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Regional Planning And Development : A Geographical Perspective

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ABSTRACT: Regional planning deals with the efficient placement of land-use activities, infrastructure, and settlement growth across a larger area of land than an individual city or town. Regional planning is related to urban planning as it relates land use practices on a broader scale. It also includes formulating laws that will guide the efficient planning and management of such said regions.^[1] Regional planning can be comprehensive by covering various subjects, but it more often specifies a particular subject, which requires region-wide consideration.^[2]

Regions require various land uses; protection of farmland, cities, industrial space, transportation hubs and infrastructure, military bases, and wilderness. Regional planning is the science of efficient placement of infrastructure and zoning for the sustainable growth of a region. Advocates for regional planning such as new urbanist Peter Calthorpe, promote the approach because it can address region-wide environmental, social, and economic issues which may necessarily require a regional focus.

A 'region' in planning terms can be administrative or at least partially functional, and is likely to include a network of settlements and character areas. In most European countries, regional and national plans are 'spatial' directing certain levels of development to specific cities and towns in order to support and manage the region depending on specific needs, for example supporting or resisting polycentrism.

KEYWORDS-regional,planning,development,geographical,perspective

I. INTRODUCTION

Nomenclature

Although the term "regional planning" is nearly universal in English-speaking countries the areas covered and specific administrative set ups vary widely. In North America, regional planning may encompass more than one state, such as the Regional Plan Association, or a larger conurbation or network of settlements. North American regional planning is likely to cover a much larger area than the Regional Assemblies of the UK; both, however, are equally "regional" in nature.^[1,2,3]

Principles

Specific interventions and solutions will depend entirely on the needs of each region in each country, but generally speaking, regional planning at the macro level will seek to:^[3]

- Resist development in flood plains or along earthquake faults. These areas may be utilised as parks, or unimproved farmland.
- Designate transportation corridors using hubs and spokes and considering major new infrastructure
- Some thought into the various 'role's settlements in the region may play, for example some may be administrative, with others based upon manufacturing or transport.
- Consider designating essential nuisance land uses locations, including waste disposal.
- Designate Green belt land or similar to resist settlement amalgamation and protect the environment.
- Set regional level 'policy' and zoning which encourages a mix of housing values and communities.
- Consider building codes, zoning laws and policies that encourage the best use of the land.
- Allocation of land.

A Regional Planning Organization is a government body that guides the development of public and private resources in a manner that ensures public safety, well being and livability. Regional planning organizations take different forms and may also include a metropolitan planning organization or may be part of a multi-state or multi-government association. A regional planning organization develops plans that coordinate planning by groups of local governments and special districts that have common social, political, economic, cultural or other similarities.^[1] Generally this process takes the form of urban planning or one of its sub-disciplines such as land use planning, transportation planning, or environmental planning.^[2]

Regional planning organizations exist in a variety of different formats. In some areas they are a part of another organizations such as a Regional Council of Governments.^{[3][4]} Regional planning organizations are sometimes also called regional development organisations as the need for planning often includes key economic development issues.

Regional development is a broad term but can be seen as a general effort to reduce regional disparities by supporting (employ) economic regions. In the past, regional development policy tended to try to achieve these objectives by means development and by attracting inward investment (OECD,2020).

A large number of international organizations such as the OECD, UN, IMF and many more that provide assistance on economic, environmental and social issues to the less economically developed regions. Regional development can be national or international in nature. Therefore, the implications and scope of regional development may vary according to the definition of a region and how the region and its boundaries are perceived internally and externally.

By country

Canada

- Atlantic Canada Opportunities Agency
- Economic Development Agency of Canada for the Regions of Quebec
- Federal Economic Development Initiative for Northern Ontario
- Western Economic Diversification Canada[5,7,8]

Malaysia

- Central Terengganu Development Authority, or Lembaga Kemajuan Terengganu Tengah (KETENGAH) – official website
- Kedah Regional Development Authority, or Lembaga Kemajuan Wilayah Kedah (KEDA) – official website
- South East Johore Development Authority, or Lembaga Kemajuan Johor Tenggara (KEJORA) – official website
- South Kelantan Development Authority, or Lembaga Kemajuan Kelantan Selatan (KESEDAR) – official website

Nigeria

- AREWA Center for Regional Development (ACRD) – official website

United Kingdom

- Regional Development has been an explicit concern of UK policy makers since at least the 1970s.^[1]
- It currently falls under the auspices of the Regional development agency.

