CHAPTER II
REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Marcia Caldas de Castro (2007), “Spatial Demography: An Opportunity to Improve Policy Making at Diverse Decision Levels”. The number of applications of spatial demography has been growing mostly since the 1990s. Ranging from simple visualization to sophisticated spatial analytical techniques, these applications bring a new layer of explanation to demographic phenomena. This paper reviews demographic studies that specifically addressed space with spatial statistical models, and that focused on fertility, mortality, migration and population models. Additionally, it summarizes different spatial datasets and software freely available, as well as the challenges that exist for the development of spatial demography applications. These challenges include confidentiality issues, scale problems, and the lack of training on spatial analysis in population centers. Although the first and second challenges involve modeling and technical solutions, the latter depends only on demographer’s commitment and willingness to promote change. Several topics for future spatially focused research are also outlined. Finally, the paper makes a strong case regarding the significant contribution that spatial demography can make to the monitoring, evaluation, and implementation of population policies.

Stephen Essex and Mark Brayshay (2005), “Town versus country in the 1940s planning the contested space of a city region in the aftermath of the Second World War” his paper has shown that the regional planning aims of Abercrombie's internationally famous 1943 Plan for Plymouth were never realized. The importance attached by the main players in Plymouth to planning for a city region of 140 square miles as a means of achieving the central objectives for the reconstruction and modernization of the city of Plymouth has been examined. It has been shown that, while Plymouth is well known for possessing the UK’s most complete surviving Abercrombie-planned' city centre and inner-city neighborhood units, many of the wider aspirations and goals set out in the Plan were in fact never achieved. Moreover, in their attempts to implement the Abercrombie plan, and especially to promote the planning of an entire region, the city's interactions with the authorities in its immediate neighborhood, as well as with central government, brought into sharp focus antagonisms that directly militated against the realization of a city-region model.
of planning for the UK as a whole. Vested interests, jealousies and deeply embedded attachment to local autonomy impeded all attempts to achieve successful cooperation, as appears to have been the case in other regional plans, such as the Greater London Plan (Garside, 1989). Knowledge of the Plymouth experience undoubtedly helped to shape Whitehall thinking as the 1947 Town and Country Planning Act was being drafted. Thus, although the Howard, Geddes and Mumford notion of regional planning had been strongly promoted in the 1920s and 1930s, by 1946, local experience had caused a collapse of faith and, when the pivotal new planning legislation reached the statute book a year later, the idea had been completely dropped. Irrespective of the desirability of a regional approach in planning, it could not be allowed to jeopardize or cause further delays in the implementation of urgently required planning legislation. This case study, drawing on the exceptionally full archives that have survived in Plymouth and elsewhere, has highlighted the titanic clash of the individuals involved directly in the debates and the power struggle that surrounded attempts to form a joint regional planning committee for the Plymouth area and the parallel, and rather underhand, quest by the city to secure an extension to its boundaries. The fact that both projects proceeded on parallel, but separate, tracks certainly seems to have fostered and fuelled suspicions and acrimony, and ultimately probably impaired the prospects of success for either. The apparent inability on all sides to operate amicably offers a compelling explanation for the failure, despite the unique opportunity afforded by the need to rebuild following the blitz, to plan effectively for a city-region where the needs and aspirations of both urban and rural communities could be considered, not competitively, but in harmony. Planning, after all, is more than a mere process; it is instead an art engaged in by human beings with all their foibles, idiosyncrasies, prejudices and vanities. The overriding conclusion of this paper is that Town versus country in the 1940s 263 the unpacking of the complex story of the development of planning in this country requires close attention to the human narrative that has driven the decision-making process and determined the paths pursued at key moments of change.

Klaus R. Kunzmann (2004), “Culture, creativity and spatial planning” states that, In the past, culture has been a widely neglected subject in spatial planning. In a period of globalization and increasing urban competition, however, the cultural dimension of urban and regional development has earned more attention from
academics and planning professionals in cities and regions. This article presents the various dimensions of culture in spatial planning and city building processes in Europe, its role for urban imaging and marketing, for local economic development and job creation, and for sustaining identity and quality of life for citizens in the twenty-first century.

