the level of collaborative planning that existed. Interviewees were asked questions based on a common interview question guide that was prepared ahead of time.²⁸ Questions from

²⁸ Steps were taken to obtain permission from the Institutional Review Board (IRB), which determined this research is exempt from federal regulations. This exemption letter and the interview question guide are included in Appendices I and J.

the guide were asked or omitted appropriately based on the interviewee's role in the planning process.

With the interviewee's permission, conversations were recorded and transcribed. For those that were not recorded, notes were collected and summarized after the interview ended. Tesch (in Creswell, 1994) prescribes a process for reducing and interpreting the data obtained from interviews. This process informed the analysis of the seven interviews conducted for this research. Transcripts and notes were read thoroughly and major themes and patterns were noted. These themes informed coding categories and when transcripts and notes were reread, appropriate segments of text were coded to identify the extent, opportunities, and barriers to collaborative school planning.

Secondary Sources

Secondary sources were also purposefully collected and reviewed. These documents confirm the internal validity of the research and confirm that information collected from interviews is supported by other accounts of planning events. These sources include reports, public documents, meeting summaries, meeting transcripts, newspaper articles, interviews, radio clips, and legislative documents related to post-Katrina land use and school facility planning.

Limitations of the Study

The major limitation of this study is its dependence on interview responses. Interview responses are subjective, can be biased by researcher presence, and provide "indirect" information filtered through the views of interviewees" (Creswell, 1994, p. 150). Additionally, the time lapse since the school facilities planning process began may contribute to interviewees remembering certain occurrences differently in light of subsequent events. A final limitation is that not all perspectives are represented in this thesis due to lack of response and time constraints.

Chapter 6: Past and Future Collaborative School Planning in New Orleans

This research finds that genuine CSP has lacked throughout past planning processes in New Orleans. The question must be asked: Why? What conditions existed in New Orleans to encourage or inhibit collaborative planning in the creation of the SFMP? More importantly, what are the future opportunities for collaborative school facility planning and what particular conditions could affect the future practice of CSP? Interview respondents have stated that the collaborative process and planning outcomes were less than ideal, but they also identify moments and people of greatness as well as opportunities for improvement.

In New Orleans, there are complex factors that have worked for and against CSP; ultimately an appropriate model of CSP is achievable with a realistic understanding of the particular constraints that exist. This chapter identifies those constraints and opportunities by revisiting the three questions that frame this research:

- What level of collaboration existed between city and school planners in the development of the *School Facilities Master Plan for Orleans Parish* and the *Plan for the 21st Century: New Orleans 2030*?
- What factors encouraged or limited collaboration during the planning processes?
- What are the future constraints and possibilities for collaborative school facility planning in New Orleans?

These questions are answered sequentially in this chapter.

First, interview responses and textual analysis identify a perceived relationship between school facility and land use planning, but a lack of genuine collaboration. This conclusion is explained by six primary factors that worked for and against CSP in the past: (1) the post-disaster context, (2) the timing of planning processes, (3) the presence of a designated city-school liaison, (4) the meaning of “planning,” (5) power struggles and political self-interest, and (6) the decentralized school governance structure. Three specific opportunities for continued collaboration in the future relate to (1) reuse of surplus school sites, (2) revision of the comprehensive zoning ordinance revision, and (3) reviews of the master plans. Finally, four variables could largely affect the possibility of future CSP; they include: (1) state legislation, (2) permanent school governance, (3) a formalized collaborative processes, and (4) new mayoral leadership.

What the People Said: Limited Collaboration

Interviewees offer differing perspectives on fault and willingness, but all agree that not enough collaboration occurred throughout the school facility planning process. Former Director of Planning for the RSD Constance Caruso describes there being “virtually none because the school planning was so far out front and so very specific in nature.” RSD’s Director of Capital Projects Lona Hankins says, “I will tell you there wasn’t enough collaboration and participation from either party, and I don’t know who was at fault” (interview, March 19, 2010). Former OPSB school board member Una Anderson echoes the sentiment:

I have tried to facilitate [collaborative planning] and will say the RSD was extremely willing to do this. The libraries were extremely willing to do it, the City could not do it at the time we were trying to do it. There has not been sufficient coordination between the library’s Master Plan, the school’s Master Plan and the City’s facility plan. That needs to happen before the final recommendations come forward. (OPSB, Oct 2008, p. 12)

She concludes, “There needs to be a conversation so that’s coordinated” (OPSB, Oct 2008, p. 12).

There were, in fact, multiple conversations, but conversation alone does not beget collaborative planning. The school facilities master plan notes a citywide charrette, which was arranged specifically to facilitate conversation and collaboration between the school district and city agencies on January 29, 2008. The former Executive Director of Recovery Management for New Orleans, Dr. Ed Blakely, convened the meeting at Caruso’s request to discuss the use of land throughout the city. Agencies such as NORD, Sewage & Water Board, and OPSB were present as well as “any city or federal agency that had anything to do with any land holding in the city” (C. Caruso, interview, March 26, 2010). The meeting marks progression towards CSP and a critical opportunity for Caruso to ask important, but basic questions:

What I needed to know was if we open a school here, how will that affect your agency’s land use? Or, if we determine the need for a school here on your vacant land, but we have a school here that will be closed, can you use that land? Because that land will be repurposed. How do we swap land? (interview, March 26, 2010)

Because the OPSB is a significant landowner and schools affect surrounding land use, an interagency meeting like this one could be considered an obvious necessity to identify common interests.

In New Orleans, however, it is an unprecedented occurrence: “Nothing like this had ever been done before. ‘How else were we going to plan the restructuring of the school system in a city recovering unless we knew what the other agencies are planning?’” (C. Caruso, interview, March 26, 2010). Caruso recalls willingness to collaborate on behalf of most agencies, but no success with the legal issue of swapping land—an outcome that can extinguish collaborative efforts.

From the city planning perspective, it was not an issue of willingness, but of jurisdictional authority. Paul Cramer, Principal City Planner with the New Orleans City Planning Commission (CPC), says, “I guess it was our understanding from the beginning the schools essentially have the authority to do their own planning, so we didn’t try to do that” (interview, March 4, 2010). Cramer emphasizes that CPC *did* try to make the school districts aware of the zoning implications on school use and location, but limited resources and the extraordinary demands of citywide recovery efforts stymied further collaborative planning. The CPC staff included only 24 people before the storm, was cut to one-third immediately after the storm, and included only 14 employees at the time of the school facilities planning process (Eggler, 2005; *City of NO Govt Directory*, 2007). Only recently has the CPC had the capacity to attend other agencies’ meetings, and as Cramer puts it, “we haven’t really thought too much about going to the school board [meetings]” (interview, March 4, 2010).

Concordia—a New Orleans-based architecture and planning firm—was the coordinating staff for the UNOP plan, a lead partner of the school master plan team, and part of the consultant team for the New Orleans 2030 plan. Being the only organization with a foot officially in both the city and school worlds, Concordia *did* recognize their responsibility to ensure alignment among the city and school plans and to “connect the dots.” About the 2030 and school facilities plans, Bobbie Hill, a Partner at Concordia, takes a middle ground approach: “I would say they’re very much aligned, all things considered, especially when you realize how disassociated all of those things have been historically” (interview, March 2, 2010). Nevertheless, Hill also recognizes the difference between

alignment and collaboration. She notes that because the plans were created sequentially and not all at the same exact time, “there was less opportunity for real collaboration [...] so it was really more about making sure things were in alignment” (B. Hill, interview, March 2, 2010).

What the Plans Say: Aligned Ideas

Indeed, the texts of the *School Facilities Master Plan for Orleans Parish* and *A Plan for the 21st Century: New Orleans 2030* are aligned in their content. Alignment is assessed by the extent to which each document addresses six dimensions:

1. Planning context
2. Changing demographics
3. School and neighborhood quality
4. Co-location and joint use
5. Transportation and land use
6. Coordination between local government and schools

The extent to which each plan addresses the different dimensions does vary, but both plans generally speak to the same issues and confirm that a low level of collaborative school facility planning existed.

Planning Context

In the 2030 Plan, Volume III is dedicated to background information, a review of existing conditions, and a summary of the community’s concerns and priorities. The public school system is a component of this background analysis. In this section, a brief summary discusses the condition of post-Katrina public school facilities, the divided system of school governance, and the existence of the SFMP. Particularly noteworthy is a paragraph that identifies how the SFMP relates to the 2030 Plan:

From the point of view of this master plan, the key issues related to the School Facilities Master Plan are:

- The need to make schools accessible to all neighborhoods.
- The need to make responsible decisions about the renovation or replacement of historic facilities.
- Incorporation of energy conservation and sustainable design into the design, construction, and operations of new buildings and building renovations.
- An ongoing and diligent exploration of real estate acquisition options available to expand site sizes and in some cases to improve site locations.

- Engagement of the community and stakeholders at school and neighborhood levels in the design and implementation of these recommendations. (City of NO, 2010, v. 3 p. 10.11)

It is clear from this statement that facilities—not programming—are the crux of the relationship between the SFMP and the city’s comprehensive plan.

The SFMP is less clear about its relationship to other city planning processes. There are hints of a broader context. For example, in the foreword the RSD and OPSB Superintendents write, “We will work to connect our schools to various community institutions in order to further expand our children’s horizons and deliver excellence in education” (SFMPPOP, *Blueprint*, 2008, p. i). Although the school facility planning process occurred between a series of recovery plans and the city’s 2030 Plan, the SFMP does not clearly establish how it relates to other plans and documents.

Changing Demographics

Both plans are highly dependent on demographics and both identify similar concerns, namely that population projections are complicated by the variables associated with post-Katrina resettlement. The SFMP enrollment scenarios are based on a ratio of public school enrollment to general population, and the school plan acknowledges that unpredictable city wide demographic changes affect the SFMP significantly:

Ascertaining and quantifying student enrollment is an exponentially more difficult task in post-Katrina New Orleans due to the dynamic population, household composition, and other circumstances related to the city’s recovery process and population return. (SFMPPOP, *Blueprint*, 2008, p. 11)

Although the SFMP is more concerned with public school demographics, the downward trend in enrollments is mentioned in both plans. The 2030 Plan highlights that New Orleans’ schools are not affected by the more commonly suburban problem of school growth and overcrowding. Rather, as is typical of urban communities over the last 30 years, New Orleans has smaller families, and fewer households with school-aged children. The 2030 Plan mentions this demographic change in a handful of places throughout the text.

Both plans acknowledge that the 52 surplus school sites are a result of changing demographics. The 2030 Plan quotes directly from the SFMP:

The recent School Facilities Master Plan notes that: ‘some older school buildings will no longer be practical for use as educational facilities,’ and recommends that they be ‘evaluated for their historic qualities and preserved and/or adaptively reused for housing, offices, or other community uses.’ (v. 3 p. 6.7)

The 2030 Plan suggests uses for the school facilities that will be vacant due to changing demographics—artist studios and residences (v. 2 p. 9.22), multifamily residential, mixed use, or another type of institutional (v.3 p. 14.8). The SFMP details the process of enrollment projections, but does not elaborate on possible facility reuses.

Schools and Neighborhood Quality

The most significant disparity in the alignment of the plans relates to neighborhood quality. In the SFMP, discussion of a relationship between school quality and neighborhood quality is limited. The idea of quality is discussed solely in relation to structural integrity of the school facilities. The SFMP does explain the Quick Start initiative that predated the completion of the plan, whose purpose was “to jump-start needed construction in neighborhoods recovering from the storm while the master plan was being developed” (SFMPPOP, *Blueprint*, 2008, p. 7-8). The Quick Start initiative implies an understood relationship between school presence and neighborhood resettlement, but this relationship is not explored further.

The 2030 Plan is significantly more explicit in drawing a relationship between schools and neighborhood quality, although it largely refers to school quality from a program—not facilities—perspective. Quality of life is a major theme in the 2030 Plan, and “enhancing the livability of all New Orleans neighborhoods, while preserving their unique character, is one of [the] overarching goals of this Master Plan” (City of NO, 2010, v. 3 p.5.1). The plan establishes an explicit relationship between economic development, neighborhood quality, and schools. Schools are among those listed as critical neighborhood institutions (City of NO, 2010, v. 2 p. 1.1; v. 2 p. 10.3), and the document recognizes that the closure of schools was “controversial” because “individual neighborhoods [...] are reluctant to see their schools eliminated” (City of NO, 2010, v. 3 p. 10.11). The 2030 Plan also suggests that adapted reuse of decommissioned school facilities and other historic structures will “contribute to overall neighborhood character and quality of life” (v. 2 p. 6.14).