United States

- Tennessee Valley Authority

Discussion

Regional science is a field of the social sciences concerned with analytical approaches to problems that are specifically urban, rural, or regional. Topics in regional science include, but are not limited to location theory or spatial economics, location modeling, transportation, migration analysis, land use and urban development, interindustry

analysis, environmental and ecological analysis, resource management, urban and regional policy analysis, geographical information systems, and spatial data analysis. In the broadest sense, any social science analysis that has a spatial dimension is embraced by regional scientists.

Origins

Regional science was founded in the late 1940s when some economists began to become dissatisfied with the low level of regional economic analysis and felt an urge to upgrade it. But even in this early era, the founders of regional science expected to catch the interest of people from a wide variety of disciplines. Regional science's formal roots date to the aggressive campaigns by Walter Isard and his supporters to promote the "objective" and "scientific" analysis of settlement, industrial location, and urban development. Isard targeted key universities and campaigned tirelessly. Accordingly, the Regional Science Association was founded in 1954, when the core group of scholars and practitioners held its first meetings independent from those initially held as sessions of the annual meetings of the American Economics Association.^[1] A reason for meeting independently undoubtedly was the group's desire to extend the new science beyond the rather restrictive world of economists and have natural scientists, psychologists, anthropologists, lawyers, sociologists, political scientists, planners, and geographers join the club.^[2] Now called the Regional Science Association International (RSAI), it maintains subnational and international associations, journals, and a conference circuit (notably in North America, continental Europe, Japan, and South Korea). Membership in the RSAI continues to grow.

Seminal publications

Typically speaking, regional science took off in the wake of Walter Christaller's book *Die Zentralen Orte in Süddeutschland* (Verlag von Gustav Fischer, Jena, 1933; transl. *Central Places in Southern Germany*, 1966), soon followed by Tord Palander's (1935) *Beiträge zur Standortstheorie*; August Lösch's *Die räumliche Ordnung der Wirtschaft* (Verlag von Gustav Fischer, Jena, 1940; 2nd rev. edit., 1944; transl. *The Economics of Location*, 1954); and Edgar M. Hoover's two books--*Location Theory and the Shoe and Leather Industry* (1938) and *The Location of Economic Activity* (1948). Other important early publications include: Edward H. Chamberlin's (1950) *The Theory of Monopolistic Competition*; François Perroux's (1950) *Economic Spaces: Theory and Application*; Torsten Hägerstrand's (1953) *Innovationsförloppet ur Korologisk Synpunkt*; Edgar S. Dunn's (1954) *The Location of Agricultural Production*; Martin J. Beckmann, C.B. McGuire, and Clifford B. Winston's (1956) *Studies in the Economics of Transportation*; Melvin L. Greenhut's (1956) *Plant Location in Theory and Practice*; Gunnar Myrdal's (1957) *Economic Theory and Underdeveloped Regions*; Albert O. Hirschman's (1958) *The Strategy of Economic Development*; and Claude Ponsard's (1958) *Histoire des Théories Économiques Spatiales*. Nonetheless, Walter Isard's first book in 1956, *Location and Space Economy*, apparently captured the imagination of many, and his third, *Methods of Regional Analysis*, published in 1960, only sealed his position as the father of the field.^[9,10,11]

As is typically the case, the above works were built on the shoulders of giants. Much of this predecessor work is documented well in Walter Isard's *Location and Space Economy*^[3] as well as Claude Ponsard's *Histoire des Théorie Économique Spatiales*.^[4] Particularly important was the contribution by 19th century German economists to location theory. The early German hegemony more or less starts with Johann Heinrich von Thünen and runs through both Wilhelm Launhardt and Alfred Weber to Walter Christaller and August Lösch.

Core journals

If an academic discipline is identified by its journals, then technically regional science began in 1955 with the publication of the first volume of the *Papers and Proceedings, Regional Science Association* (now *Papers in Regional Science* published by Springer). In 1958, the *Journal of Regional Science* followed. Since the 1970s, the number of journals serving the field has exploded. The RSAI website displays most of them.

