CHAPTER 2
EVOLUTION OF TOWN PLANNING PRACTICES AND MASTER PLANS IN THE WORLD

2.1. Introduction

2.1.1. The year 2010 is said to mark a defining moment in urban history as this is the ‘urban century’, where more people are living in urban areas than ever before and the existing urban centres are ‘expanding and exploding geographically, economically and demographically rather than new planned ones emerging from scratch’ (CII, booz and Co. and CISCO 2010). During this century megacities are expected to grow and massive conurbations of more than 20 million people known as ‘metacities’ are said to emerge (United Nations Human Settlements Programme 2004). The city of today is observed as ‘a strategic site for new types of operations’ and is foremost in the emerging new geographies (Sassen 2006). Further, urbanization is termed as a ‘defining phenomena’ of this century and the ‘developing world as the focus of this transformation’ (The World Bank 2010) with the ‘sustainable city concept as the new paradigm’ (Whitehead 2003).

2.2. Evolution of Town Planning Practices and Master Plans

2.2.1. It was due to the aftermath of the Industrial Revolution that the European countries, particularly the United Kingdom and France, developed the modern city planning concepts. These percolated to other parts of the world. Present day manifestations of this kind of planning are observable in planning practices around the world. It is in the developed world, the evolution of modern planning practices is observed. These spread to the developing nations, including India, as well and are still widely practiced.

2.2.2. North America: Currently, 81percent of North America is living in urban areas (United Nations Human Settlements Programme 2004). For USA, city planning is considered to have no official date of beginning (Hall 1989). According to Hall, to this, if a date is given, then it would be 1909: the year of the First National Conference on City Planning and Congestion and the publication of Burnham’s Chicago Plan.
2.2.3. American cities are considered to be an outcome of ‘careful planning heavily influenced’ by European planning practices especially after the Second World War dominated by architects. With the coming up of the National Planning Board and its subsequent dissolution, development of the Chicago School of urban sociology, the concern shifted to analytical geography (Alonso 1966). Particularly after the New Deal, planners were hired to produce a master plan. Master Plans consisted of proposals for parkways, water front improvement, city hall and other items, and always a zoning ordinance.

2.2.4. Urban reformers, however, doubted the execution due to political intervention. American city planning is supposed to have developed in stages (Hall1989) as-


2.2.5. A strong desire is also observed in the American cities sub urban and quasi rural living (Goldberg and Mercer 1986). In USA, master planning has sprouted from the ‘General Plan’ concept. It was formulated by Fredric Law Omsted and Alfred Bellman during 1910 to 1930. Mayors, Councilmen and Civic leaders throughout USA became conscious that municipal governments alone were responsible for guiding the overall physical development of cities. This was followed by the urban planning legislation which started with the enactment of 1915 City Planning Act and in 1917 the Zoning Enabling Act (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997).

2.2.6. The ‘General Plan’ concept embodied in 1928 ‘Standard City Planning Enabling Act’ widely adopted by cities throughout USA. In order to comply with the constitutional requirements of uniform county government, creation of a Planning
Commission was mandatory. The zoning regulations date back to 1892 (Cullingworth and Caves 2009). In 1942, the US Department of Commerce developed a Model State Zoning Enabling Act as a guide for state legislation. The Amendment of Planning Enabling Legislation in USA in 1941, 45, 51 and 53 made major changes in the definition of General Plan and three basic elements were made mandatory- landuse, circulation and population density and standard. It also required the plans to be long term, general and comprehensive. The General Plan is a useful policy document along with zoning (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997).

2.2.7. Canada is viewed as the world leader in metropolitan planning and governance and has the distinction of having the first metropolitan planning agency in North America (Hodge and Robinson 2001). Currently planning in Canada is a local matter and there is a ‘heightened awareness’ about the need of change from traditional zoning and standard subdivision controls to transfer of rights, although ‘there was seldom any one kind of a master plan as population growth was slow and pressures were minimum’ (Cullingworth 1987). Besides, community and economic development are parts of current North American planning (Cullingworth and Caves 2009).

2.2.8. Western Europe: This region was the first one to observe amplified urban issues and has also been the seedbed for ideas about how to plan and manage cities making it the birthplace of modern town planning and urban design (Walton and Ford 2003). The concepts of modern day planning, especially, master planning, evolved in Western Europe and can be observed to have been practiced throughout Europe. The Classic European city is exemplified in the empires of Europe. The revival of this planning glory was only after the end of the medieval dark ages and the coming of the Renaissance period (Gallion and Eisner 1984). Baroque Planning, City Beautiful, Model Towns were some of the main developments of the period. Plazas, boulevards, city centres were the dominant city structures.

2.2.9. Here, plans were of colossal scale. Industrial Revolution is cited as the event which triggered off massive urbanisation in Western Europe. The poor living conditions and squalor of urban areas led to major health problems and by the
middle of the 18th century many epidemics were spreading in Europe. Class distinctions in the city augmented the problems. Recognizing this, some ‘model’ communities were taken by industrial owners and the concept of ‘Model Towns’ was developed. The disintegrating effect generated by urbanization and the complication in activities caused by urbanisation, aroused consciousness (Gallion and Eisner 1984).

2.2.10. In this regard, the work of Patrick Geddes is a dominant one who gave a voice to town planning and his ideas form the basis of regional planning. In the second half of the 20th century, the effects of the Second World War were extremely significant as in many European nations there was a vast scale destruction of urban areas. Also, socialism has been a major political force in the second half of the 20th century. Community involvement, growth management and sustainable development are being emphasised upon as a whole in Western Europe (Pacione 2009).

2.2.11. Thus, the emphasis shifted to reconstruction and rebuilding of the housing stock. The coming up of the European Community (EC) on January, 1, 2002 made the subcontinent a ‘single nation’ economically and it gives a considerable policy guidance on regional planning. Twenty four Directorates General produce policy guidelines, directives and regulations which must be taken on board by all members of the European Union (Greed 2000).

2.2.12. Planning as a profession in Britain particularly from the outset had a ‘very heavy design bias’ (Hall 2002). In the pre War period the emphasis was on the development of garden cities and the contributions of Abercombie, Ebenzer Howards, and Sir Patrick Geddes’ ideas and their plans for European cities were the hallmarks (Meller 1990). The new towns constructed after the Second World War were constructed on the lines of Master Plan. Currently, all European countries have a special ministry for spatial planning and in some countries efforts have been made to have improved coordination at national level (Larsson 2006).

2.2.13. In this kind of planning, polycentric approach is gaining importance. Policies have been demarcated at the national level itself in the form of guidelines (Larsson 2006). The observations with regards to local level planning highlight
coordination and in all West European countries, local authorities have the main responsibility for physical planning (Larsson 2006). They also have the power to draw plans which can be amended by the higher authorities (Larsson 2006).