Heather Campbell (2002), “Planning: An Idea of Value”. The development of the intellectual basis for planning activity has been a slow and problematic process. This paper seeks to build on existing intellectual understanding to argue that future developments in planning thought must take questions of ethical value as their starting point. The paper is essentially divided into three parts. The first makes the important distinction between planning as a narrow set of regulatory practices and planning as an idea, or more particularly a long-enduring societal activity. It is the latter concept of planning that frames the discussion in the remainder of the paper. The second, in which the core of the argument is developed, explores the nature of planning as an activity; an activity that is centrally concerned with making ethical judgments about better and worse, with and for others, in just institutions. It is about an idea of value. The third section examines the implications of this perspective for planning as a subject of academic Endeavour. The argument is illustrated throughout with examples drawn from the author's research.

Andrew Gilg (1985), “Land use was planning in Switzerland” in his paper Switzerland has one of the finest landscapes in the world, and its protection and management are of concern to a much wider population than its 6.3 million inhabitants. Unfortunately, for too long, complacency, economic self interest and local jealousies prevented any coordinated attempt to plan the country's land use. It is too early to say whether the 1979 LAT will have any real impact, but at least Switzerland by being virtually the last developed country to pass planning laws covering the whole country, not just individual cantons, should have learnt from the mistakes of others. Certainly, the planning literature and legislation bear all the hallmarks of international norms of planning jargon, and so the main strength of the new system should be its theoretical strength based on the practical experience of others. However, Switzerland is a highly decentralized country and the average Swiss feels more attached to his commune and canton than he does to the Confederation. This is of course exacerbated by the language and religious divisions within the
country. Nonetheless, these divisions and decentralization give Swiss planning perhaps its greatest strength: the close democratic control allowed by the decentralized system and the highly developed sense of public obligation that the average Swiss citizen feels. However, the referendum, which is an essential part of this system, can mean that only generally popular policies may be adopted; planners are then presented with the problem of presenting complex policy options in ways that can be readily understood by the public. Unfortunately, the close local control of the commune also provides Swiss planning with its three greatest weaknesses. First, the communal councils must find it difficult to act other than out of self interest, and the scope for corruption, either overt or covert, is enormous. For example, with so many communes having prime development sites either in the Alps or near one of the major towns of the Mittelland the pressure to zone more land than needed is immense. Since councilors are only drawn from the local area there is no way that a wider view can be presented, unless as in the Cranes Montananaea, outside consultants are brought in by the Canton.57 The second problem, namely the lack of coordination, over the socio-economic development of sub-regions, stems from the first, the highly local system of control. Here, however, the regional plans stemming from the 1974LIM will help, but these of course only cover the Alps and the Jura. Over the rest of the country, the Plans Directeursstemming from the 1979 LATa re the only form of coordination but it is clear, from early reactions to these, that they face an uphill political struggle in imposing coordinated development plans on to the communes. In the meantime, houses, factories, public services and other installations continue to be developed all over the place, and over the whole of Switzerland there appears to be a rapid devolution of central places in favour of an over dispersed pattern, 58 and although this may be a conscious choice it must exert enormous costs for service provision. The third problem is related to the first two, and concerns the landscape implications of patchy and uncoordinated development. In the Mattel and, new developments are to be found in the middle of open farmland, merely because one commune was willing to give permission, while surrounding communes were not. The incentive is often financial and nationally this is reflected in the fact that each canton attempts to attract industry by offering different tax rates, taxes being paid locally in Switzerland. In conclusion, Switzerland has probably seen the dangers signals just in time. Its magnificent landscape has been able to absorb far more bad
development than other less favored countries and its prosperous economy has naturally led to high standards of development. But the point of danger has been reached and from now on, from foreign eyes at least, all development needs to be rigorously planned at the national, regional and local levels. Whether the provision of the LAT and the political will within the country to pay for the costs of planning, in lower rates of economic growth and sub-optimal returns on land values, will ensure a rational and scenic development of the country are questions that only the passage of time over the next decade will answer. However, early signs are not encouraging, since in the autumn of 1984 3 cantons informed the Federal Council that they could not complete their Plans Directions by the end of 1984 as required and would need a further period of work ranging from five months to three years.

Klaus R. Kunzmann (2004), ‘Culture, creativity and spatial planning’. In the past, culture has been a widely neglected subject in spatial planning. In a period of globalization and increasing urban competition, however, the cultural dimension of urban and regional development has earned more attention from academics and planning professionals in cities and regions. This article presents the various dimensions of culture in spatial planning and city building processes in Europe, its role for urban imaging and marketing, for local economic development and job creation, and for sustaining identity and quality of life for citizens in the twenty-first century.