Co-location and Joint Use

The co-location of community facilities at public school buildings is a prominent theme in the SFMP, and this theme is reflected in the 2030 Plan. The establishment of multi-service centers (MSC) accessible to every New Orleans resident is a primary goal in the Health and Human Services Chapter of the 2030 Plan. MSC's can include health care, afterschool programs, and community space; but the plan notes that uses should be compatible with and supported by the surrounding residential neighborhoods. Although public schools are not the only possible location for co-located services, they are certainly presented as a viable option, and the city plan recognizes the congruency between the MSC model and the school master plan goals:

The model of co-location of health and human services with public and centrally-located facilities such as schools, libraries, places of worship, and community and recreational centers is widely regarded as a national best practice, and has been a central tenet of numerous plans since Hurricane Katrina, including the public school facilities master plan... (City of NO, 2010, v. 2 p. 8.16).

The language used here is similar to that in the SFMP that also calls for similar co-located uses at the school facility. The SFMP suggests joint use of school facilities as an economical means to achieve community schools. Through leveraging tax dollars, multiple entities can benefit from joint use of shared facilities (SFMPPOP, *Blueprint*, 2008, p. 99).

Transportation, Land Use, and Schools

Both plans recognize a connection between transportation, land use, and school facilities. In the SFMP, these issues are related to criteria by which school sites are evaluated. The plan prioritized school locations based on parameters including:

- Availability of Land for Expansion
- Previous Recovery Plan Recommendations
- Transportation Analysis
- School Facility Best Practices
- Proximity to Parks & Open Space
- Proximity to Other Community Assets
- Cultural / Architectural Significance (SFMPPOP, *Blueprint*, 2008, p. vi)

These criteria suggest consideration of adjacent land uses, although the term "land use" is used only once in the document. That singular reference relates to a recommendation to

regularly update the plan and to evaluate “land use patterns” every two years as part of this update (SFMPPOP, *Blueprint*, 2008, p. 47).

The 2030 Plan makes explicitly clear the connection between former school facilities and land use planning. Decommissioned schools are identified among “opportunity sites,” and are discussed as “Land Use Issues Today:”

What this means for land use in the city is that almost every planning district will include large, institutional buildings, often surrounded by residences, that will be available for redevelopment. School buildings have been redeveloped or repurposed in New Orleans before, and both schools and churches have been very successful adaptive reuse projects throughout the country. [...] Redevelopment of these sites should be guided by a community-based planning process, ideally not in isolation but as part of district and neighborhood plans. These projects may propose multifamily, residential, mixed residential/commercial, or another type of institutional use. These potential uses should not be seen as inconsistent with the future land use plan. (City of NO, 2010, v. 3 p. 14.8)

Though not a focal point, the relationship between school facilities and land use is conveyed clearly in the 2030 Plan.

City and School Coordination

Textual evidence supports interviewees’ perceptions that more emphasis was placed on plan alignment than on collaboration during the planning process. The SFMP includes the only evidence of city-school collaboration: a citywide charrette in January 2008. The New Orleans Office of Recovery and Development Administration hosted the school district and facility planners to “discuss the master plan process and to gather information on publicly owned sites that could potentially accommodate new school buildings or the expansion of existing facilities or campuses” (SFMPPOP, *Blueprint*, 2008, p. 13). The plan lists the agencies that were represented:

- Federal Emergency Management Agency,
- Housing Authority of New Orleans,
- Louisiana Recovery Authority,
- New Orleans City Planning Commission,
- New Orleans Public Library,
- New Orleans Redevelopment Authority,
- New Orleans Recreation Department,
- Regional Planning Commission,
- Regional Transit Authority, and
- Sewerage and Water Board of New Orleans (SFMPPOP, *Blueprint*, 2008, p. 13).

Although this is the only example of existing collaboration, both plans recognize a desire for future coordination.

Within the 2030 Plan, Volume 2 outlines goals, strategies, and implementation actions. The plan recognizes that school-related goals necessitate collaboration, as reflected in this table that appears in Volume 2, Chapter 10:

Table 3: Excerpt from Community Facilities Chapter of the 2030 Plan					
GOAL	STRATEGY	ACTIONS			
		HOW	WHO	WHEN	RESOURCES
State-of-the-art public school campuses and facilities accessible to all neighborhoods	Promote collaboration among city agencies, community and neighborhood groups, and the school board in implementation of the School Facilities Master Plan.	Where feasible, combine school facilities with other community-serving functions like libraries and health centers.	School District; CAO's office	first five years	Staff time
		Ensure that elementary schools are within walking distance of neighborhoods and high schools have access to public transit.	School District	first five years	School funds
		Ensure city and community input in planning for projects to expand school land or facilities, or adaptive reuse of school lands or facilities no longer needed.	School District; CPC; Citizen Participation Program	first five years	School district funds
Source: City of NO, 2010, v. 2 p. 10.17					

Regarding the reuse of surplus school sites, the 2030 Plan specifically proposes coordination between the CPC and school boards to determine the most appropriate reuse for the property (City of NO, 2010, v. 2 ch. 5). Regarding schools and recreation, a collaborative effort is proposed through “an inter-agency parks and recreation coordinating group” (City of NO, 2010, v. 2 p. 7.22). The group would include the school districts, and is suggested to meet two to four times per year.

Similarly, the SFMP recommends collaboration with specific agencies in relation to site acquisition. In particular, the school plan identifies an opportunity to coordinate with NORD regarding parks and open space, and with the New Orleans Redevelopment Authority (NORA) and the Louisiana Land Trust (LLT) regarding blighted and adjudicated properties.

In sum, the 2030 Plan and SFMP are aligned in that they identify similar themes including co-location of services and reuse of surplus school sites. Both plans recognize a potential for future collaboration, but neither emphasizes the existence of significant collaboration throughout the school facilities planning process. Interviewees suggest this is because it did not exist. Just as city and school planning have traditionally occurred in isolation, it is as if in these plans “the vision of quality schools and that of quality neighborhoods have existed on parallel planes” (Proscio, 2004, p. iv). The ideas are aligned, but the planning is unrelated.

Six Key Components Affecting Collaborative Planning

In describing the low level of collaboration, respondents allude to the factors that limited collaborative school planning. Many elements in combination explain the low level of collaboration, but six key components most clearly explain why CSP in New Orleans did not exist. These components are (1) the post-disaster context, (2) the timing of planning processes, (3) the presence of a designated city-school liaison, (4) the meaning of “planning,” (5) power struggles and political self-interest, and (6) the decentralized school governance structure. The first three factors contributed to *and* worked against collaborative efforts; the latter three factors worked entirely against collaborative planning.

Key Component 1: Post-Disaster Context

Hurricane Katrina is an important component affecting school planning because the disaster gave rise to the SFMP in the first place (Cowen, 2009c). Federal and private funding as a result of the storm is what enabled school construction and necessitated the school facilities plan; from this perspective, the disaster created an opportunity for collaborative planning that otherwise would not have existed. Furthermore, plans must be in alignment to receive federal recovery dollars (T. Birch, interview, March 19, 2010), and this requirement further supports collaborative planning.

As frequently occurs after a natural disaster (Vale & Campanella, 2005), recovery from Hurricane Katrina is often framed as an opportunity. Disaster recovery is an opportunity to rethink not only how the city and schools function independently, but also how they work together. Hill observes, “In most places people are still in their silos and

institutions are still in their silos, but [...] here certainly because of Katrina, people are just understanding you can't do that anymore" (interview, March 2, 2010). Post-storm resettlement patterns highlight the relationship between school location and land development patterns. Knudsen (2008) identifies a pattern of concentrated redevelopment activity in close proximity to reopened elementary schools in New Orleans after the storm. The correlation creates a compelling rationale for CSP in post-disaster recovery.

In a radio interview, former RSD Superintendent Robin Jarvis acknowledges the same relationship: "In order to come back and rebuild a community, there are three things that are critical: schools for your children, a place to live, and your job" (Abramsom & Jarvis, 2007). Bingler expresses how these disaster-related relationships contribute to collaborative planning:

The most important element in rebuilding a city—because of a disaster, in spite of a disaster, or even in preparation for a disaster—is the act of coming together and working collaboratively. The community has said that they will not tolerate the school system not working with the city government. They will not tolerate the city government not working with the housing authority. And they will not tolerate the housing authority not working with our city institutions. The community sees all of this as one challenge as opposed to silos of challenges addressed by separate governing systems. (The Planning Report, 2008)

In this respect, the disaster context is a factor that heightens the demand and encouraged collaborative school planning.

Conversely, the post-Katrina recovery context also introduced additional complexities and a workload that overwhelmed agencies and inhibited joint planning. Recovery planning alone is a tall order, much less introducing a new model to do so collaboratively. In their study of post-disaster urban resilience, Vale and Campanella (2005) observe:

Wherever disasters are not accompanied by significant regime changes, the post-disaster era typically inherits the institutional structure and planning practices of the pre-disaster establishment. [...] it is not generally deemed an appropriate moment to introduce radical changes in public policy or urban form. (p. 345).

Prior to Katrina, the city and schools planned and worked in separate silos, and post-Katrina the mayoral administration remained unchanged while school governance only grew more cumbersome. Therefore, it is perhaps unrealistic to expect a reinvented

relationship in planning in the post-disaster period and from this perspective, it is clear how the disaster limited collaboration during the school planning process.

The SFMP began only 22 months after the storm, at which point, “Entities are dealing with triage,” and Hill says, “It’s really hard to get them to think a little broader than that” (interview, March 2, 2010). Recovery requires short-term thinking and quick action, whereas CSP is a longer and slower activity than recovery allows. Long-term thinking and collaborative planning in this context becomes challenging, if not entirely unlikely.

Even after triage, the distractions of post-disaster recovery are numerous and continue to affect the planning process. During the facilities planning, negotiations with FEMA preoccupied many school officials. These negotiations and the FEMA money itself contributed to a dysfunctional relationships between the RSD and OPSB who fought over federal reimbursement for hurricane related damage (T. O’Neill, interview, March 25, 2010). With school officials embroiled in disaster-related financial negotiations, they were not capable of effectively planning with outside agencies. In sum, the disaster created a demand for CSP, but it also crippled the city’s and schools’ capacities to collaborate.

Key Component 2: Timing

Depending on one’s perspective, the chronological proximity of the 2030 and SFMP processes either naturally contributed to or severely limited the possibilities for collaborative planning. On one hand, Hurricane Katrina essentially forced the entire city into planning mode around same time. The city and schools were actively engaged in recovery and long-term planning exercises in the four years following Katrina. The concurrent completion of land use and school facility plans is logical and was not only done in New Orleans in the 1950s, but is also occurring elsewhere in Louisiana.²⁹ From this perspective, “everybody engaged in planning exercises at the same time is bound to help” with collaborative efforts (P. Cramer, interview, March 4, 2010).

A more detailed timeline, however, indicates that the one and a half year school facilities process did *not* largely overlap with the city’s UNOP plan before it or the 2030

²⁹ Caddo Parish in the midst of creating a comprehensive land use plan, *Great Expectations Plan: Shreveport – Caddo 2030*. This document is being coordinated with the *Vision 2020* school facilities master plan for Caddo Parish Public Schools that is also underway.

Plan that followed. The SFMP draft was released in August 2008 just before the 2030 Plan began its citizen participation phase, and OPSB approved the SFMP in November 2008 just before the first round of planning district meetings for the land use plan. The sequential timing of the processes was enough to deter collaborative planning and create a relationship based more on alignment and dependence.

In their interviews, Hill, Hankins, and Caruso each call attention to the fact that the planning processes did *not* coincide. Caruso calls it “unfortunate” timing, and Hill remarks, “There was a little bit of collaboration, but because the sequence was such that one happened, and the next one happened, then the next one happened...there was less opportunity for real collaboration” (interview, March 2, 2010).³⁰

While lack of concurrence may legitimately have limited collaborative planning, the truly missed opportunity is the failure to take full advantage of the *proximal* timing. With the school facilities plan complete when the New Orleans 2030 plan began, the school’s planners could greatly have contributed to the latter process. The city did use Caruso as a resource, but “not to the extent possible.” She says, “They really didn’t take advantage of our lessons learned our extensive public engagement, and our data gathered in process.” (interview, March 26, 2010).

Key Component 3: Director of Planning

Despite this underutilization, Caruso is arguably the most significant contributing factor to collaborative planning during the school facilities process. As RSD’s Director of Planning, she served as the primary liaison between the city and school throughout the SFMP processes. It was her presence that enabled collaboration and her absence—with the RSD reduction in force in mid-2009—that all but ended coordinated planning between the city and school.

Caruso was hired by the state superintendent and assigned to the Recovery School District as the Director of Planning after the storm. She was the chief project director for the school facilities master plan and responsible for overseeing all consultant work and all components of the planning process. In this role, Caruso mediated between the OPSB and

³⁰ See Appendix G for a visual timeline of post-Katrina planning in New Orleans.

RSD and between city and school officials. Caruso represented the RSD in the Sustainable Systems Working Group for the *New Orleans 2030 Plan*; she sat on the City Planning Commission's Planning Advisory Committee (PAC),³¹ worked with the redevelopment of public housing projects, was an advisor to the Library master plan process, and met with the people of New Orleans in person and through the media. Caruso also maintained communication with city council members, school board members, and state legislators. Essentially, Caruso sustained the school planning process by maintaining personal contact with anyone and everyone whom the plan would affect—the public, city, and school officials alike. No other representative of either the RSD or OPSB formally participated in both the city and school planning process in these capacities or to this extent.