2.2.14. In UK, the 1932 Town and Country Planning Act is said to have carried forward the ideas of master planning and development controls (United Nations Human Settlements Programme 2004) and the 1947 Town and Country Planning Act formally introduced development plans and development controls (Jones 2002). Reports such as the Barlow Report, Scott Report, Uthwatt Report guided planning. But the plans drawn were criticized for being too rigid and too simple and by 1950s, plans became guides for development control and thus, the 1960’s were dominated by the idea that the ‘plans should be more strategic’ (Greed 2000). The 1970’s witnessed a radically new planning system based on the two concepts of structure and local plans.

2.2.15. The European Union has ‘considerable influence on every aspect’ of British town and country planning policy (Greed 2000). Planning in France is dominated by regional planning. Here, ‘inter-communal working’ exists and founded on the commune’s power and the collective territoriales are strongly represented in the legislature directly and indirectly with an emphasis on localism (Breuillard et al. 2007). However, containment of the growth of capital cities; London and Paris respectively was the main aim of planning in these nations.

2.2.16. In France, in the pre-war period, Haussmann’s planning works were admired. The 1909 and 1919 Acts aimed at post war reconstruction and the first Town and Country Planning Act was that of 1932 (Gilg 2005). The single most important French planning law for the post war period was the loi d’urbanisme of 1943 through which the balance of planning powers was shifted from the regions and communes to the Central Government (Miller 2003). Zones have been set up for ‘priority urbanisation’ Regional plans are also observed such as for Paris (Hewitt 2003). In pre war period planning authority was shifted from local to central authorities (Miller 2003). Regional planning is observed.
2.2.17. This provided stronger acquisition powers and accelerated post war reconstruction (Hewitt 2003). This was followed by a modernizing law of 1955 which made housing more accessible with the speeding up of urbanization following De Gaulle’s modernization programme, legislations were passed for controlling land values (Hewitt 2003). Public co-operative housing was designated on the suburban periphery.

2.2.18. The ZUPs (zones set aside for priority urbanization) had land values frozen as soon as they were designated as areas of cities for redevelopment (ZAP) benefited from this (Hewitt 2003). The Paris Regional Plan was approved in 1958 and the ‘PADOG’ (Plan d’ Organisation General) planning approach provided the regional framework. This, however, congested Paris (Hewitt 2003). The 1962 Malraux Act provided for the creation of conservation zones within cities (Gordon 2006). The main aim of planning was to contain cities (Breuillard et al. 2007). Currently plans are put forth as ‘genuinely strategic’ in content (Booth et al. 2007).

2.2.19. Planning in Germany is considered to date back to the last decades of the 19th century with the first published book on planning in 1879 (Levy 2000). After the Second World War, the constitution divided power between three levels with the planning system characterized by a ‘strong legal framework and a decentralized decision making structure’ (Newman and Thornley 1996). The concept of zoning is said to have its origins in Germany (United Nations Human Settlements Programme 2004). Germany has had a history of modern town planning dated to 1868, when the first ‘Building Lines Act’ was enforced. The regulations enabled local authority to guide aspects of physical development. A General Land Use Plan similar to a Master Plan is drawn and restrictions are put forward by zoning.

2.2.20. Local Statutory Plans also exist (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997). The general aim of planning in Germany is highlighted to achieve living conditions of ‘equal value’ all over the country. The approach is popularly known as Stadttebau which is synonymous to planning (Stiftel et al. 2007). The local governments have more control over planning in Scandinavia.

2.2.21. All Nordic countries have a socially oriented housing policy and use a wide range of measures to achieve goals in social housing (Turner 1990). The Dutch follow
an integrated environmental zoning policy (Miller and de Roo 2005). The limited space of the country is manifested in Dutch planning as no land is wasted. In Netherlands, planning is based on the Physical Planning Act with a three tier system of planning prevailing after the Wars. One of the main characteristics of the Act was the development of Local Development Plan which were statutory for towns and villages (Miller and de Roo 2005).

2.2.22. For built up areas, local authorities are empowered to draw up the Development Plan which is open for public inspection. Another type of Local Plan under the act is the Structure Plan which focuses on the ‘Programme’ and does not need the approval of higher authorities. At the provincial level, regional plans exist. The enforcement of planning is restricted to the local level and at the national level, a number of ministries operate autonomously and are responsible for development. The provision of a National Planning Commission is also advocated (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997).

2.2.23. In Switzerland, there existed ‘no planning legislation’ before 1970 and all powers related to planning were vested in the cantons which delegated powers for plan preparation to communities. Several regional plans comprising of general outline and zoning and equity in respect to planning legislation has been achieved for restricting zoning, transport, utility services and implementation inspite of separate legislations (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997). Upto the middle of 1990’s, Switzerland has not developed any specific approaches for urban and metropolitan areas as the cantons are vested with the responsibility of land use planning but since the late 1990’s spatial planning is dominating (OECD 2002).

2.2.24. In Spain, land use legislations are the responsibility of the Spanish regional governments and urban planning is developed at the local level by town councils. The General Urban Distribution Plan is the main tool of urban planning (Gaiddon et al. 2009). Urban planning in Italy is advocated to be less advanced and politically inclined with Rome observing no renewal of planning culture (Archibugi 2005).

2.2.25. The Italian planning system is defined by the National Urban Act No.1150 of 1942 which is still in existence (Gazzola and Caramaschi 2005). Different tiers of
decision making and agencies with defined responsibilities exist here (Gazzola and Caramaschi 2005). Master planning has been observed to have developed in a modern way after the Second World War. The latest master plan for Rome is of 2000 which is an outcome of a ‘vast amount of complex work aiming at decentralisation, balance and optimal relation between elements’ (Archibugi 2005).

2.2.26. In Denmark, local planning is based on the Town Planning Act of 1938 under which communes are ‘obliged’ to prepare town plans for all urban settlements with a population of more than 10,000. The municipalities play a central role in urban planning and the plan comprises the link between national and regional planning with emphasis on the spatial aspect (Vitorovic 2009). Regional Plans exist at various levels (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997 and Larsson 2006). National government has significant control but provisions for participatory planning exist. There is no additional system of planning permission if a development is in accordance (Newman and Thornley 1996).

2.2.27. Communes have prepared ‘Disposition Plans’ which are the Master Plans but these are not backed by law and are not binding on land owners. The Building Act of 1960 introduced a third type of planning whereby communes with urban population of more than 1000 population could finalise details in built up areas through building bye laws approved by the Ministry of Housing. These plans are primarily restrictive as they delimit zones for use. The Master Plans are combined with long term communal economic and investment plans and by a legislation of 1970, the total city was to be divided into urban and rural zones.