Most recently the journal *Spatial Economic Analysis* has been published by the RSAI British and Irish Section with the *Regional Studies Association*. The latter is a separate and growing organisation involving economists, planners, geographers, political scientists, management academics, policymakers, and practitioners.^[5]

Academic programs

Walter Isard's efforts culminated in the creation of a few academic departments and several university-wide programs in regional science. At Walter Isard's suggestion, the University of Pennsylvania started the *Regional Science Department* in 1956. It featured as its first graduate William Alonso and was looked upon by many to be the

international academic leader for the field. Another important graduate and faculty member of the department is Masahisa Fujita. The core curriculum of this department was microeconomics, input-output analysis, location theory, and statistics. Faculty also taught courses in mathematical programming, transportation economics, labor economics, energy and ecological policy modeling, spatial statistics, spatial interaction theory and models, benefit/cost analysis, urban and regional analysis, and economic development theory, among others. But the department's unusual multidisciplinary orientation undoubtedly encouraged its demise, and it lost its department status in 1993.^[6]

With a few exceptions, such as Cornell University, which awards graduate degrees in Regional Science,^[7] most practitioners hold positions in departments such as economics, geography, civil engineering, agricultural economics, rural sociology, urban planning, public policy, or demography. The diversity of disciplines participating in regional science have helped make it one of the most interesting and fruitful fields of academic specialization, but it has also made it difficult to fit the many perspectives into a curriculum for an academic major. It is even difficult for authors to write regional science textbooks, since what is elementary knowledge for one discipline might be entirely novel for another.^[8]

Public policy impact

Part of the movement was, and continues to be, associated with the political and economic realities of the role of the local community. On any occasion where public policy is directed at the sub-national level, such as a city or group of counties, the methods of regional science can prove useful. Traditionally, regional science has provided policymakers with guidance on the following issues:^[9]

- Determinants of industrial location (both within the nation and region)
- Regional economic impact of the arrival or departure of a firm
- Determinants of internal migration patterns and land-use change
- Regional specialization and exchange
- Environmental impacts of social and economic change
- Geographic association of economic and social conditions

By targeting federal resources to specific geographic areas the Kennedy administration realized that political favors could be bought.^[10] This is also evident in Europe and other places where local economic areas do not coincide with political boundaries. In the more current era of devolution knowledge about "local solutions to local problems" has driven much of the interest in regional science. Thus, there has been much political impetus to the growth of the discipline.^[12,13,15]

Developments after 1980

Regional science has enjoyed mixed fortunes since the 1980s. While it has gained a larger following among economists and public policy practitioners, the discipline has fallen out of favor among more radical and post-modernist geographers. In an apparent effort to secure a larger share of research funds, geographers had the National Science Foundation's Geography and Regional Science Program renamed "Geography and Spatial Sciences".

New economic geography

In 1991, Paul Krugman, as a highly regarded international trade theorist, put out a call for economists to pay more attention to economic geography in a book entitled *Geography and Trade*, focusing largely on the core regional science concept of agglomeration economies. Krugman's call renewed interest by economists in regional science and, perhaps more importantly, founded what some term the "new economic geography", which enjoys much common ground with regional science. Broadly trained "new economic geographers" combine quantitative work with other research techniques, for example at the London School of Economics. The unification of Europe and the increased internationalization of the world's economic, social, and political realms has further induced interest in the study of regional, as opposed to national, phenomena. The new economic geography appears to have garnered more interest in Europe than in America where amenities, notably climate, have been found to better predict human location and re-location patterns, as emphasized in recent work by Mark Partridge.^[11] In 2008 Krugman won the Nobel Memorial Prize in Economic Sciences and his Prize Lecture has references both to work in regional science's location theory as well as economic's trade theory.^[12]

Criticisms

Today there are dwindling numbers of regional scientists from academic planning programs and mainstream geography departments. Attacks on regional science's practitioners by radical critics began as early as the 1970s, notably David Harvey who believed it lacked social and political commitment. Regional science's founder, Walter Isard, never envisioned regional scientists would be political or planning activists. In fact, he suggested that they will seek to be sitting in front of a computer and surrounded by research assistants. Trevor J. Barnes suggests the decline of regional science practice among planners and geographers in North America could have been avoided. He says "It is unreflective, and consequently inured to change, because of a commitment to a God's eye view. It is so convinced of its own rightness, of its Archimedean position, that it remained aloof and invariant, rather than being sensitive to its changing local context."^[13]