Caruso's sensitivity to collaborative planning is partly attributable to her training as an urban planner—a rarity in the realm of school facility planners. Caruso holds a Masters of Urban and Regional Planning from the University of New Orleans. With this background, she brought to the RSD knowledge of land use and zoning, a holistic perspective, and an entire network of associations with local planners and city leaders. Furthermore, Caruso earned public trust as a local and as a professional. Most importantly, the Director of Planning position represented neutrality because it required mediation between the OPSB and RSD:

From the very first day when [OPSB] started campaigning and [RSD] started campaigning I said, "Look at me. I am little Switzerland. Okay? I can't take sides with any of you because I have to look at the whole picture. That's my job, okay? So you can campaign for what you want, and you can campaign for what you want. All these people can campaign, and it doesn't make any difference because when you cross my border you're in Switzerland, okay?" (interview, March 26, 2010)

Observations from others make clear not only the significance of the Director of Planning position, but also the urban planning background and commitment to collaboration that Caruso brought to the job.

³¹ The PAC "was formed to meet and advise on such technical issues, thereby gaining the mutual benefit of a coordinated opinion" (New Orleans City Planning Commission, 2008, p. 25). Voting membership includes representation from multiple agencies: Chief Administrative Office; Dept of Property Management; City Planning Commission; Dept of Public Works; Sewerage and Water Board; Dept of Safety and Permits; Sanitation Dept; Dept of Parks and Parkways; New Orleans Recreation Dept; New Orleans Fire Dept; Historic District Landmarks Commission; Vieux Carre Commission; Orleans Parish School Board; and Entergy

Cramer describes Caruso as the sole intermediary for coordinating the CPC's work with the school plans. She was on the CPC PAC, maintained contact with CPC Deputy Director Leslie Alley, and was "very well respected." The RSD Director of Planning position was eliminated with budget cuts and a far-reaching reduction in force in June 2009, and Hankins describes the significance of both the presence and absence of this designated liaison:

[...Caruso] was participating with the city's plan because she's more of [an urban] planner, and so she was overlapping and participating on the education piece and helping the consultants on the plan for the city. So when you ask about collaboration between the two, when Constance left there was no collaboration. She was the essential conduit. [... She] had her feet in both houses. I don't think anybody realized the impact of that as far as long-range collaboration. (interview, March 19, 2010)

When the position was eliminated the city's comprehensive land use planning was underway, and the schools were beginning to implement Phase I of their plan. With no designated intermediary between the city and schools, the schools could not maintain the same level of communication with the city, and the two entities essentially remain in their separate planning silos. Caruso was the linchpin on whom collaborative planning depended, and in her absence the school facilities plan *is* being implemented, but the level of coordination that exists between the city and schools has certainly diminished.

Planning does not end with the adoption of a plan, and the SFMP in particular is intended as a living document that requires monitoring throughout the implementation of its six phases. Caruso explains that her position was eliminated in part because of a failure to recognize that planning continues after a plan is adopted:

Unfortunately, people's perception of budget is: 'Okay, we have a plan paid for.' Strategic thinking, staying in the media, and sustaining relationships throughout the city to foster continued collaboration while implementing the plan and reviewing the plan periodically require skill full-time and are rarely budgeted for in the initial plan. (interview, March 26, 2010)

The loss of the Director of Planning position undermines the potential for future coordination because the factor that most largely affected collaborative planner was this position, and more specifically Caruso herself.

Key Component 4: Meaning of “Planning”

Caruso’s experience with urban and facilities planning allow her to appreciate the relationship, similarities, and differences of “planning” in these separate fields—subtleties that many do not recognize. By and large, planning means different things to different people, and these different interpretations add to the complexity of collaborative planning. “Planning” can entail different processes, scopes, outcomes, expectations, and stakeholders depending on the agency involved.

Differences in scale and purpose are reflected in the text of each plan. The *2030 plan* provides a “visionary blueprint for moving the city squarely into the 21st century” (City of NO, 2010, v. 1 p. 6). It is a policy document that guides the city’s growth over the next 20 years. Conversely, school facility planning is project-based and is a much more focused process:

In general, a [school facilities] master plan determines how many new buildings are needed, which buildings should be replaced, renovated or modernized, which should be demolished, and ideally, a list of the specific order in which all of the above should be accomplished. (BESE, 2008, p. 13).

This level of specificity is detailed in six phases that outline the capital improvement program for the next ten years.

The two types of planning are complementary in that they serve the same people and the same place, but the scopes and scales of the two planning processes are decidedly different. One encompasses citywide policy and one focuses on specific structures within a single infrastructure system. A school facilities plan is site-specific and decisive in its contents. A comprehensive land use plan is a long-term visioning document that can be relatively vague and conditional. Each plan may impact the other, but the difference in scale and scope works against collaborative planning

The interpretive challenge of planning is compounded in post-Katrina New Orleans by a third type of planning—recovery planning—that also entails its own scope and process. The UNOP defines a recovery plan as:

...a tool to help guide the repair and rebuilding of New Orleans in a rational way that creates stability and paves the way for future growth and prosperity. [...]The Recovery Plan provides a systematic approach to repairing and rebuilding the damage caused by the disaster as quickly as possible so that current residents of the City receive the essential services they need while the City prepares the way for

displaced citizens and newcomers to return to a safer, stronger, smarter City. (UNOP, 2007, p. 9)

Recovery planning is characterized by quick decision-making to reduce uncertainty and to encourage resettlement and redevelopment. The 2030 Plan is not to be mistaken for a recovery plan, and it explicitly notes this difference between post-storm recovery planning and long-range planning (City of NO, 2010, v. 2 p. 1.5).

The benefit of post-Katrina planning is the citywide increase in planning literacy, but the subtle differences between these types of plans has not been clearly elicited. These differences are reconcilable if they are understood, and therein lies the real challenge: educating the city on what “planning” entails for the schools, and vice versa. For example,

A lot of the public thought we’ve already planned multiple plans for the city, we’ve already planned time after time and we know the process. The public confused recovery planning with school facility planning because recovery planning was the most recent experience for most. (C. Caruso, interview, March 26, 2010)

This confusion indicates a misunderstanding of the differences between different types of planning. These misperception of planning—whether they see sameness or incompatibility—are detrimental to collaborative planning.

Key Component 5: Politics, Money, and Self-Interest

No matter the interpretation, planning and politics are very much entwined, and this relationship can support or derail any planning process. In the case of school facility planning, New Orleans’ entrenched political interests challenged collaborative planning in addition to the power struggles that arose when coordination was attempted. Caruso describes the negative effects of politics on CSP:

Essentially what you’ll find is planning is a web or a net connected throughout and unfortunately when people try and carve out a slot and plan only for one thing, it doesn’t work very well at all. There are many reasons why it doesn’t work. Money. The desire to leave legacies. Politics. Self-interest. All the negatives that you can imagine were blown up here immensely for historical reasons. Mistrust. Corruption. Emotion. The beginning of the facilities plan was elegantly simple. Once you added the factor of politics, power and money, it became very inelegant and un-simple. (interview, March 26, 2010)

Vale and Campanella (2005) suggest that in many recovering cities a disaster is framed as an opportunity, but the recovery process also invites opportunism. They write:

There is a fine line between capitalizing on an unexpected traumatic disruption to the fabric of a city as an opportunity to pursue some much-needed upgrading of infrastructure and facilities and the more dubious practice of using devastation as a cover for more opportunistic agendas yielding less obvious public benefits. (p. 348)

With New Orleans' reputation for easily corruptible politics, the threat of exploitation was real in the school planning process. The capital projects outlined in the school facilities plan cost an estimated \$2 billion, and this sum of money attracts both the honest and the underhanded. Similarly, with critical decisions to be made, some respect and some exploit the opportunity to exert power. Caruso describes her dealings with key decision makers:

Conflict. Money, power, and alpha personality clashes. Not, "How do we come together and do what we need to do? How do we make a decision for the best outcome?" It was really discouraging at times. (interview, March 26, 2010)

Even where the negative influence of power and politics is not as visible, self-interest can subtly work against collaboration. Consultants have a service and product to sell, school board members have districts to protect, and city council members have constituents to please.

Key Component 6: School Governance

With the state takeover of New Orleans public schools, the internal power struggles between OPSB and RSD also complicated collaborative planning. This tension, however, is only one symptom of the larger problem of a disorganized and decentralized school governance. The structure itself inhibited collaboration.

In describing the dysfunction of the present system, Cowen Institute's Policy Manager Tara O'Neill says: "If you were to sit in class and someone were to say create a structure to create the maximum amount of tension between two governmental entities, you would set up the OPSB and the RSD" (interview, March 25, 2010). Immediately after the takeover, collaboration was complicated because people and positions were frequently changing (B. Hill, interview, March 2, 2010). This lack of consistency worked against joint planning and contributed to a lack of clarity regarding the roles and responsibilities. Now, four and a half years since the takeover, CSP is still limited by the fact that no single entity is able to represent the entire system in a collaborative process.

Hill suggests there may be one benefit to the convoluted system: “It’s pretty crazy [...]but we like to say sometimes it’s kind of hard to hurt yourself when you jump out of the basement window and it was so bad before that anything’s better than before” (interview, March 2, 2010). But is it? From a programming perspective, the pros and cons of the post-Katrina school structure are endlessly debatable, but from a facility planning perspective, there is no question that the divided system contributes to a sense of self-interest and localism that work against collaborative efforts.

The absence of a single operator responsible for all schools and students creates dissension; it fosters a lack of trust in the system and an unwillingness to collaborate. For example, Hankins and O’Neill both describe public meetings in which neighborhood groups and individuals object to shared playground and civic space until they know and approve of *who* will operate the school on site. Meeting minutes indicate countless neighborhoods groups who object to different operators. For example:

She stated that Lower Gentilly has been waiting for 2 years for Stuart Bradley Elementary School to reopen. The school was not a failing school and they are demanding that the school open in 2009, *and they do not want a charter school on that site* [emphasis added]. (OPSB, Jan 2008, p. 13)

Neighborhoods have no long-term guarantee of who will operate which schools because charter agreements are short-term and school operators are not addressed in the SFMP. Throughout the planning process, this uncertainty provoked reactions ranging from hesitancy to hostility.

The public appealed to elected officials on the city and school sides, pitting council districts, school sub-districts, and neighborhoods against each other in competition for school facilities and operators. The large number of schools slated to close worked against collaboration by intensifying the competition between neighborhoods and board members fighting to keep their schools open. Former OPSB President Reverend Torin Sanders responded to the hostility at one board meeting, saying:

What’s unfortunate though is that neighborhoods and sometimes schools and alumni in cases are feeling forced, pitted against each other as though one neighborhood is getting something the other neighborhood is not. And that’s unfortunate because we’re bigger than that and we’re more than that and everybody deserves. (OPSB, Oct 2008)

The OPSB alone has seven sub-districts, which naturally fosters a parochial approach. With two school districts *and* sub-districts, it was an even greater challenge to view school facilities planning as a process for a *system* of schools. In a June 2006 board meeting OPSB Superintendent Darryl Kilbert addresses the pervasive insular attitudes: “There are four pronouns we must exchange our use of from ‘I and mine’ to a collective ‘we and ours’” (OPSB, June 2006). Despite this appeal, public comments and meeting transcripts indicate most people were more interested in the specifics of single schools: where they would be located, who would operate them, and would be permitted to attend.

A compounding problem is that the system is not permanent. Another restructuring is inevitable when the RSD is required to outline their recommendation by late 2010 for the schools they acquired post-Katrina. There has been no foreshadowing of what that system will resemble, so the SFMP was created without the benefit of that knowledge. The city and other agencies were likely deterred from entering cooperative agreements and establishing joint endeavors because the future of New Orleans school governance is simply too unclear. A more stable and streamlined governance structure would have enhanced the likelihood of collaborative facility planning in the city.

Future Opportunities for Collaborative School Planning

Despite the fact that the most recent school facilities planning process did not entail a significant level of collaboration, there remains room and reason for collaboration in the implementation phase of the city and school plans and in future planning processes. The texts of both plans identify reasons to collaboration that reflect the rationales presented in chapter two. Collaborative planning for improved school transportation and co-located public facilities are important and warrant sincere consideration in New Orleans, but the three most immediate opportunities for collaborative planning are more basic, more timely, and largely unique to the city’s current circumstance. Specifically, the three activities related to school facilities and land use that present near-term opportunities for collaboration are related to (1) reuse of surplus school sites, (2) revision of the comprehensive zoning ordinance revision, and (3) reviews of the master plans.