Michael Bruton and David Nicholson (1984) in their article on “Strategic land use planning and the British development plan system” This article reviews the theoretical basis of strategic planning and develops an idealized hierarchical framework for the achievement of social and economic change. A comparison of this scheme with the British system of planning shows that in several respects the latter is deficient. The paper focuses on the role played by structure and local plans, and considers how and why many local planning authorities are supplementing the statutory provisions through the use of informal local planning material. A number of changes are suggested which are intended to ensure that the British planning system as a whole accords more closely with the theoretical framework for strategic planning and implementation
Jeremy Alden (1999) ‘Scenarios for the future of the British planning system’, after nearly 100 years of statutory planning and approaching the twenty-first century, the present Labour Government has suggested ways in which the planning system can be modernized. This paper examines the extent to which these proposals represent an evolution of the planning system or a revolution which is likely to change the face of our planning system. It examines various scenarios for the future planning system in the United Kingdom, and concludes that it is very timely to review the planning system, and especially its spatial hierarchy with particular reference to the need for a National Spatial Planning Framework.

Evan M. Melhado (2006). ‘Health planning in the United States and the Decline of Public-interest Policy making. In the 1960s and 1970s, health planning formed a major theme of American health policy. Planners aimed to improve health services and make them broadly available while using resources efficiently. This article provides a history, both intellectual and political, of the origins of planning, its rise, and in the face of mounting problems its decline. The story also illustrates broader changes in the culture of policymaking in American health care. From the Progressive Era through the 1960s, reform-minded experts in health worked to advance the public interest. Thereafter, they increasingly left behind public-interest ideals and their underlying extra market values in favor of organizing and improving health care markets. Whatever the deficiencies of traditional policymaking may be, this study suggests the need to resurrect extra market values in health policy.

Bhat. L.S. (1970), ‘Regional Planning In India’, Geographer’s contribution to studies on planning in India has been relatively recent following the decision of Professor P. C. Mahalanobis, F.R.S. to setting up a Regional Survey Unit in the Indian Statistical Institute in 1956. During 1956-58 the Unit conducted a regional survey of the Mysore State under the directorship of Professor A. T. A. Learmonth, then of the Department of Geography, the University of Liverpool. Simultaneously a less intensive study of South-India comprising the four southern States, Mysore, Kerala, Madras (now re-named as Tamil Nadu) and Andhra Pradesh, was undertaken with a view to examining the distributional patterns of resources and problems of regional development which extend beyond the administrative States. These studies were carried out under the guidance of Dr. V. L. S. Prakasa Rao (now Professor of Geography, Department of Human Geography, and Delhi University). Meantime, the
importance of regional approach to national economic planning was emphasized by the Planning Commission particularly in the preparation of the Third Five Year Plan as a part of the long-term plan (1961-81). With the available data and maps, a scheme of resource regions adapted to administrative districts was therefore suggested as a basis for understanding the regional resource structure, their broad goals of specialization and the problems in planning. Regionalization of the national economy being the first step towards integration of the regions' physical and economic plans an attempt was made to work out a scheme of macroeconomic regions with diversified resource bases.

Kazimierz Fiedorowicz and Gene Rzepka (1977) ‘Planning of the Economic Infrastructure’, the term “infrastructure”, as in material infrastructure, was introduced into economic and social literature relatively recently. The definition of this term can be based on either a literal or a functional meaning. The literal meaning cannot be used for the purposes of this article because "infrastructure" would then refer to fundamental relationships among the elements of a collection of objects. On the other hand, terms based on a functional meaning relate to the purposes which they serve or where they would be applied. Use of the term material infrastructure according to its functional definition was first made in the 1950s in the staff work of NATO to describe the technical and logistical arrangements which made possible the mobility of armies. This term next entered economic and social literature, where it was defined in various ways depending on the purpose of its use. The scope of material infrastructure and its division into component parts is variable and depends on the purpose for which a given author uses it.