2.2.28. Growth of urban areas has resulted in extension of existing towns (Larsson 2006). A national zoning system exists which divides the country into three zones designated for urban areas, recreational and rural areas. Plans are the basis of planning for these except for the rural ones where permission is required (Larsson 2006). In Copenhagen, planned growth first took place after the Second World War and the so-called ‘Finger Plan’ which was published in 1947 with the basic idea concentrated on the growth in neighbourhoods; however, ‘regional focus was missing in the initial phase’ (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997).
2.2.29. In Luxembourg, the minister responsible for spatial planning has to prepare national *programme directeurs*, who have to coordinate the sectoral policies, aims and define the principal development guidelines of the State and also their implications (Larsson 2006). In Norway, the revised enforcement in 1965 provided for land use plans for all towns and rural areas and also designated forest and agriculture zones.

2.2.30. The State Department of Local Affairs and Work operated as the highest planning authority with which the local authority may collaborate in the preparation of a regional plan. The state can also decide for two or more municipalities to prepare a regional plan. The master plans prepared by local authorities are passed by the Planning Commission and Municipal Councils and all schemes are controlled by the Municipal Planning Offices and must adhere to an official outline plan. The Planning Commission is an elected body and no land can be developed as else as advocated by the Master Plan.

2.2.31. Eastern Europe: In the beginning of the twentieth century, city planning in Eastern Europe was dominated by the concept of collectivistaion (Genov 2010). This was particularly observed in housing in the *kommunalk* concept (Genov 2010). Soviet planners emphasised on the needs of industry for which large amount of land was reserved. In Sweden, Building and Planning Acts of 1947 and 1959 form the basis of planning and development has to comply with the Plan prepared by the Municipal Authorities. Detailed plans are also prepared by them and these are termed as the most important document (Newman and Thornley 1996).

2.2.32. After the collapse of the Soviet Union, the governments of Central and Eastern Europe were in a state of dilemma and planning here is taking shape and *ad-hoc* measures for planning have been adopted (Newman and Thornley 2002). New master plans were adopted for most capitals and major cities. But on the whole, the issues of urban planning remain ‘intensely problematic’ and it has been suggested that the inability to involve people in planning is the ‘main cause’ of this (Stanilov 2007).

2.2.33. The Plans have to be presented for public inspection for a certain period before being published. In each municipality there is a Building Committee which is responsible for local physical planning. Planning is basically concerned with
expansion and renewal of existing towns and urban areas and only a few new
towns have been created (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997). In
Sweden, all municipalities have started a ‘practical implementation’ of the Rio
Agreements and Local Agenda Plans aiming at sustainable development (Low et
al. 2000).

2.2.34. Post socialist cities can be said to have ‘gained new authorities and functions’ in
which the local authorities have gained more power and responsibilities with
substantial changes in urban policy also (Budic et al. 2006) and the post socialist
Central Eastern European cities are transforming into sprawls, multi nodal
metropolitan areas with an extremely high privatisation (Stanilov 2007). This has
lead to the emergence of a ‘new notion of planning’ that is more flexible (Budic et
al. 2006). Recent developments in Eastern Europe capital cities are observed to
be ‘perfect examples of manifestation of current day functions’ in which the
capital cities, in particular, are observed to be the centre of major changes of
current societies and also that the functioning and structure of cities is embedded
in social processes operating here (Genov 2010).

2.2.35. Planners in Eastern Europe have converted the old master plans into ‘structural
development plans’ that also have a zoning plan with it. But this approach has
been criticised on the basis that these plans only carry forward the older land uses
(Bertaud 2006). In Poland, Physical Planning according to Specific Planning Act
of 1961 is attempted at three levels- national, provincial and local. The Master
Plan begins by a survey of existing natural and manmade structures.

2.2.36. In 1946, it was drafted in the form of town development programme based on the
principle of functionalism (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997). The
early 1960’s Master Plan provided for a gradual reconstruction (Town and
Country Planning Organisation 1997). There was no control on building activities
within city limits and haphazard land development existed and currently the
country faces a ‘fragmented approach’ to urban development (OECD 2008).

2.2.37. The basis of city plan is spatial decision for location of land use. Observed types
of Plans are Master Plan (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997),
Regional Plan, Local Development Plan and Development Plan (Larsson 2006).
Public participation is practiced only through the Local Development Plan (Larsson 2006). An increasing role of self governments is observed (Larsson 2006). In Hungary, urban development was controlled by the state with urbanisation and industrialisation as the main aims (Dovenyi and Kovacs 2006).

2.2.38. The EU guidelines have made Slovenia adopt a new Spatial Planning Act and the Construction and Facilities Act. This is aimed to enable greater flexibility, greater public participation and the establishment of a spatial planning information system (Garb and Jackson 2006). The numbers of municipalities have increased in Slovenia and there exists a complex two tier spatial planning system (OECD 2011). In Albania, administration of land is carried through the regional plans, master plans, general regulatory plans, and partial urban studies. The Ministry of Public Works, Transport and Telecommunication is the highest body at the national level for territorial planning (Vitorovic 2009).

2.2.39. In Kosovo, the government of the Republic through the Ministry for Environment and Spatial Planning is responsible for drafting and managing the Spatial Plan of Kosovo and Spatial Plans for Special Areas. The Municipalities prepare Urban Development Plans, Urban Regulatory Plans and Municipal Development Plans (Vitorovic 2009). In the Republic of Macedonia, the Government is responsible for the spatial plan through the Ministry of Environment and Physical Planning, urban planning is managed by the municipalities and urban plans are developed by a ‘licensed company’ (Vitorovic 2009).

2.2.40. The Republic of Moldova has plans for the arrangement of territories (called spatial plans), urban plans and their corresponding regulations and the plans can be categorised as National Spatial Plans, Regional Spatial Plans and Local Spatial Plans (Vitorovic 2009). Republic SRPSKA, one of the two territorial divisions of Bosnia and Herzegovina, has a strict hierarchy of spatial and urban plans with plans being revised every ten years and for regulatory plans and urban projects within one year. (Vitorovic 2009).

2.2.41. In Turkey, each level of government is responsible for planning and in metropolitan cities, plans and their implementation is to be approved by the metropolitan municipality as well and if the city is not a metropolitan city, then each district municipality can approve their own plans. Development Plans at the
national level exist while there is ‘no spatial reference’ in them (Vitorovic 2009). In Czechoslovakia, till 1945, the works were done on the theory of town planning. In 1948, the city integrated into the Soviet economic and political system. The planning adopted for a planning pattern when the first Land Use Planning Act was passed.