Future Opportunity 1: Reuse of School Properties

The most widely discussed model of collaborative school facility planning is oriented to rapid suburban growth and new school construction. CSP is needed to address not only the opening of facilities, but also the closing at the end of a school's useful life. In New Orleans, large schools on the suburban fringe are *not* a primary concern. Rather, the pressing issue is the aging stock of school facilities that are generally well located in neighborhoods.

The SFMP identifies 52 surplus school sites that are no longer needed for educational purposes. The pressing issue is how to maintain these surplus facilities and particularly how to use and *reuse* these facilities to best achieve community goals. Repurposing these properties will require a collaborative effort, particularly in the post-Katrina context when resources are limited and school facilities can work with or against a neighborhood's plan. The city and school district must collaborate to determine the most appropriate reuse for public school sites and the mechanisms by which land transactions should be made.

This problem is not new. In 1978, OPSB published an RFP related to the disposal and reuse of surplus school properties. One consultant proposal outlines a six-step strategy to handle decommissioned school sites and suggests a collaborative mechanism be developed to encourage land transactions among public agencies. The proposal entails participation from school board staff, CPC, a Neighborhood Analysis Unit, city government, a designated attorney, a designated appraiser, the State Historical Preservation Office, and other key city agencies (Grimball, et al., 1978, p. 1).

It is unclear whether any action related to this proposal was taken at the time, but comments in the 2030 Plan suggest that no collaborative process for school decommissioning and reuse currently exists. The plan does however recommend a process to ensure consistency of neighborhood character in the reuse of historic school facilities:

The disposition of publicly-owned properties, including schools, that are located in or near commercial districts, should be preceded by an evaluation of potential uses and urban design strategies that can contribute to strengthening the commercial district. The school district should work with the CPC and the neighborhood to plan for preferred outcomes. If disposition and private-sector development of the property is desired, the school district should prepare an RFP that provides criteria for the desired range of uses and the urban design strategy preferred. Transfer to

other public entities should also require a commitment to suitable urban design strategies. (City of NO, 2010, v. 2 p. 5.27)

This proposal may require the school or city to establish a real estate broker position whose responsibility would be negotiating property transactions between the schools and other public and private entities. Someone would need to tackle the administrative and legal hurdles of swapping land between public agencies and facilitate discussion to determine which properties are best suited for which owner and use. The reuse of sites is an important issue, however, and the complexity should not be underestimated.

A recent report by the Urban Land Institute (ULI) recognizes this complexity and recommends a partnership approach to handling the surplus issue. Since 1947, the ULI Advisory Services Program provides strategic advice related land use and real estate development for clients around the country. In this instance, OPSB and RSD consulted ULI for advice regarding surplus schools. In particular the ULI panel was asked to identify five case studies of adaptive school reuse, methods for establishing a fair price for school properties, and business models that work for school reuse projects (ULI, 2009). ULI's primary recommendation is for OPSB to partner with a real estate professional. The report mentions the options of either hiring internal school real estate staff or a private consultant, but it focuses on the idea of developing a partnership with NORA:

Right now, the complex relationship between RSD and the OPSB adds a layer of confusion that discourages developers. Centralizing responsibility in NORA will create a clear "one-stop-shop for developers and community leaders interested in vacant school property redevelopment. The stream-lined process will lead to greater focus and better results. (ULI, 2009, p. 11)

The report recommends at least one full time NORA staff person dedicated to handling school sites. A partnership between OPSB and NORA is logical because both are public agencies committed to "balancing community and financial imperatives" (p. 11). NORA has the capacity to handle real estate deals including marketing maintenance, and development responsibilities. OPSB and NORA would need to negotiate cost sharing for predevelopment and maintenance activities and establish clear expectations. Specifically, the ULI report discourages landbanking school properties that are not expected to be used within two years and expediting the sale of properties that have high market demand.

So far, disposing of school sites and swapping land with other public agencies has proven challenging, and a partnership with NORA has not yet been established. One significant roadblock has been monetary worthlessness of the schools sites. Significant profit would be unlikely selling school sites in partnership with NORA. Selling property on its own, however, has been particularly difficult for OPSB because of a former legislative requirement to accept offers no less than the appraised value. OPSB sells property through a closed bid process, and few bids approach this required minimum price.³²

Where selling sites is an issue of price, the *acquisition* of sites is an issue of policy. After the storm, the school districts were particularly interested in acquiring underutilized city-owned land adjacent to public schools. Little progress was made in the planning process to swap or sell between public agencies. Hankins describes past negotiation attempts with NORA as particularly frustrating and futile, leaving both groups with property neither can use nor afford to maintain (interview, March 19, 2010).

Within the RSD, Hankins is currently the person responsible for identifying a solution and handling the surplus property issue. She describes it as being next up on her agenda:

All the agencies are in the okay-so-what's-the-next-step-[mode]. From where I sit, I'm solving a couple of crises, and then what's next on the agenda of problems to solve? The surplus property problem probably is the next one to start looking towards; we just don't have the manpower to start thinking about it [yet]. I'm about six months out from even beginning to tackle that one and to be able to really put some meat behind what a cooperative endeavor agreement [should] look like and how can we really institutionalize or even just test sell one [school site] with NORA. (interview, March 19, 2010)

As the surplus issue becomes more immediate, it is critical that a solution and system be established collaboratively. This is simply not a job for single person job. The school district is not equipped to handle the scale of this undertaking, nor is it experienced in real estate development. Hankins will need the support of a collaborative approach and creative solutions to alleviate OPSB's portfolio of underused sites, to enable transactions, and to put public land to its highest and best use for the public good.

³² House Bill 729 (Act 526) approved during the 2010 Louisiana Legislative Session changes this requirement.

Future Opportunity 2: Revision of the Comprehensive Zoning Ordinance

Currently, public schools are subject to local zoning in New Orleans.³³ This is not the case in all states and localities, and this has important implications for CSP.

Collaborative planning benefits when schools are subject to zoning because otherwise a school district can “disregard a community’s long-range planning and build wherever it chooses to do so, regardless of potentially harmful or inconsistent infrastructure or land use issues” (Emerson, 2006, p. 10). Under New Orleans’ current comprehensive zoning ordinance (CZO), existing public school sites are conditional uses, and new school construction or facility expansion require conditional use permits (SMFPOP, *Building*, 2008, p. S007-1).

The city’s CZO is being updated, however, to reflect the vision outlined in the 2030 Plan, and schools may be affected by these zoning changes. In particular, the expanding use of schools could affect their zoning designation. The city and school plans both call for co-location of community services, and the resulting multifunctional school sites could prompt a reconsideration of a school’s by-right use as they transform to serve non-students, require more parking, and meet broader needs. Land use lawyer and zoning expert Stephen Villavaso explains the evolution:

I think the idea of a school being a permitted use in a residential district is a historically logical conclusion which is probably not valid today because schools are much more complicated land uses today than they were when we had a plain vanilla Euclidian code [...Today] the average size of a high school is 10 to 15 acres, and a lot of that is surface parking. [...] The campus itself is a multi-use campus with activities that go on very early in the morning, and late at night and sometimes with lights and noise and activities, so they become complicated. (interview, February 25, 2010)

To accommodate for these changes in school use new zoning standards may need to be considered.

For example, performance zoning may appropriately be applied to schools in the future because they are flexible enough to allow complicated uses, but can still control the

³³ When schools were changed from a permitted to permitted conditional use in residential areas in 1984, OPSB alleged the ordinance was unconstitutional. An appellate judge ruled the zoning change was constitutional and that City Council approval of a school does not infringe on the school board’s authority to select locations for schools. (*OPSB v. City of New Orleans, et al.*, 1985)

negative externalities of those uses. Cramer proposes an alternative solution that would preserve the historic value of the surplus schools:

We want to have provisions in there for an old church or schools [...allowing them] to come in as sort of a planned unit development, evaluated on a case-by-case basis, that could be multifamily residential, could be assisted living, maybe affordable housing. (interview, March 4, 2010)

Both of these options allow for flexible application of zoning to current and closed school facilities.

From a collaborative planning perspective, however, what is more important at this juncture, is not projecting *how* schools will be rezoned in the CZO, but recognizing that there *will* be a potential zoning change. School officials need to be a part of these discussions and need to work proactively and cooperatively with the city and its planners.

The authors of the SFMP recognize these changes are forthcoming; the plan notes:

In 2008, the City of New Orleans plans to revise the Land Use Plan and Zoning Ordinances. Accordingly, these standards may be amended. Designers should discuss the implications of any changes with Orleans Parish School Board and Recovery School District representatives. (SMFPOP, *Building*, 2008, p. S007-1)

Presumably “designers” refers to the urban planners who are redesigning the CZO. As a significant property owner in the city, school representatives themselves need to approach the planners who are updating the zoning code and not expect the reverse. If OPSB intends to sell any of the 52 sites identified as surplus, it would behoove them to participate in the overhaul of the CZO to improve their ability to liquidate their assets. Villavaso, whose firm is participating in the CZO update, agrees:

They should sit down and talk about it and not let Camiros [the CZO consultant] come up with a solution in isolation, send it over to the school district, and they say, “Oh, that won’t work. We’re going to have to sue those people.” Or, “We’re going to have to see our local district council member or call the new mayor.” (interview, February 25, 2010)

Villavaso concludes, “Maybe we ought to talk on the front end.” Not only does the CZO represent an opportunity for collaboration between city and school officials, it should be considered essential.

Future Opportunity 3: Review of the Master Plans

A planning process is not complete with the adoption of a plan; planning requires constant monitoring, and plan documents must be updated as conditions change within a community (Berke, et al., 2006). Understanding changing conditions and projecting future conditions requires current data, and city and school planning in New Orleans could become more collaborative if data sharing was enhanced. Caruso and Hill both describe the challenge of sharing basic information during the recent planning process. Caruso recounts:

I gave city all of the schools' GIS information so they could put the school layers on their maps given our planning process was so far ahead of the city's. There is the mistaken idea that information is power as opposed to information *sharing* is power. (interview, March 26, 2010)

Hill confirms the pervasive withholding of data: "I think more and more people in the city are understanding the importance of democratizing information, but there's still plenty of people who don't want to do that, or they think if they show it to you that that counts" (interview, March 2, 2010).

The SFMP explains that student enrollment projections depend on citywide population projections. It also admits:

Ascertaining and quantifying student enrollment is an exponentially more difficult task in post-Katrina New Orleans due to the dynamic population, household composition, and other circumstances related to the city's recovery process and population return. (SFMPPOP, *Blueprint*, 2008, p. 11)

Current population projections for the city and the public schools are difficult to determine, dependent on each other, and essential for the plans. For this reason, the city and schools should consider publishing a joint solicitation for updated demographics in the future. Donnelly (2003) suggests, "For most local planners and school staffs, the notion that schools and development can be planned together using common population projections, facility budgeting, comprehensive plans, and even common review staff, is radical stuff" (p. 4). Regardless, a joint contract and shared population data would ensure that both entities are planning with a common conception of the city's future population.

In addition, a logical opportunity for future collaboration is when the SFMP and 2030 Plan are revised and updated. The 2030 Plan suggests a timeline for updating that

conforms to the Home Rule Charter requirements. The charter permits annual review and requires a mandatory five-year review (Home Rule Charter, 2009, p.136). The SFMP recommends a more specific but complicated schedule for updates: annual revisions of the implementation schedule and budget; bi-annual reviews of population projections, the city's recovery progress, and housing and land use patterns; and a full plan revision every five years (SFMPPOP, *Blueprint*, 2008, p. 47). The timing of updates can be coordinated so the city and school plans can continue to inform each other such that "school siting decisions are supportive of [the] community's growth and development objectives and visa versa" (ARC, 2003, p. 21).

Four Contingencies Affecting Future Collaboration

Activities related to zoning, reuse, and plan updates are natural candidates for collaborative planning, but achieving CSP is not automatic. As demonstrated by the low level of collaboration that existed in the development of the SFMP, there are real constraints that can inhibit coordinated planning. Future CSP will depend largely on how much the city and schools prioritize partnership and how these entities manage the six components that affected the last school planning process in New Orleans. Additionally, future collaborative efforts will inevitably face a new set of legal, technical, or political challenges. Although they cannot altogether be foreseen, lessons from the past indicate they may be controlled with attention to four variables upon which future collaborative planning may be contingent: (1) state legislation, (2) permanent school governance, (3) a formalized collaborative processes, and (4) new mayoral leadership.

Contingency 1: Legislation

State legislation related to school and city planning can either support or undermine collaborative efforts:

State policy reform is one tool for affecting the planning, design, construction, maintenance and funding practices and processes at the state and local school district levels. However, state level standards and control must be carefully developed and applied, so that creativity, public participation, and local priorities can drive the facility planning and design outcomes. (BEST Collaborative, 2005, p. 2)

As demonstrated in chapter three, Louisiana legislation does not outline strict requirements for school or land use planning, nor does it include any criteria for making

school siting decisions. Because very few parishes in Louisiana are experiencing rapid population growth, it is unlikely that planning enabling legislation will be amended to include a growth-oriented CSP framework. What *is* likely to change, however, is the state's role in relation to school facilities, and this outcome could have a significant impact on the potential and prioritization of CSP.