Sudhir Wanmali and Yassir Islam (1995), Rural Services, Rural Infrastructure and Regional Development in India. This paper analyses the spatial distribution of rural services in selected regions of three states in India (Andhra Pradesh, Maharashtra, and Tamil Nadu), based on data collected over three decades. In spite of economic disparities between regions, Christaller's Central Place Theory provides a framework in which to examine demographic, functional and spatial characteristics of settlements in these regions. In all regions, there has been a tremendous improvement in rural service provision, since the late 1960s, especially in smaller sized settlements. Over time, more complex services in particular, have become more widely available. In Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu, the introduction of new agricultural technologies
was largely responsible for stimulating such improvements, whereas in Maharashtra they were a consequence of urban industrial development in a metropolitan city. The government played a critical role in this process during the earlier stages of development of the regions, which facilitated greater involvement of the private sector at later stages. The changes in rural service provision are further examined in the context of decentralized service centre planning in India. The analysis suggests how the concepts and methodologies employed in this study might provide the basis for a more integrated regional approach to planning and policy formulation for rural service provision at the district level in India. This comparative analysis has shown that in spite of inherent disparities due to the different stages of development observed in the three study areas, the extent of urbanization and the nature and scope of innovations - especially in irrigation and agriculture -that have initiated the existing rural service infrastructural development patterns, there are similar processes at work that help explain the changes observed across the three different study areas and over two points in time. Concepts derived from central place theory, such as spatial and service hierarchy, clustering of services, population thresholds, scores of service provision and gaps in the service provision, have provided a common foundation from which to make recommendations for the future provision of rural service infrastructure in the study areas. In all cases, an improvement in the availability of services, particularly in the case of low-order services, has been observed across all sizes of settlements over time. Notably, there has been a tremendous improvement in the capacity of larger villages and small towns to provide these services. In addition, more sophisticated services are increasingly available within the study areas, though only in a few settlements, obviating the need to go 'outside' the region for these services. Each study area is at a different stage of development. As such, development targets will be different for each of the three areas and will be dynamic rather than static, given the rapid improvements observed over the two periods. Closely related to this is the extent to which the public and private sector is involved in provision of rural service infrastructure. In the earlier stages of development, the government appears to play a major role in establishing the necessary rural service infrastructure. At this stage in particular, research, planning and implementation activities undertaken by the government authorities are of paramount importance. In spite of the increasing evidence of the role of the private sector in providing services, the analysis indicates
that the government still has a seminal role to play in the provision of basic rural service infrastructure, especially in underdeveloped areas in which the private sector is reluctant to invest. In this respect, the role of the government as a facilitator of development, which encourages demand-driven private sector involvement in the long run, will remain critical. The potential for collaboration between the public and private sector in order to strengthen rural service provision merits further exploration. Treating systems as 'closed', a lack of coordination between researchers and development administrators and creating a false dichotomy between urban and rural systems, are just three of the many problems that can adversely affect the investment levels and provision of rural service infrastructure, which may also influence adversely the subsequent involvement of the private sector in the study areas. Strategies for rural service infrastructural development will, therefore, have a chance of some success, only if demographic, functional and spatial characteristics of rural settlement systems are considered by researchers, planners and administrators while preparing plans for rural development. Furthermore, the linkages between rural and urban systems and other sectors of the regional economy and rural service infrastructure will need to be clearly identified, and delineated, in order to develop a functionally integrated system of rural service provision. The state governments, right from the beginning, actively supported the establishment of rural institutions below the district level, and planned for the diffusion of public-sector rural service infrastructure in all regions. The result has been improved access to goods and services and, also, a widespread decentralization of previous urban functions to the rural areas. Given that planning of rural service delivery systems is a state concern in India, the implications of the methodology adopted in the studies noted above assume great importance. These studies show how to approach planning of rural service provision and they provide the basis for conducting similar exercises where at the substate level in India.

Robert B. Potter (1985) Spatial inequalities in Barbados, West Indies After a brief introduction concerning spatial development theory, this paper presents a method for the identification, analysis and monitoring of spatial inequalities in developing countries. This is referred to as the semantic grid technique. It is also demonstrated how a simple form of non-parametric factor analysis can be employed to analyze the data obtained by use of the method. Its value as an appropriate
parsimonious and non-computed respondent approach is stressed. The method is illustrated by field research carried out in Barbados West Indies. Subsequently the evolution and present-day nature of spatial inequality in Barbados is discussed using conventional objective socio-economic indicators. By such means, the acuity of the semantic grid method is demonstrated finally, the theoretical grounding of the method in Personal Construct Theory is stressed, and it is shown how the approach dovetails with social-psychological aspects of the existence and perpetuation of regionalize qualities and stereotypes, via the processes of cumulative causation and spatial polarization.