2.2.42. The ‘Gosplan’ dealt with economic planning organization treating economic problems side by side with a ‘Gasstroy’ which would solve the problems of physical planning (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997). The aim of this is to create organic spaces capable of further development, in which a logical coordination is secured of workplace, residential, landuses and cultural needs (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997). In the current Czech Republic, municipalities have the right to acquire, dispose, and manage municipal property and adopt a municipal budget along with the approval of a local plan (Sykora 2005).

2.2.43. Oceania: Australia and New Zealand exhibit many of the urban characteristics of the developed countries while the islands exhibit the characteristics of developing nations (Stimson and Baum 2003). Sydney is the ‘most globally linked city’ for the region and suburbanisation, edge cities and mega-metropolisation are an increasing phenomena (Stimson and Baum 2003). Australia has a federal system of government where each state has its own system of administration and the clearly defined metropolitan regions have their own system of planning (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997). Metropolitan planning is based on a map showing where the major changes will occur in the metropolis over a long period (Thompson and Maginn 2012) and master planners have played a dominant role in urban planning of Australia (Howe 2000). The town planning movement was strengthened after the First World War and the governments started taking initiatives in housing.

2.2.44. The 1950’s saw a rational planning framework after the Second World War and the concept of land use planning came up in 1970’s. The 1980’s were characterised by management concept and the 1990’s focused on strategic planning, corporate planning and integrated land use planning with an emphasis on sustainable development (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997).
However, there were clashes between different groups till 1970’s. This was followed by advocacy, transactive and participatory planning (Sandercock 1990). Strategic planning is gaining dominance and current metropolitan plans include promotion of intense urban land use (Gurran 2007).

2.2.45. The Planning Institute of Australia is the peak body representing professionals involved in planning Australia's cities, towns, regions and places. PIA is a not-for-profit federation of State and Territory Divisions with National Council comprising one representative from each state Division, an elected National President, and an Honorary Secretary/Treasurer (www.planning.org.au).

2.2.46. PIA is represented through these Divisions around Australia, overseas and through Special Interest Groups and office bearers. PIA undertakes policy at a national level and in states and territories, dealing with a wide range of issues. The statements are made publicly available and enable PIA to strengthen its position as an advocate for planning. The PIA Strategic Plan identifies Policy and Agenda Setting as a strategic priority for the Institute. PIA Policy is developed to ‘influence all levels of government’ in policy setting and ‘influence’ public opinion on planning issues (www.planning.org.au).

2.2.47. Town planning in New Zealand has been observed to have British influence as it was a British colony in the early 20th century. There were problems of overgrowth in urban areas and in 1926 the Town Planning Act required boroughs with a population of 1000 or more to develop plans for ‘healthfulness, amenity, convenience, and advancement’ along with regional emphasis and subdivisions of fringes (Miller and Amati 2008). New Zealand is a strongly urban society and rural planning was only initiated along with it in 1953. However, the guidance was minimal with regards to even urban planning and till 1989, by local authorities definition, any area with a population of more than 20,000 was termed as a city (Miller 2011).

2.2.48. A change in the central government’s approach to urban issues and planning was observed in 2000 and the first national statement on urban design came in and in 2003, ‘Sustainable Development Programme for New Zealand: Programme of Action’ became the first document to launch the concept into government policy.
with sustainable cities as one of the action areas such as resource management (Miller 2011).

2.2.49. Developing nations of Asia, South America and Africa: The term developing is used to describe the developing economies of Asia, South America and Africa. These are largely the countries which were under the western domination till the beginning of the twentieth century. Currently, Asia accounts for the majority of world population in “million cities” and thirteen of the world’s twenty three mega cities and on a global scale trends have been observed with regards to a slow growth rate of urban population but the ‘links between urban centres and socio-political conditions are not clear’ (Yue-man 2004). Planning here largely reflects the colonial influences and policies of the respective governments post independence.

2.2.50. World over it was after the Industrial Revolution in Europe, which resulted in a mass exodus of people to cities, this very process of urban problems of pollution sanitation and housing arose. While this feature was predominant in the developed world, developing world cities were not touched by this activity in the same manner. The colonization history of developing countries is to be considered to have an impact on city structure. Lately, this process developed as based on the colonizers needs (Yue-man 2004).

2.2.51. In India, town planning was particularly developed and is regarded as an ancient science. The Indo-Aryan tradition traces its origin to Brahma, the creator God and the capitals were to be built on a prescribed pattern. (Dutt 2009). The ancient and medieval period saw changes in planning methodology for the country. Present day planning process in India owes largely to the British rule. In Delhi and many other cities, master plans dominate (Das 2007) and the third Master Plan is in operation. Plan for alleviating the problems of Kolkata city prepared by Calcuta Metropolitan Planning Organisation with the assistance of WHO was the first plan for the city of then Calcuta (Nath 2007).

2.2.52. For Mumbai, the first master plan was prepared by the Mumbai Municipal Corporation in the mid 1960s with the aim of decongesting the city and port (Nath 2007). While present day planning ideologies are contributed to Industrial Revolution in Europe; for the developing nations of the world, the planning
practices followed in the developed nations have been carried on in concept. The orderly street spacing of Delhi is cited as an example of British planning and after independence planning is carried on the lines of the Master Plan.

2.2.53. Similarly, the well planned cited city of Chandigarh was planned by the French planner Le Corbusier. This is in striking contrast to the ‘unorderly Mughal era’ Old Delhi (Levy 2000). Similarly, the Pakistani city of Islamabad was planned on western lines by the Greek planner Konstantinos Doxiadis. The influence of funding through the western world by the agencies such as the World Bank is considered to have a significant bearing on planning decisions in the developing world especially in terms of technical assistance. There is also an enrolment of students from these nations to the developed world to learn urban planning (Levy 2000).

2.2.54. Southeast Asia is also plagued by the urban problems facing Asia (Brunn and Williams 1993). Thus, cities in the Third World are under tremendous pressure in terms of growth and management (Brunn and Williams 1993). Here, the socialist nations face the problems in different forms because of the regime instability and refugee influx (Brunn and Williams 1993). East Asia is a complex region which is divided into socialist and nonsocialist groups in which ‘the former is basically poor and the latter rich’, but the nature of problems in nations such as China, Japan, Hong Kong and Korea are related to the quality of life (Brunn and Williams 1993).

2.2.55. The Middle East is termed as a ‘latecomer in the global urban transition’ (United Nations Human Settlements Programme 2004). It experiences rapid and high urbanization rates but there majorly exist urban problems which are mainly related to inadequate city planning and political instabilities (Brunn and Williams 1993; United Nations Human Settlements Programme 2004).