With Governor Jindal's veto of Senate Bill 584 in July 2010, the Statewide Education Facilities Authority has failed to become law for three consecutive years. Legislators have committed to sponsoring similar bills, however, until the authority is created to disburse the funds established by the Statewide Education Facility Fund in 2009 (T. O'Neill, interview, March 25, 2010). O'Neill projects that if the authority is created and funded, the money will likely be used to update facilities with pressing health and safety issues, but could still have implications on school planning in the future.

If funding criteria are established now with the creation of a state fund and authority, they could have a significant impact on supporting or deterring collaborative planning for larger facilities projects in the future. School planners in other states identify some state-level school facility policies as significant obstacles to CSP—e.g. minimum acreage laws, zoning exemptions, and funding formulas that favor new construction over restoration (Beaumont & Pianca, 2002). Louisiana does not currently have *any* state-level siting laws, so if criteria are created with a state facilities fund and authority they should preserve the relationship between school and neighborhood and encourage the principles of CSP. For example, Louisiana's funding formula could award bonus points to school districts that practice collaborative planning with local governments.

Also considered during Louisiana's 2010 legislative session was legislation related to how OPSB can dispose of surplus sites. With the passage of House Bill 729 (Act 526), the minimum acceptable bid at which property can be sold by the school board has been changed. School property may now be sold at 85% of appraised value on the first attempt, at 80% on the second attempt, and at no minimum bid on the third attempt (H.B. 729, 2010). While this change increases the school boards' ability to generate revenue, it would also enables easier sale of surplus property and therein diminishes the likelihood of collaborative planning with other public agencies to determine the most appropriate reuse of school facilities.

Contingency 2: Permanent School Governance Structure

The decentralized and disorganized school governance limited collaboration during the last school planning process, and the impending reorganization of the public school governance will undoubtedly impact the future opportunities for school officials to collaborate efficiently with local leaders. The RSD is not and cannot be a permanent solution. The Cowen Institute and others recognize this and are actively researching and evaluating various public school governance models in anticipation of the state's recommendation for the schools that were taken over post-Katrina (T. O'Neill, interview, March 25, 2010).

With a permanent school governance framework in place, the relationship between the city and schools may also be more formalized and effective. Once these relationships are established, the two institutions can establish a system for coordinating their planning efforts at neighborhood and citywide scales.

With stability, the feasibility of a citywide facility management model may be explored to increase the city's role in maintaining school buildings. In Chicago, for example, the Public Building Commission is responsible for the management of public construction projects. This includes planning, building, and renovating school facilities for the Chicago Public Schools. A similar model has been proposed in New Orleans (Cowen & BGR, 2010b; T. O'Neill, interview, March 25, 2010), however none of this can be considered until the school governance model is streamlined, stabilized, and trusted.

Contingency 3: Formalizing the Collaborative Process

With a stable and dependable school governance structure, a formalized collaborative planning process can be instituted between the city and school. In discussing the need for more collaboration amongst planning processes, former OPSB member Una Anderson remarked, "There needs to be a conversation" (OPSB, Oct 2008, p. 12). This is true, but conversation is not enough. Hankins recalls an attempt to coordinate land uses with other public agencies that indicates how conversation can only do so much:

Early on we were trying to figure out: Can we grow a campus that's adjacent to a park? Can we ask NORD for this land, so now my two-acre campus grows to six acres and looks more like a suburban school would have for a K to 8? Can we grow that land? And [we] got push back, 'Well this is city property, it's not school

property. No you can't have it.' Or vice versa. [N]ow, nobody can afford to maintain either property, so you keep yours I keep mine.

Shared use of park and playground space represents an ideal opportunity for coordinating land use, but no established system exists in New Orleans to foster and support collaborative planning.

Sustainable CSP requires a mutual understanding of the need to collaborate, a liaison between the city and schools, and the adoption of formal mechanisms that support collaboration. A basic recognition of the need for collaboration is clear from comments in the text of the 2030 Plan and SFMP, but New Orleans lacks the latter two.

The school facilities plan specifically discusses the need to bolster the schools districts' internal capacity to implement the plan. It recommends, "The internal capacity should be developed to effectively and efficiently implement this plan, and processes should be implemented to insure openness and transparency" (SFMPOP, *Blueprint*, 2008, p. 44). As part of enhancing internal capacity, the Director of Planning position should be restored at the school districts. The Annenberg Foundation supports this recommendation in their own call for a "convener who is able to reach across groups and sectors to bring key leaders together" (Annenberg, 2009, p. 13). The importance of this position is evident from the positive impact Caruso had on the last school planning process, and the value of a full-time person should not be underestimated.

Literature on school-centered community revitalization often calls for a third-party convener, but dependence on consultants should be avoided. The "convener" responsibility cannot depend on private contractors that come and go throughout implementation. In a paper on the recovery planning in post-Katrina New Orleans, Nelson, Ehrenfeucht and Laska (2007) note:

At times, outside experts might be able to facilitate collaboration because they have less invested in specific outcomes. Outside participation does not guarantee neutrality, however, and outside professionals must build relationships and trust and must understand the basis for existing divisions if they intend to bridge them. (p. 46)

Neutrality is certainly no guarantee, nor is a consultant's commitment to collaboration, especially if it is not required by a scope of work. Even if a consultant is able to build trust and connect the dots between different players and plans, ultimately they have only a

temporary role in a planning process. At the end of a contract, collaboration—if it existed—will cease with the departure of a third party.

For these reasons, it is particularly important that this liaison be a full-time employee of the city or school district—someone with clarity of purpose that understands both the city and school perspective. Formalizing this role is the must be followed with the formalization of a commitment or a process to CSP. A single liaison cannot alone beget collaboration, the entire system must be fundamentally oriented to support collaboration.

Research recommends starting with the basics. Fundamentally, collaborative school facility planning requires entities to improve communication, share data, create common goals, formalize agreements, institutionalize the collaborative process, and change policies that currently work against effective collaboration (ARC, 2003; Beaumont & Pianca, 2002; Building Educational Facilities Together [BEST] Collaborative, 2005; BEST, 2006; ICMA, 2008; Jones, 2002; McKoy et al., 2009; NGA Center for Best Practices, 2007; Salvesen, et al., 2006).

Formal mechanisms establish an understood expectation for coordination. In reference to shared performance sites (stadiums, auditoriums, etc.), the SFMP specifically says: “a format for sharing resources should be devised to avoid redundancy and maximize the efficiency of all of the community’s physical and financial resources” (SFMPPOP, *Blueprint*, 2008, p. 2). This “format” is not proposed in the plan, but other experts suggest the tools that beget collaborative planning. These include joint use agreements, interlocal agreements, a formalized plan review process, regularly scheduled joint meetings, and verbal or written commitments to sharing information and future plans (Salvesen, 2010). One mechanism is already in place in New Orleans: CPC’s Planning Advisory Committee (PAC). The PAC includes cross-agency membership, but it is an underutilized forum for collaborating with the school board who rarely attends the meetings. These practices must change to support CSP. The sustainability of collaborative school planning depends largely on established mechanisms that can survive political turnover and individual disinterest.

Contingency 4: Mayoral Leadership

The city’s commitment to collaborative school planning will depend largely on the priorities of the mayoral administration. New Orleans recently welcomed a new mayoral

administration with the inauguration of Mayor Mitch Landrieu on May 3, 2010. There is evidence that suggests Mayor Landrieu will support collaboration, and this commitment could affect the prospect of future school planning.

Although the mayor has neither responsibility for, nor authority over the city's public schools, Landrieu did name education as one of his top three priorities throughout his mayoral campaign. He pledged "to utilize the Office of the Mayor to ensure that every child has a right to a quality education and to address the inequities in the city's schools" (Transition New Orleans, 2010, para. 1). As Lieutenant Governor, Landrieu worked with the schools and with FEMA to negotiate a hurricane-related financial settlement, and although finances are not largely discussed in this research, collaborative financial planning for the schools is critical to implementing the facilities plan. To this end, Mayor Landrieu has made the commitment to "fight for investments from Washington and Baton Rouge, so that every child has the opportunity to learn in a world-class facility" (Transition New Orleans, 2010, para. 3).

Before taking office, Landrieu's Transition Team established an Education Task Force to make recommendations regarding how the mayor can help to improve New Orleans' public education. The Task Force represents a first step towards interagency collaboration, as noted by its diverse membership. Among the 28 members appointed to the committee are OPSB Board Member Brett Bonin, NOPS Superintendent Darryl Kilbert, RSD Superintendent Paul Vallas, State Superintendent Paul Pastorek and other representatives from charter and parochial schools, nonprofits, teaching programs, the teacher's union, and higher education (Carr, M., 2010).

In a report presented to Mayor Landrieu before his inauguration, the Task Force made short-term and long-term recommendations. Among the actions suggested for the administration's first 100 days are:

- Facilitate cooperation between groups such as the Recovery School District (RSD) and the Orleans Parish School Board (OPSB)
- Empower a specific member of the senior management team to handle all education related issues³⁴
- Ensure that public transit schedules meet the needs of students
- Identify untapped federal education funding available, and

³⁴ As of July 12, 2010, this responsibility has not yet been publicly assigned to any single person.

- Visit ten schools with health care providers and business leaders to promote potential partnerships (Transition New Orleans Task Force [TNOTF], 2010, p.6)

The report specifically notes that a point person for educational issues “will be a valuable addition to the Mayor’s senior staff and will ensure that issues concerning education are handled effectively” (TNOTF, 2010, p. 12). If the city and school *both* had designated conveners the potential for collaboration would be substantial.

The long-term recommendations within the report echo the collaborative theme for the first set of actions:

- Facilitate coordination of the 2030 Plan and School Facilities Master Plan
- Create and support neighborhood centers to work with schools and students, and
- Coordinate City-owned infrastructure support for schools and community organizations “at NORD facilities and other city-owned buildings.” (TNOTF, 2010, p. 15)

The Task Force explicitly addresses the fact that implementation of the school and city master plans need to be collaborative, “so both plans fill single locations with a wide range of resources and new priorities can be coordinated” (p. 14). Mayoral support of these goals and of collaborative school planning is important because it “can build a strong foundation for collective responsibility and enduring support for schools” (ARC, 2003, p. 21). With no ultimate authority over public schools, however, the mayor’s most effective action may simply be to fund staff and site visits to build the trust and relationships that form the essential foundation of CSP.

Chapter 7: Conclusion

Ultimately, planning does not end with the adoption of a plan. CSP has been thwarted in the past in New Orleans by a combination of factors—too much political conflict, too little formalized CSP, and two disparate planning processes. CSP has a future in New Orleans only if city and school entities fundamentally commit to collaborative planning and reinstate the Director of Planning to mediate between entities. A formalized process for handling surplus school sites, in particular, should be established to collaboratively plan for future use, preserve historic value, and enable land transactions.

The challenge of collaborative school planning is not in understanding *why* it makes sense, but *how* it transpires. The value of CSP is clear; the ambiguity exists in how to address the laws and legislation, the habits and conventions that dictate how cities have traditionally planned. In the short term in New Orleans this is addressed by the basic principles of CSP: improved communication, shared data, and common goals. Fundamentally, planning is partnerships; it is networking and negotiating to unite the silos of city and school planning.

Earthman (2000) writes: “collaboration in planning [...] is only as good as the planners who wish to collaborate because collaboration between the municipality and the school division is not mandated by state legal enactment or constitution requirements” (p. 8). But planners’ actions alone cannot sustain CSP; the system must work to their benefit. If city and schools leaders recognize the particular circumstance of New Orleans and dedicate themselves to the principles of CSP then a collaborative process could be formalized in short order. The city, schools, and public will reap the benefits of coordinated efforts if an appropriate model of CSP is institutionalized.

The most developed model of CSP that currently exists is the public school concurrency system that has been adopted in high-growth areas of Florida. This model, however, simply does not apply to a community such as New Orleans. This research highlights not a flawed model of CSP, but the need for a slow-growth model. Similarly, the recent school facilities planning process in New Orleans has highlighted not a flawed system of CSP, but the *absence* of a system. In that absence, little collaboration has taken place, leaving ample opportunity to improve the circumstances.

Locally, there are encouraging signs that attitudinal and policy changes will embrace collaborative planning. For instance, The Cowen Institute is hosting a statewide summit on school siting in July 2010. The summit will include educators, public health, and planning professionals, and the ultimate goal is to produce recommendations for state and local officials related to school facilities. Ideally, these recommendations will espouse the principles of CSP and still respect the particular growth scenarios of different parishes throughout Louisiana.

The window of opportunity for CSP has not closed with the completion of the city and school facilities master plans; rather the plans have identified new reasons to demand it. By virtue of its surplus school situation, New Orleans has a unique opportunity to develop a model of CSP for older, urban, and slow-growth communities. Future research should track the reuse of school facilities in the city and evolve the model of CSP accordingly.