Sharareh Pourebrahim (2010) ‘Integration of spatial suitability analysis for land use planning in coastal areas; case of Kuala Langat District’, Selangor, Malaysia. A systematic approach was used to develop an integrated plan to determine the optimal land use suitability for future sustainable development in the coastal area of the Kuala Langat District, Selangor, Malaysia based on different planning scenarios. Use of the multi criteria evaluation (MCE) especially.

Jean-David Gerber (2011), ‘The difficulty of integrating land trusts in land use planning’. We examine land-owning organizations’ choice of strategy for steering spatial development. There are two highly visible strategies to influence land use. The first one, acquisition, is direct; it consists of either gaining outright ownership of the land, or various forms of partial title, including conservation easements. The second one, regulation, is indirect; it relies on the legal instruments of public policy, in particular land use planning, to influence the behavior of landowners. Often linking these two strategies in a coherent way is a challenge. On the one hand, local authorities are empowered by the law to plan for conservation, but they are not well equipped to do so (lack of capacity, expertise, political will). On the other hand, many small conservation NGOs are active at the micro level with little concern for supra-local considerations. Focusing on an important private conservation effort in Southern Quebec, this article seeks to better understand land-owning organizations’ position toward land use planning. It shows how conservation NGOs, which rely on property rights to influence land use, position themselves within the broader regulatory context and attempt to coordinate their action at a regional scale in order to complement their acquisition strategy.
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available within the study areas, though only in a few settlements, obviating the need to go 'outside' the region for these services. Each study area is at a different stage of development. As such, development targets will be different for each of the three areas and will be dynamic rather than static, given the rapid improvements observed over the two periods. Closely related to this is the extent to which the public and private sector is involved in provision of rural service infrastructure. In the earlier stages of development, the government appears to play a major role in establishing the necessary rural service infrastructure. At this stage in particular, research, planning and implementation activities undertaken by the government authorities are of paramount importance. In spite of the increasing evidence of the role of the private sector in providing services, the analysis indicates that the government still has a seminal role to play in the provision of basic rural service infrastructure, especially in underdeveloped areas in which the private sector is reluctant to invest. In this respect, the role of the government as a facilitator of development, which encourages demand-driven private sector involvement in the long run, will remain critical. The potential for collaboration between the public and private sector in order to strengthen rural service provision merits further exploration. Treating systems as 'closed', a lack of coordination between researchers and development administrators and creating a false dichotomy between urban and rural systems, are just three of the many problems that can adversely affect the investment levels and provision of rural service infrastructure, which may also influence adversely the subsequent involvement of the private sector in the study areas. Strategies for rural service infrastructural development will, therefore, have a chance of some success, only if demographic, functional and spatial characteristics of rural settlement systems are considered by researchers, planners and administrators while preparing plans for rural development. Furthermore, the linkages between rural and urban systems and other sectors of the regional economy and rural service infrastructure will need to be clearly identified, and delineated, in order to develop a functionally integrated system of rural service provision. The state governments, right from the beginning, actively supported the establishment of rural institutions below the district level, and planned for the diffusion of public-sector rural service infrastructure in all regions. The result has been improved access to goods and services and, also, a widespread decentralization of previous urban functions to the rural areas. Given that planning of rural service delivery systems is a
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Adinarayana. J (2004), ‘Village Level Information System – A Tool for Decentralized Planning at District Level in India’. Geographical Information Systems and the underlying Spatial Data Infrastructures have potential to assist in planning, monitoring and exchange of information between various agencies in Rural Development administration. The paper describes the present decision making process and the rural informatics situation in Indian districts. A study was undertaken in a tribal-oriented and rural district in India to demonstrate the integration of village-level spatial and non-spatial data into a useful tool, called ‘VLIS’ (Village- Level Information System), for decentralized planning. This simple and robust tool will assist the decision-makers to generate various ecological and socio-economic views for identifying candidate villages for rural watershed management schemes (prescriptive and executive level planning). The paper also envisages future development and usefulness of this community-level GIS tool for grass-root planning.