2.2.56. In Hong Kong, Outline Zoning Plans are mainly used to control land development and outline the uses of zones (Stillwell et al. 1999) and each ordinance has its own planning board (Chung-Lai 2003). The main concern for Asian cities, particularly in India and China is that of management due to ‘an unfavourable balance arising out of rural urban migration and high concentration of population in the existing urban centres’ (Yue-man 2004). Japan experienced growth and an excessive...
concentration of population and industry along the Pacific Coast and in the process, big cities developed numerous urban issues. It was in the 1970’s that a great optimism was observed about urban planning in Japan as local authorities were delegated powers in planning of urban areas (Sorensen 2004).

2.2.57. One of the most important recent developments in Japanese city planning is recognized as the spread of organized citizen participation in activities in planning and local environmental improvement (Koizumi 2009). Korea is put forth to have a ‘revolutionary’ land use planning reform system and a master plan is observed to be ‘a strategic, verbal and schematic policy plan which is not binding on the public’ (Choe 2004). But the other plan called the ‘Official City Plan’ is legally binding (Choe 2004).

2.2.58. The urban conditions in Africa are characterised by colonial legacy, site and situation and regional factors (Brunn and Williams 1993) and urbanization phenomena began to increase with colonization in new and different forms (Jenkins et al. 2007). Hybrid cities dominate the African landscape. There were a few large urban areas in each country in the beginning of the century, the balance of rural and urban also changed and due to historical reasons, West and East Africa had lower urbanization levels than Southern and Central Africa (Jenkins et al. 2007). For example in Sub Saharan Africa, the concept of primacy of cities dominates and the current urban problems are a reflection of the existing socioeconomic structures. North Africa is highly urbanized but faces the refugee problem (Brunn and Williams 1993).

2.2.59. After independence, the planning policies were similar form place to place and were dominated by metropolitan models; with the accompaniment of major master planning exercises (Stren and Halfani 2001). Further, after independence, the role of local regimes is also dominant in influencing planning as is observed in Zimbabwe (Kamete 2011). Colonisation has had a deep impact on African cities (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997). Serious urban problems have been observed in Cairo for which decentralization is attempted at. Broad master planning approaches have been followed across Africa with the help of foreign consultants (Dharmarajan et al. 1995).
2.2.60. African cities are guided by master plans but their functioning remained under pressure due to migration pressure and agencies involved (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997). The master planning approach is dominant in the towns and cities of African countries but their ‘implementation and content do not match’. For example, in Nigeria, master plan has been termed as ‘flamboyant’ (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997).

2.2.61. South Africa faces urban challenges arising out of unprecedented social, economic and political changes and the concepts of compact cities, integrated development planning, sustainable development and participatory planning approaches have become common in the post apartheid period (Mchunu 2006) as has also been observed in the seat of power- Johannesburg in the 1980s and 1990s (Beavon 1997). The recent UN rates of urbanization reflect a degree of ‘demographic stabilisation’ but yet particularly, Sub Saharan Africa has rate of urbanization that is expected to overtake Latin America (Jenkins et al. 2007).

2.2.62. The sectoral approach remained till 1982 but urban problems existed. In Kenya, community participation is involved in the planning and design and implementation of plans. Detailed processes and projects were carried as a top down approach (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997). In Tanzania, a City Consultation marking the conclusion of preparatory activities of Dar-es-Salam’s participation in the Sub Cities Programme recommends subsidized services and partnership (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997).

2.2.63. However, in Cameroon, public participation is not visible (Njoh 2003). South Africa was affected by apartheid and this was observant in the form of segregation of land uses with the ‘productive land uses going to the whites’ (Sihlongonyane 2002). Reconstruction and Development Programme started in 1994, which aimed at integration. Currently, urban planning is directed by the processes of global capitalism (Mchunu 2006) as well as international aids (Rakodi 1997). HIV/Aids and an increase in crimes are the current issues of concern (Mchunu 2006).

2.2.64. In South America, in an attempt to address increasing urban challenges, a large number of cities have adopted strategic urban planning approach. Strategic planning includes formulating a ‘long term vision for the city, formulating an
integrated strategy, focusing on central issues, considering the social and environmental conditions and action oriented flexible approach’ (United Nations Human Settlements Programme 2004).

2.2.65. Latin America, comprising of Mexico, Central America, the Caribbean Islands, and South America, is considered as less developed and has experienced high rates of urbanization and population growth in the 20th century (Brunn and Williams 1993). Here, Central America is still under urbanized in comparison to Mexico and South American countries (Jenkins et al. 2007). The Third World is constantly facing the problem of population explosion, slum growth, environmental pollution, poverty, low education levels and poor technology.

2.2.66. The urban issues further include extensive areas of substandard housing, inadequate public services, increasing marginality due to high rates of unemployment, serious traffic congestion, and at many places severe air pollution and environmental degradation (Brunn and Williams 1993). The cities are also prone to disasters and poverty and slums aggravate the vulnerability (Fay 2005). Hence, increasing attention is being paid to implementation of planning initiatives (Brunn and Williams 1993). The preceding description of urban planning experienced across different countries has been summarised in table 2.1. follows next.

Table. 2.1. Observations on Kinds of Plans and Related Planning Provisions for Urban Areas of the World