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Appendices:

Appendix A: School-Centered Community Revitalization Error! Bookmark not defined.

Appendix B: Clarence Arthur Perry's "Neighborhood Unit" plan, 1929... Error! Bookmark not defined.

Appendix C: Challenges to Implementing Collaborative School Facility Planning Error! Bookmark not defined.

Appendix D: Model Interlocal Agreement Error! Bookmark not defined.

Appendix E: Model School Siting Policy in Future Land Use Element Error! Bookmark not defined.

Appendix F: Authority of Public School Operators Error! Bookmark not defined.

Appendix G: Visual Timeline of Post-Katrina Planning Processes Error! Bookmark not defined.

Appendix H: New Orleans School Facilities Fact Sheet..... Error! Bookmark not defined.

Appendix I: Institutional Review Board Exemption Letter..... Error! Bookmark not defined.

Appendix A: School-Centered Community Revitalization

The Table A-1 below includes recommendations from the University of California Berekely's Center for Cities & Schools regarding the implementation of school-centered community revitalization (SCCR) projects.

Table A-2 identifies recent and commonly referenced SCCR projects throughout the country and highlights the third-part project sponsors who coordinated reinvestment efforts.

Table A-1: Ten Recommendations Specific to School-Centered Community Revitalization

1. **Cultivate visionary leadership** at all levels across all agencies and identify a “champion” to harness ideas and mobilize resources.
2. **Create and formally adopt a shared vision** for the collective future of urban revitalization and education; also formalize a schedule for city-school meetings.
3. **Maximize all physical infrastructure** and resources and coordinate strategic capital investments.
4. **Create formal agreements** to ensure sustainable collaboration and accountability amongst political change and leadership turnover; use of a variety of formal, binding and non-binding agreements for cross agency collaboration including MOUs, joint use agreement, and joint powers authority.
5. **Establish a robust interagency communication** strategy that establishes interagency data sharing and shared decision-making.
6. **Provide comprehensive social service** support systems that are aligned to educational needs.
7. **Prepare all students for college and future careers** by partnering with local universities.
8. **Engage children and youth** authentically in the policymaking and planning for the revitalization of their neighborhoods and schools.
9. **Coordinate a consistent external communications** with the public.
10. **Incorporate ongoing research and assessment** to guarantee a constantly improving system; document process and outcomes.

(McKoy et al., 2009)

Table A-2: Third-Party Sponsors for School-Centered Community Revitalization Projects

Neighborhood	Project Sponsor	Role
East Lake in Atlanta, Georgia	East Lake Foundation	Spearheaded the development of a charter school
Sandtown-Winchester in Baltimore, Maryland	Enterprise Community Partners (foundation)	Sponsored school reform
Revere in Chicago, Illinois	Comer Science and Education Foundation	Invested in the school and neighborhood
Murphy Park in St. Louis, Missouri	McCormack Baron (developer)	Built a mixed income development and led the effort to reconstitute a failing public elementary school
University City in Philadelphia, Pennsylvania	University of Pennsylvania	Developed a neighborhood revitalization strategy including a new school, housing loans, anti-crime, and a business and economic development program
16 Chicago neighborhoods	MacArthur Foundation	Partnered with Local Initiatives Support Corporation/Chicago to support comprehensive community development
East Baltimore Revitalization Initiative	Annie E. Casey Foundation	Partnered with East Baltimore Development Inc., Johns Hopkins Institutions, the City of Baltimore, and the state of Maryland
Harlem in New York City, New York	Harlem Children's Zone (non-profit)	Spearheaded school improvement and the provision of social services to serve 10,000 youth in a 97-block area

Source: Khadduri et al., 2007; Khadduri et al., 2008a; Proscio, 2004

Appendix B: Clarence Arthur Perry's "Neighborhood Unit" plan, 1929

Urban planner Clarence Arthur Perry was particularly influential in both school and city planning in the early 1900s. He firmly believed in the community school model and in maximizing the public benefits of a local school. Figure B-1 below shows Perry's prototypical half-mile wide "Neighborhood Unit" plan. It included a central school and shops surrounded by a residential area bound by major streets.

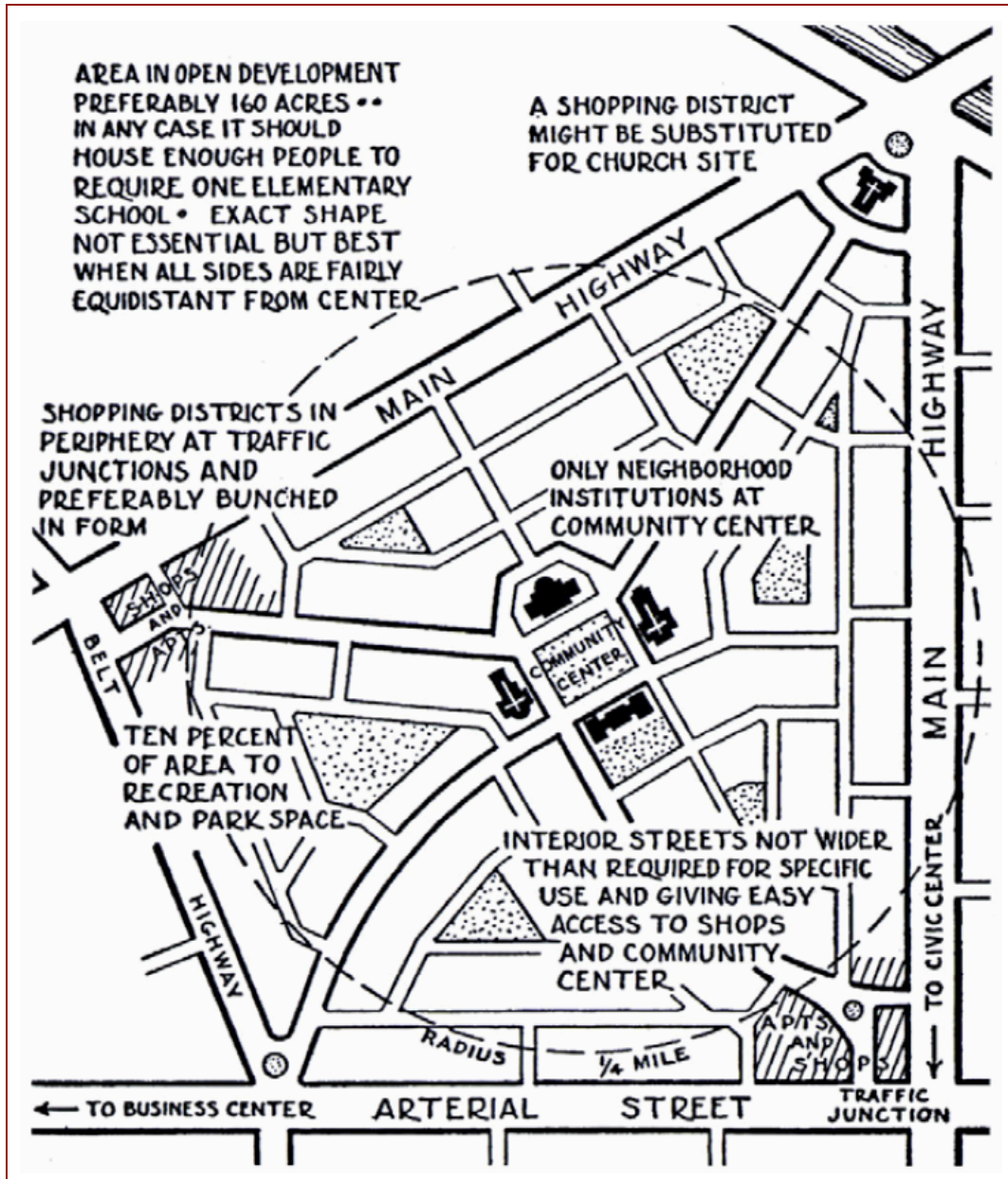


Figure B-1: Clarence Arthur Perry's "Neighborhood Unit" Plan, 1929
(TCRPC, 2006)

Appendix C: Challenges to Implementing Collaborative School Facility Planning

Even where collaborative school planning is desirable, real constraints exist. The challenges associated with CSP generally fall into three broad categories: institutional barriers to collaboration, technical and logistical difficulties, and social or political challenges. These challenges are summarized in Table C-1, below.

Table C-1: Challenges to Intergovernmental School Facility Planning, by Type

<i>Institutional</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Legislation and state constitutions establish school districts and local governments as unique and distinct authorities, independent of outside processes • Lack of a coordinating agency to facilitate cooperation between jurisdictions • Different organizational missions hinder the creation of a common purpose—school districts are typically very focused organizations compared to local governments
<i>Technical or Logistical</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Boundaries may not align for school districts and political boundaries • Different budget cycles between different governmental agencies hinder appropriations for joint projects • Differences in data—the type, source, availability, and willingness to share—can result in inconsistencies between school and community plans • The meaning of “planning” (e.g. the process, scope, outcomes, expectations, and stakeholders) is often quite different between jurisdictions • Limited staff capacity and time can impede an agency’s ability to meet or collaborate
<i>Social or Political</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of political will exists in many states and localities because few incentives encourage collaborative planning • Personal political agendas can compromise planning efforts • Historic distrust and fear of losing autonomy can cause conflict and prevent elected boards from cooperating • Resource competition exists for community resources, taxes, and funding allocation and fuels interagency tension • Political turnover can interrupt or undermine a collaborative effort when new elected officials have different priorities

Source: Donnelly, 2003; Earthman, 2000; ICMA, 2008; McKoy & Vincent, 2005; Salvesen, Sachs, & Engelbrecht, 2006; Vincent, 2006

Appendix D: Model Interlocal Agreement

An interlocal agreement (ILA) is a tool that can be used to formalize collaborative planning between the city and schools. The ILA establishes guidelines and expectations for collaboration. Below is an excerpt from the Seminole County, Florida ILA.

**2007 INTERLOCAL AGREEMENT FOR PUBLIC SCHOOL
FACILITY PLANNING AND SCHOOL CONCURRENCY
AS AMENDED JANUARY 2008
Seminole County, Florida**

THIS AGREEMENT is entered into with the Seminole County Board of County Commissioners (hereinafter referred to as the "County"), the Commission or Council of the Cities of Longwood, Altamonte Springs, Oviedo, Winter Springs, Lake Mary, Sanford, Casselberry (hereinafter referred to as the "Cities"), and the School Board of Seminole County (hereinafter referred to as the "School Board"), collectively referred to as the "Parties".

WHEREAS, the County, Cities and the School Board recognize their mutual obligation and responsibility for the education, nurturing and general well-being of the children within their community; and

WHEREAS, the County, Cities and the School Board are authorized to enter into this Agreement pursuant to Section 163.01, Section 163.3177(6)(h)2 and Section 1013.33, Florida Statutes (F.S.); and

WHEREAS, the County, Cities, and School Board recognize the following benefits to the citizens and students of their communities by more closely coordinating their comprehensive land use and school facilities planning programs: (1) better coordination of the timing and location of new schools with land development, (2) greater efficiency for the school board and local governments by siting schools to take advantage of existing and planned roads, water, sewer, and parks, (3) improved student access and safety by coordinating the construction of new and expanded schools with the road and sidewalk construction programs of the local governments, (4) better designed urban form by locating and designing schools to serve as community focal points, (5) greater efficiency and convenience by co-locating schools with parks, ball fields, libraries, and other community facilities to take advantage of joint use opportunities, and (6) reduction of the factors that contribute to urban sprawl and support of existing neighborhoods by appropriately locating new schools and expanding and renovating existing schools; and

WHEREAS, the County, Cities and School Board have determined that it is necessary and appropriate for the entities to cooperate with each other to provide adequate public school facilities in a timely manner and at appropriate locations, to eliminate any deficit of permanent student stations, and to provide capacity for projected new growth; and

WHEREAS, Section 1013.33, F.S., requires that the location of public educational facilities must be consistent with the Comprehensive Plan and implementing land development regulations of the appropriate local governing body; and

WHEREAS, Sections 163.3177(6)(h)1 and 2, F.S., require each local government to adopt an intergovernmental coordination element as part of their comprehensive plan that states principles and guidelines to be used in the accomplishment of coordination of the adopted comprehensive plan with the plans of the school boards, and describes the processes for collaborative planning and decision making on population projections and public school siting; and

WHEREAS, Sections 163.3177(7) and 1013.33, F.S., require the County, Cities and School Board to establish jointly the specific ways in which the plans and processes of the School Board and the local governments are to be coordinated; and

WHEREAS, Sections 163.3177(7), 163.3180(13), and 1013.33, F.S., require the County, Cities and School Board to update their Public School Interlocal Agreement to establish school concurrency to satisfy Section 163.3180(12)(g)1, F.S.; and

WHEREAS, the County and Cities are entering into this Agreement in reliance on the School Board's obligation to prepare, adopt and implement a financially feasible capital facilities program to achieve public schools operating at the adopted level of service consistent with the timing specified in the School Board's Capital Facilities Plan, and the School Board's further commitment to update the plan annually to add enough capacity to the Plan in each succeeding fifth year to address projected growth in order to maintain the adopted level of service and to demonstrate that the utilization of school capacity is maximized to the greatest extent possible pursuant to Section 163.3180(13)(c)2, F.S.; and

WHEREAS, the School Board, is entering into this Agreement in reliance on the County and Cities' obligation to adopt amendments to their local comprehensive plans to impose School Concurrency as provided in Section 163.3180(13), F.S.; and

NOW THEREFORE, be it mutually agreed among the School Board, the County and the Cities (hereinafter referred to collectively as the "Parties") that the following definitions and procedures will be followed in coordinating land use, public school facilities planning, and school concurrency.

*2007 INTERLOCAL AGREEMENT FOR PUBLIC SCHOOL
FACILITY PLANNING AND SCHOOL CONCURRENCY
AS AMENDED JANUARY 2008
Seminole County, Florida
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Appendix E: Model School Siting Policy in Future Land Use Element

The codification of school siting criteria in local land use provisions can ensure that school location and design is consistent with neighborhood character and community growth goals. Below is an excerpt from the Town of Davie, Florida related to the inclusion of school siting policies in the Future Land Use Element in the town's comprehensive plan.

TOWN OF DAVIE PLANNING AND ZONING DIVISION PLANNING REPORT

May 28, 1999

SUBJECT: Application LA(TXT)99-3A, Amendment to Future Land Use Element (FLUE) Text of the Comprehensive Plan

APPLICANT: Town of Davie

REQUEST: To add school siting policies to the FLUE text as required by Florida Law.

EXHIBITS TO BE INCLUDED: Planning report, ordinance.

ANALYSIS: Last year, the Florida Legislature amended section 163.3177(6)(a), Florida Statutes, to require that local governments include school location criteria in their comprehensive plans. The criteria must encourage the location of schools near urban areas as well as their collocation with parks, libraries and community centers to the extent possible. Local governments are required to revise their land use elements to include these criteria by October 1, 1999. The amendment is not subject to the twice-per-year limitation on adopting plan amendments.

The proposed amendment to the FLUE text is Exhibit "A" to the attached ordinance. Staff coordinated with Broward County School Board and Planning staffs before preparing this amendment. If Council approves the amendment on its merits on June 2, 1999, First Reading of an ordinance to adopt the amendment will occur on June 16, 1999. Second Reading of the ordinance is anticipated to occur on September 15, 1999, subsequent to review by the Florida Department of Community Affairs.

RECOMMENDATION: Planning and Zoning staff recommends **APPROVAL** of the proposed amendment with findings that it is consistent with Section 163.3177(6)(a), Florida Statutes, the State Comprehensive Plan, the Strategic Regional Policy Plan for South Florida, the Broward County Land Use Plan, and is internally consistent with the Town of Davie Comprehensive Plan.

LOCAL PLANNING AGENCY RECOMMENDATION: Motion to recommend **APPROVAL** (3-1, Mr. Kuven absent), May 26, 1999.

ORDINANCE _____

AN ORDINANCE OF THE TOWN OF DAVIE, FLORIDA, ADOPTING APPLICATION LA(TXT)99-3A AMENDING THE TOWN OF DAVIE COMPREHENSIVE PLAN BY CHANGING THE FUTURE LAND USE ELEMENT TEXT TO CLEARLY IDENTIFY FUTURE LAND USE DESIGNATIONS WHICH PERMIT PUBLIC SCHOOLS, AND TO ESTABLISH CRITERIA FOR COLLOCATION OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS WITH OTHER COMMUNITY FACILITIES SUCH AS PARKS, LIBRARIES AND COMMUNITY CENTERS; PROVIDING FOR SEVERABILITY; AND PROVIDING FOR AN EFFECTIVE DATE.

WHEREAS, section 163.3177(6)(a), Florida Statutes requires that local governments incorporate school location criteria in their comprehensive plans that encourage collocation of public schools with parks, libraries, community centers and other complimentary community facilities; and

WHEREAS, the Town Council of the Town of Davie desires to amend the Comprehensive Plan to comply with section 163.3177(6)(a), Florida Statutes; and

WHEREAS, the Local Planning Agency of the Town of Davie held a public hearing on May 26, 1999, noticed in accordance with section 12-303 of the Code of Ordinances of the Town of Davie, and section 163.3184(15), Florida Statutes; and

WHEREAS, the Town Council of the Town of Davie held public hearings on June 2, 1999, and on the date of adoption of this Ordinance, noticed in accordance with section 12-303 of the Code of Ordinances of the Town of Davie, and section 163.3184(15), Florida Statutes.

NOW, THEREFORE, BE IT ORDAINED BY THE TOWN COUNCIL OF THE TOWN OF DAVIE FLORIDA:

SECTION 1. That the Future Land Use Element text of the Comprehensive Plan heretofore adopted by the Town Council be and the same is hereby amended according to Exhibit "A," attached hereto and made a part hereof.

SECTION 2. All Ordinances or parts of Ordinances in conflict herewith are to the extent of such conflict hereby repealed.

SECTION 3. If any section, subsection, sentence, clause, phrase, or portion of this Ordinance is, for any reason, held invalid or unconstitutional by any Court of competent jurisdiction, such portion shall be deemed a separate, distinct, and independent provision and such holding shall not affect the validity of the remaining portion of this Ordinance.

SECTION 4. The effective date of this plan amendment shall be the date a final order is issued by the Department of Community Affairs or Administration Commission finding the amendment in compliance in accordance with section 163.3184, F.S.

PASSED ON FIRST READING THIS _____ DAY OF _____, 1999

PASSED ON SECOND READING THIS _____ DAY OF _____, 1999

MAYOR/COUNCILMEMBER

ATTEST:

TOWN CLERK

APPROVED THIS _____ DAY OF _____, 1999

EXHIBIT "A" (1 of 2)

Additions are shown with an underline while deletions are ~~struck through~~.

POLICY GROUP 27: SCHOOL SITING:

- Policy 27-1: The Town shall continue to permit public schools, which are classified by this Plan as a type of community facility, in the following land use categories:
 - a. Residential
 - b. Rural Ranches
 - c. Residential/Office
 - d. Commercial
 - e. Commerce/Office
 - f. Employment Center
 - g. Industrial
 - h. Regional Activity Center
 - i. Community Facilities
- Policy 27-2: The Town will utilize the following Broward County School Board land area guidelines for individual school facilities:
 - a. elementary school: 12 acres
 - b. middle school: 20 acres
 - c. high school: 45 acres
- Policy 27-3: Collocation of public schools with other community facilities shall be considered when:
 - a. New or replacement schools are funded in the School Board's Capital Budget and are adjacent to other existing public facilities;
 - b. New facilities are funded in the Town's Capital Improvement Element and can be located adjacent to public schools; and/or
 - c. Joint use projects are created and implemented.
- Policy 27-4: The Town will encourage the collocation of public facilities such as libraries, parks and community centers with public schools to the extent practical and financially feasible. The following criteria shall be considered for collocating public schools and public facilities:
 - a. Availability of vacant land of suitable size and dimensions for the collocated public uses;
 - b. Compatibility of the collocated public uses with the adjacent land uses (ex: noise, odors, glare, debris, dust, traffic, high voltage transmission lines etc.) and the compatibility of the collocated public uses' future land use designation(s) with the future land use designations of adjacent areas;
 - c. Availability of infrastructure, public services (ie: roadways, public

EXHIBIT "A" (2 of 2)

transit, potable water, sanitary sewer, drainage, and aquifer recharge) and utilities (electricity, gas, etc.);

- d. Environmental limitations (ex: wetlands, uplands, soil conditions, contaminated sites, potential brownfield sites, etc.);
- e. Access approaches, including roadways, public transit, bikeways, recreational trails and pedestrianways;
- f. Proximity to residential areas, particularly urban residential areas, and areas of very low, low and moderate income housing; and
- g. Demographic base for purposes of encouraging diversity.

- Policy 27-5: The Town shall incorporate provisions in the Land Development Code requiring new nonresidential development, located adjacent to an existing or planned public school site, to incorporate features such as walls, solid hedges or increased setbacks where such use would be incompatible with the public school.
- Policy 27-6: The Town shall incorporate provisions in the Land Development Code which provide for safe pedestrian and bicycle access to schools.

Future Land Use Plan: Plan Implementation

Permitted Uses and Densities in Future Land Use Plan Categories

COMMUNITY FACILITIES LAND USE CATEGORY

The Community Facilities category provides for a variety of educational, religious, governmental, civic and cultural, and medical uses necessary to adequately serve the community and subregion.

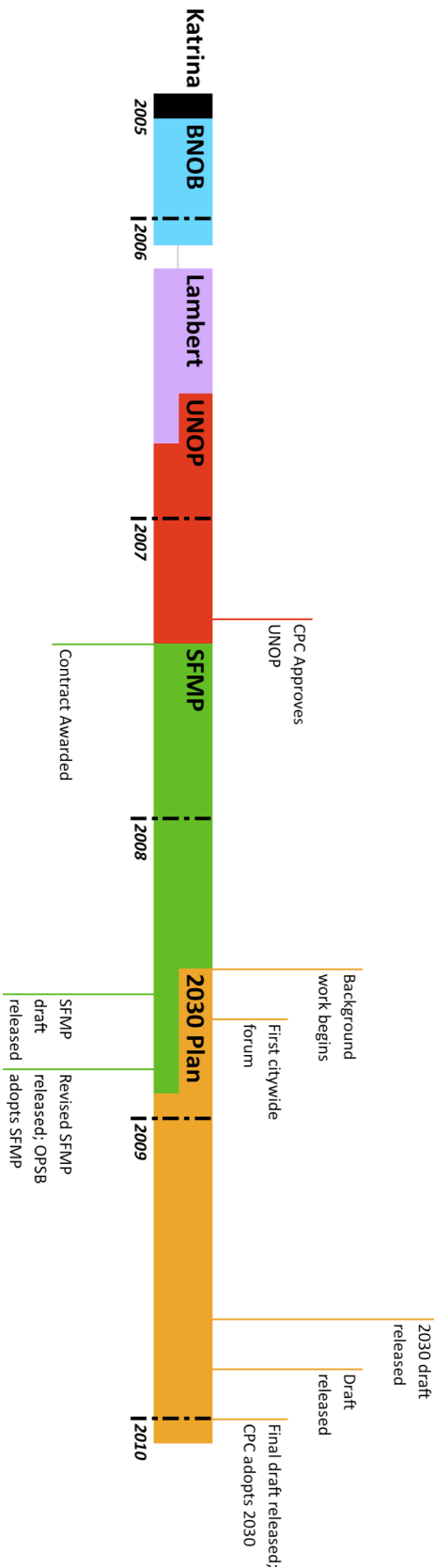
Additionally, Community Facilities uses may be permitted in areas designated for the following categories: Residential, Rural Ranches, Residential/Office, Commercial, Office Park, Agricultural, Commerce/Office, Industrial, Regional Activity Center, and Employment Center.

Appendix F: Authority of Public School Operators

New Orleans' public schools are currently operated by two districts and dozens of charter school operators. The decentralization of the education system has contributed to a lack of clarity regarding the roles and responsibilities of each operator. Table F-1 below summarizes some of the responsibilities of these different school operators.

Table F-1: Authority of Public School Operators in Orleans Parish	
<i>Orleans Parish School Board (OPSB)</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Only local entity with authority to levy and collect property and sales taxes for public schools • Required to distribute tax revenue to RSD and OPSB charter schools; distributes federal revenue to OPSB charter schools • Responsible for all debt management, including that incurred by the schools now operated by the RSD • Responsible for major repairs and renovations for its public school facilities • Approves charter schools; monitors school performance to renew or end charter
<i>Recovery School District (RSD)</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Same general authority as a local school system • No authority to levy taxes • May not incur debt and may not separate operating and capital funds in the overall budget • Authorized to open new schools to accommodate the student population • Responsible for major repairs and renovations for its public school facilities • Manages vacant school facilities • Approves charter schools; monitors school performance to renew or end charter • Required to operate failing schools for a minimum of 5 years
<i>Charter School Operators</i>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Granted approval and overseen by either OPSB or RSD; required to meet key performance criteria as established by the authorizing district or risk having charter and funding revoked • Depending on charter type, may set admissions requirements and be operated by non-profit or for-profit entities • No authority to levy taxes; financially tied to the authorizing district (OPSB or RSD) • May independently hire principals, teachers, and staff and manage school budget • Responsible for sanitation, food, transportation, and preventative facility maintenance, but not responsible for major facility repairs and renovations
Source: Cowen, 2009a, 2009c, 2009d, 2009e, 2010b; Cowen & BGR, 2010	

Appendix G: Visual Timeline of Post-Katrina Planning Processes



Appendix H: New Orleans School Facilities Fact Sheet

Since the 1970s, enrollments in New Orleans' public schools have decreased, but school facilities have not been closed accordingly. Figure G-1 below indicates the increasing gap between student enrollment and the capacity of public school facilities.