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<th>Regions and Types of Plans</th>
<th>Planning Provisions and Plans</th>
<th>Focus, aims and objectives of plans</th>
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<td><strong>North America:</strong> Master Planning exists along with zoning and is observed with a variety of plans in USA in particular while in Canada the approach has been more regional (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997). Strategic spatial and</td>
<td>Land use planning is supplemented by human welfare and socio economic problems of the city which are the basis of these plans (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997). Here, the main concerns are regarding the political fragmentation of the metropolitan region, management of differential growth, stagnation, and the decline of metropolitan</td>
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<td>Organisation 1997). USA: Master planning related more to a ‘General Plan’ which is flexible (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997). Canada: Local Master Plans, Comprehensive Master Plans and Recreation Plans exist (Cullingworth 1987).</td>
<td>Infrastructure planning based on consensus development is a major form (UN Habitat 2007). The city council is responsible for planning with emphasis on suburban development and existence of separate plans for parks, streets etc. Three basic elements were made mandatory- landuse, circulation, population density and standard. Zoning and subdivisions observed since the nineteenth century (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997). Since 1960’s, ‘large scale; master planning has been discouraged (Smith and Moore 1993). Local authorities are vested with power to draw plans.</td>
<td>Areas (Walton and Ford 2003). Use of Remote Sensing and GIS is observed in planning (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997). There does not exist any national system of planning as a common framework (Pacione 2009). Land use planning is essentially a local matter with local groups exert immense influence (Cullingworth and Caves 2009). Present planning has loose collection of general policy statements with small area plans developed with local consultations (Smith and Moore 1993).</td>
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<td><strong>Western Europe and Nordic Countries:</strong></td>
<td>Planning by ‘design’ dominated in the early part of the twentieth century and was combined with the ‘City Beautiful’ principles and Garden City concept (Jenkins et al. 2007). UK: A heavy reliance on plans (Pacione 2009), polycentric approach (Larsson 2006) with aim of solving local issues is observed (Cullingworth and Nadin 2004). All Scandinavian capitals established new urban and traffic planning bodies and made municipal plans in the 1950’s based on the analysis of public and private needs (Monclus and Guardia 2006). Regional Plans also exist as is observed in Denmark along with Local, Neighbourhood and Municipal Plans (Newman and Thornley 1996). Strategic planning also exists (OECD 2009).</td>
<td>Spatial, strategic and regional planning currently dominates and the formation of the EU is an important event in this direction (Greed 2000). For eg. In UK (Hall 2002), France (Hewitt 2003), Poland (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997; Larsson 2006). More control of local governments (Turner 1990) exists. Regional plans have been prepared for the revitalization of suburbs by the creation of a number of ‘urban nodes’ (Hewitt 2003).</td>
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<td><strong>Nordic Countries:</strong></td>
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<td>In Denmark, National Plan is binding while the rest are for other spatial units with different level of binding (Vitorovic 2009). Councils and cities prepare Regional Plans and municipalities</td>
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- Spatial planning operates at various levels with regional plans (Larsson 2006).
- In UK Master Planning dominates (Hall 2002).
- Action Plans are also observed (Blowers and Young 2000). In Germany, zoning is dominant with the use of a General Land Use Plan (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997).
- Nordic countries: Dominance of structural plans and municipal plans for cities is observed (Monclus and Guardia 2006). Master Plans exist for capital cities (Monclus and Guardia 2006).
- Switzerland: Master Plans
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<td>Sectoral Plans, Guiding Plans (Newman and Thornley 1996), Spatial Development Plans, Cantonal Directive Plan and Municipal Land Use Plan exist (OECD 2002).</td>
<td>Spatial planning is largely a cantonal task with the Confederation’s role limited to establishing the legislative framework (OECD 2002). The Confederation’s Sectoral Plans must also take into account cantons spatial impacts (OECD 2002). Various planning tiers exist. Regional Territorial Plan is defined as the regional planning instrument, the Provincial Territorial Coordinated Plan as the provincial planning instrument and the Municipal Structure Plan and Municipality Executive Plan as local planning instruments (Gazzola and Caramaschi 2005).</td>
<td>Planning has shifted from traditional land use planning to strategic spatial planning with making of ‘traditional plans’ on a decline (Ringli 1997). Zoning plans also exist (Newman and Thornley 1996) All planning instruments result in two technical documents- the baseline information framework and VALSAT which is the Environmental and Territorial Sustainability Assessment analysing the effects of the plan. Laws also exist for the same. Plan at the lower level is bound to follow the provisions of the upper level plans (Gazzola and Caramaschi 2005). Plans contain no</td>
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<td>Italy: Territorial Coordinated Regional Plan, landscape Plan, Regional Development Plan at the regional level, Territorial Coordinated Regional Plan at the Provincial Level, General Regulator Plan, Detailed Plan, Division Plan, Structural Plan, Recovery Plan can be observed (Gazzola and Caramaschi 2005).</td>
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<td>Spain: Urban Plans and General Land Use Plans, General Urban Plans,</td>
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**Eastern Europe:** Master planning was a central pillar of communist planning ideology (UN Habitat 2009). Sweden: Comprehensive Plan, Regional Plans, General Plan Detailed Town Plan (Newman and Thornley 1996), Detailed Plan General Urban Land Use Plan exist (Gaiddon et al. 2009). Belgium: Sector Plans, Municipal Plans, Land Use Plans, Layout Plans (Boes 1992). Albania: Regional Plans, Master Plans, Spatial General Regulatory Plans Planning here is considered to be in a state of flux due to Soviet domination which was highly decentralized with least citizen participation (Levy 2000). Municipalities make Comprehensive Plan for their whole area showing the basic features of land use and development with more detailed preparations. Participatory planning is also prevalent (Newman and Thornley 1996). Planning aim was directed towards giving municipalities maximum responsibility. In Sweden, Detailed Plan is the most important document (Newman and Thornley 1996). Comprehensive Plan is not binding on individuals but provides a framework for coordination of public sector activities (Newman and Thornley 1996). Strategic planning is gaining dominance (Othengrafen 2010). Planning aim was directed towards giving municipalities maximum responsibility. In Sweden, Detailed Plan is the most important document (Newman and Thornley 1996). Comprehensive Plan is not binding on individuals but provides a framework for coordination of public sector activities (Newman and Thornley 1996).
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<td>are observed (Vitorovic 2009). In the Czech Republic Physical Plans, National Plan and Regional Plans for select urban agglomerations are observed since 1960s. (Balchin et al. 2008).</td>
<td>observed in Moldova, Macedonia and Kosovo (Vitorovic 2009). Since the beginning of 1990’s, an increasing number of cities are involved in the preparation of development plans called strategic plans (Sykora 2005).</td>
<td>Zoning regions exist (Boes 1992). Planning is also observed at various spatial levels as in Turkey, Republic SRPSKA (Vitorovic 2009). Regional development dominated with the municipalities gaining more independence after 1990s (Sykora 2005).</td>
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<td><strong>Oceania:</strong> Master Plans dominate Australian planning (Howe 2000). Strategic Plan (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997), Action Plan (Murphy 2007), PIA Strategic Plan and Metropolitan Plans (Gurran 2007) also exist. In New Zealand, Action Plans have been prepared (Miller 2011).</td>
<td>State and local governments have the power to dictate local planning agenda (Williams 2007). In New Zealand, plans have been prepared for ‘healthfulness, amenity, convenience, and advancement’ along with regional emphasis and subdivisions of fringes (Miller and Amati 2008).</td>
<td>The strategic approach focuses on a planning document identifying key issues and priority needs; outcome oriented council corporate plan and necessary specialised plans for complex issues (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997).</td>
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<td><strong>Asia:</strong> Master Planning dominates with the preparation of a ‘blue print’ as the most prevalent way of planning</td>
<td>The recent most paradigm that has been observed is that of participatory planning (Jenkins et al. 2007).</td>
<td>Zoning is an important component of plans and is observed in Indian cities (Das 2007). In India, Master</td>
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<td>(Jenkins et al. 2007). Zonal Plans are observed as in Hong Kong (Stillwell et al. 1999), Pakistan (Rahman 2011) and India (Singh 1978; Das 2007).</td>
<td>Planning dominates (Singh 1978; Das 2007). Action Plans are also being developed aiming at participatory planning (DDA 2007).</td>
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<td><strong>Africa:</strong> Master Planning dominates the African cities along with foreign help (Town and Country Planning Organisation 1997).</td>
<td>The master plan incorporates the major concepts of future management of the region (Yousry and Atta 1997). Participatory planning and sustainable development are the aims (Mchunu 2006; Njoh 2003).</td>
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<td><strong>South America:</strong> Strategic planning is observed (United Nations Human Settlements Programme 2004).</td>
<td>Formulating a long term vision for the city and formulating an integrated strategy and focusing on central issues (United Nations Human Settlements Programme 2004). An action oriented, flexible approach is observed to be followed on the basis of social issues (United Nations Human Settlements Programme 2004).</td>
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### 2.3. Critiques of Planning and Master Planning

**2.3.1.** Cities have been termed as the ‘ultimate human habitats and among all species only humans create habitats that are not fit to live in’ and the ‘modern planned urban environments are often perceived to be worse than traditional unplanned ones’ (Marshall 2009). It is put forward that ‘there has never been a clear philosophical basis to planning’ (Riddell 2004). Traditional comprehensive approach to ‘physical planning which is based on intuitive methods, has been found to be inadequate to cope with the real world situations’ (School of Planning and Architecture 1985).
2.3.2. Some authors suggest that planners ‘no longer know what to do’ as their solutions don’t work as there is a high lighting mismatch between idealism and realism’ (Friedmann 1987). Here, it is significant to note that a new, modern and planned city is not necessarily more attractive, functional or successful than an old, unplanned one. In this regard two key challenges have been posed:

i. Debate between Modernism against traditionalism: This relates to preferences for modern versus traditional.

ii. The second debate is with regards to planning versus absence of planning: to what extent should cities, towns and neighbourhoods be planned? (Marshall 2009).

2.3.3. Plans are, thus, also considered as ‘irksome and impractical’ (Misra 2002). Plans are rarely being implemented and that most of them are partly mistake (Faludi 1986). Four types of arguments have been presented for and against planning (Klosterman 1997):

i. “Economic Arguments- These arguments are supposed to have their roots in the work of Adam Smith, John Stuart Mill and others of the classical liberal tradition. These theorists emphasise on least interference by the state in economic affairs. Planning efforts at a national level is justified as providing information required for rational market choice.

ii. Pluralistic Arguments- These emerged during 1960s and 70s to complement the economic arguments for government. Underlying these arguments is a political analogue to the economists’ perfectly competitive market in which competition between formal and informal groups pursuing a range of divergent goals and interests assumed to place all important issues on the public agenda, guarantee that no group dominates the public arena, maintain political stability, and improve individuals’ intellectual and deliberative skills.

iii. Traditional Arguments- This approach emphasizes that the profession of planning originated at the turn of this century with a widespread dissatisfaction with the results of existing market and political processes reflected in it. The profession’s organizational roots in architecture were reflected in early views of planning as doing for the city what architecture
does for home. Planning is considered as an independent function of government promoting the collective public interest.

iv. Marxist Arguments- These are considered as a recent development in urban theories. It emphasises on studying the modern structure of society as a result of capitalism. As per its theoretical underpinnings, the Marxist scholars have been highly critical of traditional planning. The actions of planning are suggested to be directed more towards the underprivileged in the society rather than to the privileged groups.”

2.3.4. Planning is also criticized for the politics involved in it as government agencies are supposed to co-determine policies on the basis of external information that is relevant of the organization itself (Vogod 1983) and the subsequent ‘monolithic view’ involved in it (Gottdiener and Budd 2005). In this regard, the role of governments is put forth as it simultaneously creates highly interventionist planning bodies (Brindley et al. 1996) and is suggested to be an intentional intervention particularly by local governments (Hopkins 2001). It is suggested that the role of politics is on a large scale in cities (Bridge and Watson 2003).

2.3.5. Similarly, social activities also need to be examined (Holden 2008). The 1960’s and 70’s gave rise to a movement of ‘critique of reason’ followed by 1980’s and 90’s new urban movements (Genard 2008). The New Urbanism movement is supposed to be ‘of great relevance to future planning’ (Katz 1994). It is also an indicator of the changing planning perspectives with focus on ‘changing priorities in physical planning to ensure non-auto infrastructure, changing land use patterns to minimize the need for travel, and changing lifestyle values so that greater emphasis is on community benefit’ (Newman and Kenworthy 1999).

2.3.6. Much of the critique of master planning has come from the planning and architectural literature in the developed countries of the world and practically they are following a shift from this kind of a planning and for the developing world, master planning does not hold to be practical with regards to the population size (United Nations Human Settlements Programme 2009). It has also been put forward that master planning has been successful only in select developing nations (Jenkins et al. 2007).
2.3.7. Master planning in developing nations in particular has been criticized on the grounds that ‘the professional focus remains on the plans as a product rather than on effects, plans adopt inappropriate western norms, effective land use regulations are relatively absent and the poor institutional link between professional plan development, political interests and other agencies involved in infrastructure and service provision are not co-ordinated’ (Lowder 1986).

2.3.8. Such conditions generate a ‘confidence crisis in planning’ (Adams 1994). Further, in a fragmented community, where ‘any action is difficult’, master plans seem to ‘be destined for minor adjustments only without serving any useful purpose’ (Rabinovitz 2009). The time involved in plan preparation has also been criticized (Mosha 1995). It is also suggested that violations of the provision of master plan or the regulations that accompany it are like the violation of any other law and that it has no built in – mechanism to ensure its implementation.

2.3.9. The success of a master plan is sought to depend on peoples will and willingness to adhere to certain principles in the use of land, roads and public spaces and on the level of civic awareness. The presence or absence of a master plan is sought to ‘make no difference’ to unauthorised constructions, encroachment on public lands or land transactions, without development of infrastructure (Hyderabad Urban Development Authority 2003). The regulatory measures adopted by the governments and the public sector are also criticized (Allen 2005).

2.3.10. To resolve tensions between economic development and sustainable development are among the key challenges facing the city in the 21st century (Couch 2003) and the acid test of a plan is on the question of execution (Gutheim 1961). The concept of developing a healthy city also requires a new political process (Corburn 2009). Planning is also put forward to distort the land market (Kelly 2010). In the literature of city management, planning seems to require an ‘orientation for the contentious issues’ (Berman 2000). The current discussions also focus on ‘as to how global economic forces influence the way cities manage their economies and govern their communities’ (Thornley and Rydin 1996).