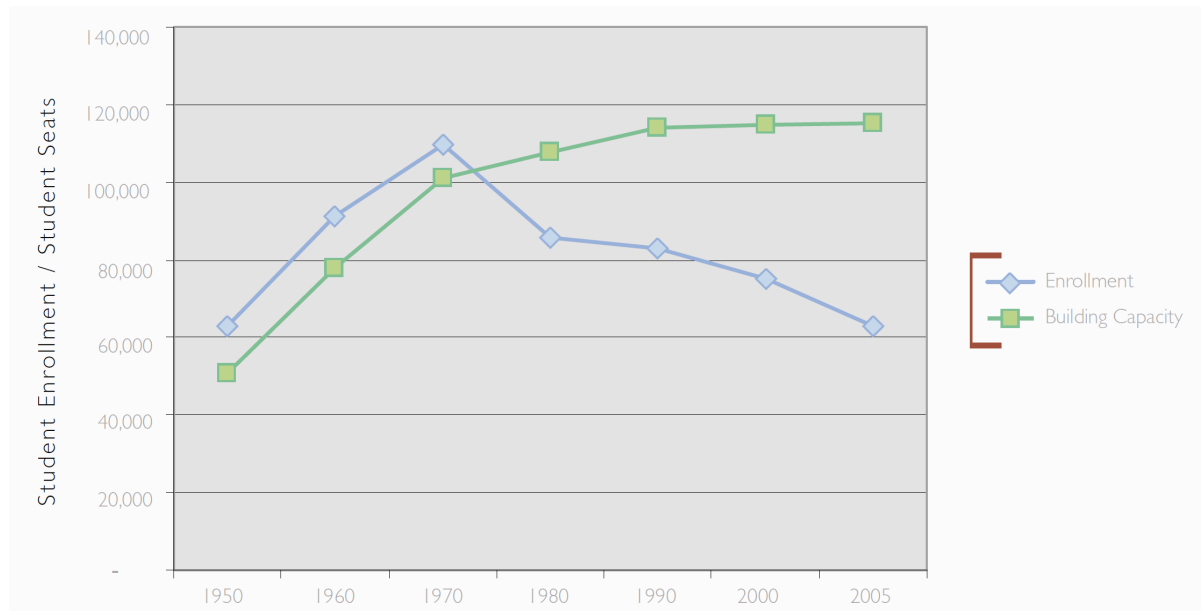


Figure G-1: Enrollment vs. Historical Student Seat Capacity (SFMPOP, *Blueprint*, 2008)

In addition to a surplus of facilities, the age of public school buildings is a concern in the city. There are 330 permanent public school buildings in New Orleans, and 75% were constructed prior to 1970 and are now over 40 years old (SFMPOP, *Blueprint*, 2008). Many facilities are significantly older.

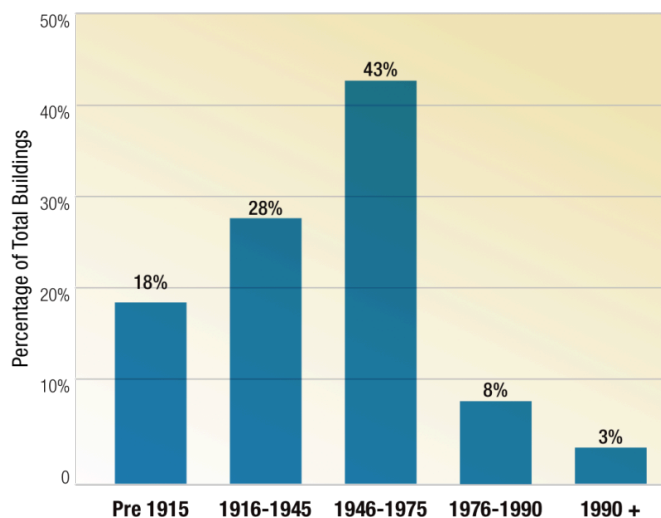


Figure G-2: New Orleans Public School Facilities by Year of Construction (Cowen, 2009c)

Construction quality—more so than age—is indicative of a structure’s condition. E.A. Christy was the architect for New Orleans schools between 1904 and 1940. Christy’s buildings are defined by high quality and durable construction techniques compared to the facilities built before and after him. For this reason, the age of New Orleans’ public schools are often organized in relation to Christy’s era as in Table G-1.

Table G-1: New Orleans Public School Facilities By Era of Construction				
<i>School Type</i>	<i>Number of Buildings</i>			
	<i>Total</i>	<i>Pre-Christy 1830-1904</i>	<i>Christy 1905-1949</i>	<i>Post-Christy 1905-Present</i>
<i>Elementary School</i>	214	8	43	163
<i>Middle/Jr High School</i>	40	2	11	27
<i>High School</i>	76	2	11	63
<i>Total</i>	330	12	65	253
Source: SFMPOP, <i>Blueprint</i> , 2008				

The school facilities planning process involved a thorough assessment of the physical condition of all permanent school facilities in New Orleans. A Facilities Condition Index (FCI) is a “ratio of the cost of deferred maintenance deficiencies divided by the calculated replacement value of the facility” (SFMPOP, *Blueprint*, 2008, p. 31). Based on the FCI every facility was assigned to a condition category as summarized in Table G-2.

Table G-2: New Orleans Public School Facilities by Condition Category				
	<i>Buildings</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Square Feet</i>	<i>%</i>
<i>Very Good</i>	20	6 %	451,886	5 %
<i>Good</i>	11	3 %	396,099	5 %
<i>Fair</i>	45	14 %	1,861,903	22 %
<i>Poor</i>	88	27 %	2,518,814	29 %
<i>Very Poor</i>	166	50 %	3,426,011	40 %
<i>Totals</i>	330		8,654,713	
Source: SFMPOP, <i>Blueprint</i> , 2008				

Appendix I: Institutional Review Board Exemption Letter

University Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research University of New Orleans

Campus Correspondence

Principal Investigator: Renia Ehrenfeucht
Co-Investigator: Lauren Mikulak
Date: February 10, 2010
Protocol Title: "Collaborative Public School Planning in New Orleans"
IRB#: 02Mar10

The IRB has deemed that the research and procedures described in this protocol application are exempt from federal regulations under 45 CFR 46.101 category 2, due to the fact that any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research would not reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation

Exempt protocols do not have an expiration date; however, if there are any changes made to this protocol that may cause it to be no longer exempt from CFR 46, the IRB requires another standard application from the investigator(s) which should provide the same information that is in this application with changes that may have changed the exempt status.

If an adverse, unforeseen event occurs (e.g., physical, social, or emotional harm), you are required to inform the IRB as soon as possible after the event.

Best wishes on your project.
Sincerely,

Robert D. Laird, Ph.D., Chair
UNO Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects in Research

Appendix J: Interview Question Guide

To better understand the level of collaboration that exists in the planning process between local and school planners, it is necessary to conduct interviews with those individuals who have been involved in the creation of the *School Facilities Master Plan of Orleans Parish* and the *Orleans 2030 Plan*. Table 1 below identifies the perspective sought and those individuals who may be able to offer insight. Tables 2a-e have general interview questions and the individuals to whom the questions would be directed.

Table 1.

Perspective	Abbreviation
School Facilities Planner	SFP
LA Dept of Education—Facilities	DOE
School Board—NOPS/RSD	SB
Local Planner/Consultant	Con
City Planner	CP
Land Use Law	Law
City Council—Education Committee	CC

Table 2a.

General	SFP	DOE	SB	Con	CP	Law	CC
Were you involved in previous school facilities master planning processes for New Orleans, before this most recent one?	x	x	x				
What has been your role in the current planning process for the school facilities master plan?	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Have you been involved in city's master planning process/ what has been your role in the city's master planning process? [or] Have you worked with the [other planning process] during the course of planning?	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
What are opportunities for school siting decisions that could be made in cooperation with local land use planners? What are challenges with this?	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

Table 2b.

Relationship among agencies	SFP	DOE	SB	Con	CP	Law	CC
<i>After the storm, BNOB had a commission on education, but it has been observed (by Annenberg) that there is a limited direct interaction between the school system and city government.</i>							
How would you characterize the relationship between the school system (school board, NOPS, RSD) and city government (mayor, city council, various city departments)?	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
How has these relationships changed since Katrina? What are challenges with them? What have been productive relationships?							
Were there incentives to meet periodically—either on a regular basis or as related to the planning processes?	x		x		x		x
How does state-level governance (RSD) affect local collaboration?	x	x	x	x			

How does having multiple school operators in the form of charter schools affect collaboration?	x	x	x	x			
Is there a relationship between the school district and city as far as landbanked schools? Does the city have the priority on purchasing the site?	x	x	x	x			x

Table 2c.

School planning process, in general	SFP	DOE	SB	Con	CP	Law	CC
Could you explain the school facility planning process in New Orleans/Louisiana?	x	x	x	x			
Does the state DOE have a guide to facility planning?	x	x	x	x			
What are the criteria for school site selection? Who decides these criteria?	x	x	x	x			
What factors are evaluated when considering school location decisions? Growth patterns? Transportation facilities? Existing neighborhood development? Utility accessibility? Price of land? Parcel size? Accessibility to other community facilities? Others?	x	x	x	x			
Is there any incentive—financial or otherwise—to locate schools on sites that help to implement the city’s land use plan?	x	x	x	x			
<i>Some state policies provide a higher funding match for new construction, therefore school districts have a better return on investment for building new schools rather than renovating existing schools.</i> Are there any state or local policies that impact school facility planning and location selection? If so, how do these policies affect the planning process? Do policies favor new construction or renovating existing facilities?	x	x	x	x			
How have FEMA policies affected school location decisions, if at all?	x	x	x	x			
Ultimately, who is the primary decision-maker in the location of school sites?	x	x	x	x			

Table 2d.

Relationship in the process	SFP	DOE	SB	Con	CP	Law	CC
<i>The school planning and city planning process have overlapped chronologically.</i> How would you describe the relationship between these two processes? The relationship between school and local planners?	x			x	x		
To what extent were city planners involved in the school planning process? Can you describe their role?	x			x	x		
To what extent were school planners involved in the city planning process? Can you describe their role?	x			x	x		
Do you think that [other planner/agency] understands the process of school facilities planning and how it relates to city planning?	x	x	x	x			
Do you think that [other planner/agency] understands the process of city planning and how it relates to school facilities planning?				x	x		x
To what extent was there collaboration in setting school location <i>goals</i> ? Who was involved in the process of setting school location goals?	x			x	x		

What are the requirements of school districts and the DOE in terms of coordinating with local and state agencies? Does the DOE encourage school districts to coordinate with county government with regard to planning for growth and approving development plans? Has there been consideration to make that cooperation a regulatory mandate?	x	x	x	x			x
In making the school facilities master plan, did you feel dependent on components of the city master plan? If so how? Upon which parts?	x		x	x			
In making the city's comprehensive plan, do you feel dependent on the components of the school facilities plan? If so, how?					x		
Is transportation planning done with consideration of where schools are located to best service students?				x	x		
When evaluating a school location decision, how are the transportation impacts taken into consideration?	x			x	x		
How, if at all, is data shared between the school district and the city for the purpose of planning? (population estimates, projects, student generation rates)	x	x		x	x		
Is the education-related content of the two plans was complementary? What ensured this happen/what prevented this from happening?	x			x	x		x
Has the context of disaster recovery planning impacted the collaboration between school and local planners? In what ways?	x	x	x	x	x	x	X
Can you compare the collaborative relationship that exists in New Orleans school planning to that in other cities in which you have worked?				x			

Table 2e.

Future	SFP	DOE	SB	Con	CP	Law	CC
<i>Collocation of services (libraries, recreation facilities, neighborhood health clinics, schools) has been recommended by many people and in many plans; it was recommended in the BNOB commission report, the facilities plan, the master plan, citizens and stakeholders.</i> What type of collaboration is required to make this a reality? Do you know of any precedent for tools like joint-use agreements in the city?	x	x	x	x	x	x	x
Where do we go from here? Do you foresee the opportunity or need to collaboratively plan the schools and city?	x	x	x	x	x		x
<i>Summary of other state planning legislation here.</i> Is more collaborative planning desirable? If so, what would make it happen? If not, why not?						x	
[Depending on previous answers] Are there any policies or initiatives that you might recommend to better coordinate school planning with the land use planning process?	x	x	x	x	x	x	x

Vita

Lauren Elizabeth Mikulak was born in Michigan and received her B.A. from the University of Notre Dame. After graduation, she constructed houses with Habitat for Humanity where she witnessed firsthand the significant impact of the built environment on people's lives.

Lauren is a designer and a doer; a planner and a promoter; an artist and an advocate. This thesis represents a culmination of her passions for architecture, education, planning, and equity.

Lauren is married and currently lives in Colorado, where she hopes to someday unite the city and school planning silos.