2.3.11. The component of gender bias cannot be excluded as it has been observed that ‘the enterprise of the planning theory has been a male domain’ (Massey 2004). The future planning is put forward to be concerned with ‘ethics’ (Campbell 2002)
and further since the environment is increasingly complex and demanding, planning has to be understood in the context (Jones 2008). There exist significant arguments for analyzing plan concept. Rabinovich (2008) has highlighted these criticisms as follows:

i. Planning versus implementation: The main criticism here is that plan preparation is hardly ever rational and the actors are diverse. Further, the combination of planning and practice is not observed efficiently. These also lead to the emergence of newer policies in planning such as communicative planning.

ii. Technical neutrality versus political stance: The observations here are that the planning decisions are majorly political in nature rather than being technical or scientific.

iii. Public versus private: The concern here is with regards to the practice, processes and relationships that should be followed for the practical aspects of planning.

2.3.12. The contrast between social and technical aspects, involving concepts of groups, collective and public interests are also observed to be important issues (Edwards 2006). The relationship between physical and social planning is also highlighted as a debate in planning (Shalinsky 2007). It is also put forward in this context that public interest has been the centre of traditional planning practices but public interest as a fact does not even exist (Moroni 2006). Presently, geographical information database and planning through GIS is continuously harped upon for urban studies and analysis (Batty and Densham 1996; Stillwell et al. 1999; Yeh and Li 2000; Obermeyer and Pinto 2008) and for the city of Delhi, such a database is also in the pipeline.

2.3.13. It is put forward that of all forms of planning, urban planning was late to come to the planning scene of India (Shafi 2003). Town planning practices in India are ancient and are also exemplary but the present day planning is a manifestation of urban planning as followed by the developed world. Yet town planning in India is ‘radically different’ from the town planning practices as followed in the western world (Chand and Puri 2010). The ‘basic infrastructure’ is suggested as the ‘main
reward’ for poor communities in the deals they strike with politicians in ‘vote bank’ politics (Amis 2001).

2.3.14. The early efforts for the solution of urban problems began with the improvement of living environment and designing of physical layout plans (Mallick 2003). Rapid urbanization since 1990 has led to severe pressure on cities (Asian Development Bank 2008). Besides, numerous issues and ever-growing problems, city planning is followed, of which the master plans form the basis. The Indian Master Plans consist broadly of two parts- the land use and development control rules. The urban land use planning has the disadvantage in terms of an overemphasis on land control (Singh and Ali 2000). The evolution of master planning methodology for Delhi stands analysis in this context.

2.4. **Evaluation in Planning**

2.4.1. Evaluation is described as an inseparable part of decision making (Alexander 2006) and an established field of research with the requirement of a number of other sources (Khakee et al. 2008). ‘Wise’ planning is suggested to occur often if the planning body ‘helped prepare and review operating programmes and regulate them at each stage of their project’ (Rabinovitz 2009). While even cities in ancient times were developed on the basis of plans, none of this planning can be said to carry evaluation of urban plans or planning (Alexander 2006).

2.4.2. Two distinct paradigms can be outlined that have determined planning theoretical research and evaluation as well. These are that of rational planning and communicative planning (Khakee et al. 2008). The concept of rational planning is based on instrumental rationality that implies the most favourable relationship between goal achievement and resource use. Here, the requirement is that goals are clearly specified and there is minimization of expenditure and most effective use of resources. The second concept is that of communicative or deliberative planning. It emphasizes on interaction and iteration. The works of Nathaniel Lichfield in 1956 in this field are the most noteworthy who from his analysis of planned development practice in UK, highlighted the contrasts between private costs and benefits.
2.5. **Evaluation Methods**

2.5.1. Evolution of planning evaluation is related to systems of classification. These have been described as ‘generations’ of evaluation approaches by Guba and Lincoln (1989). These are:

i. “The First Generation: This is concerned with the measurement which is the result of a developmental process of construction and reconstruction. The early influence is that of school children in this field where the major function was identified as that of the school where facts dominated (Guba and Lincoln 1989). This has also been defined as the technical generation which was characterized by nascent scientific management, statistics and research methodologies (Issel 2009).

ii. The Second Generation: This is described to be characterized by description and lasted until the 1960’s which focused on goals and objectives as the basis of evaluation (Issel 2009).

iii. The Third Generation: This is designated as the judgment generation which arose a result of the flaws of the objectives oriented descriptive approach. This is also termed as the ‘negotiation generation’ or the ‘responsiveness generation’ (Issel 2009). Here, the planners began to acknowledge that they had to plan also accordingly to the needs of the people (Guba and Lincoln 1989).

iv. The Fourth Generation: This is defined as the evaluation generation. Here, the focus is on meta evaluation i.e. evaluation of evaluations (Issel 2009).”

2.5.2. The other popular methods of evaluation have been outlined by Lichfield in his seminal works. Systematic public investment analysis can be said to have developed in the nineteenth century, in consonance with the classic economic theory. The French economist Dupuis is the first one to articulate the principles of Benefit Cost Analysis (BCA) in 1844 that was first applied in public investment analysis in evaluating large scale public engineering projects and was criticized.
for not implementing utilitarian aspect. This has lead to the emergence of Cost-effectiveness Analysis (CEA) (Alexander 2006).

2.5.3. The modification of BCA analysis technique was manifested in Lichfield’s initial works. This is the Planning Balance Sheet Analysis (PBSA). It is defined as ‘a form of impact analysis, and a method of analyzing and displaying the repercussions of the subject plan or its implications’ (Alexander 2006). It aimed at providing a broader framework for the assessment of gains and losses of a plan by constructing ‘detailed socio economic accounts for all projects’ (Nijkamp and Delft 1977).

2.5.4. The variables involved in this are plans for ‘ project areas, kind of plan, scale of plan, content of plan, different aspects of content, time and money resources available’ (Lichfield 1997). This was followed by the Community Impact Evaluation (CIE) which reflected the influence of Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) and Environmental Impact Statement (EIS) (Alexander 2006). BCA was modified later as Fiscal Impact Analysis which became popular. Other observed methods are Goals Achievement Matrix, Multi Criteria Evaluation and Social Impact Analysis (Alexander 2006). Thus, plan evaluation can acquire multiple dimensions depending on the context of analysis.

2.6. Remarks

2.6.1. Urban planning is as old as the cities of the world are and plans of various kinds are intrinsic to urban planning for planning provisions to be implemented. Present day urban planning practices are rooted in the post Industrial Revolution urbanisation process of the developed world. This initiated the Master Plan approach as observed in the literature. These practices have been carried by the developing nations which still dominantly follow the master planning approach while the developed world has moved further in this strategy of planning by preparing alternative plans as well. However, the developing world, grappling with the woes of an unplanned urbanisation, has devoted its planning outline in master plan. The evolution of urban planning and Delhi’s Master Plans, hence, gives a critical insight into these aspects and this has been elaborated further in the next chapter.