Results

Urban planning, also known as town planning, city planning, regional planning, or rural planning, is a technical and political process that is focused on the development and design of land use and the built environment, including air, water, and the infrastructure passing into and out of urban areas, such as transportation, communications, and distribution networks and their accessibility.^[1] Many professional practitioners of urban planning, especially practitioners with the title "urban planner" study urban planning education, while some paraprofessional practitioners are educated in urban studies;^{[2][3][4]} others study and work in urban policy - the aspect of public policy used in the public administration subfield of political science that is most aligned with urban planning.^{[5][6]} Traditionally, urban planning followed a top-down approach in master planning the physical layout of human settlements.^[7] The primary concern was the public welfare,^{[1][7]} which included considerations of efficiency, sanitation, protection and use of the environment,^[1] as well as effects of the master plans on the social and economic activities.^[8] Over time, urban planning has adopted a focus on the social and environmental bottom-lines that focus on planning as a tool to improve the health and well-being of people while maintaining sustainability standards. Sustainable development was added as one of the main goals of all planning endeavors in the late 20th century when the detrimental economic and the environmental impacts of the previous models of planning had become apparent^[17,18,19] Similarly, in the early 21st century, Jane Jacobs's writings on legal and political perspectives to emphasize the interests of residents, businesses and communities effectively influenced urban planners to take into broader consideration of resident experiences and needs while planning.

Urban planning answers questions about how people will live, work and play in a given area and thus, guides orderly development in urban, suburban and rural areas.^[9] Although predominantly concerned with the planning of settlements and communities, urban planners are also responsible for planning the efficient transportation of goods, resources, people and waste; the distribution of basic necessities such as water and electricity; a sense of inclusion and opportunity for people of all kinds, culture and needs; economic growth or business development; improving health and conserving areas of natural environmental significance that actively contributes to reduction in CO₂ emissions^[10] as well as protecting heritage structures and built environments. Since most urban planning teams consist of highly educated individuals that work for city governments,^[11] recent debates focus on how to involve more community members in city planning processes.

Urban planning is an interdisciplinary field that includes aspects of civil engineering, architecture, geography, political science, environmental studies, design sciences, history, economics, sociology, anthropology, business administration, and other fields. Practitioners of urban planning are concerned with research and analysis, strategic thinking, engineering architecture, urban design, public consultation, policy recommendations, implementation and management.^[7] It is closely related to the field of urban design and some urban planners provide designs for streets, parks, buildings and other urban areas.^[12] Urban planners work with the cognate fields of civil engineering, landscape architecture, architecture, and public administration - especially the urban policy field of public administration -^{[5][6]} to achieve strategic, policy and sustainability goals. Early urban planners were often members of these cognate fields though today, urban planning is a separate, independent professional discipline. The discipline of urban planning is the broader category that includes different sub-fields such as land-use planning, zoning, economic development, environmental planning, and transportation planning.^[13] Creating the plans requires a thorough understanding of penal codes and zonal codes of planning.

Another important aspect of urban planning is that the range of urban planning projects include the large-scale master planning of empty sites or Greenfield projects as well as small-scale interventions and refurbishments of existing structures, buildings and public spaces. Pierre Charles L'Enfant in Washington, D.C., Daniel Burnham in

Chicago, Lúcio Costa in Brasília and Georges-Eugene Haussmann in Paris planned cities from scratch, and Robert Moses and Le Corbusier refurbished and transformed cities and neighborhoods to meet their ideas of urban planning.^[14]

History



1852 city plan of Pori by G. T. von



Chiewitz Berlin - Siegessäule. August 1963. Spacious and organized city planning in Germany was official government policy dating back to Nazi rule.^[15]

There is evidence of urban planning and designed communities dating back to the Mesopotamian, Indus Valley, Minoan, and Egyptian civilizations in the third millennium BCE. Archaeologists studying the ruins of cities in these areas find paved streets that were laid out at right angles in a grid pattern.^[16] The idea of a planned out urban area evolved as different civilizations adopted it. Beginning in the 8th century BCE, Greek city states primarily used orthogonal (or grid-like) plans.^[17] Hippodamus of Miletus (498–408 BC), the ancient Greek architect and urban planner, is considered to be "the father of European urban planning", and the namesake of the "Hippodamian plan" (grid plan) of city layout.^[18]

The ancient Romans, inspired by the Greeks, also used orthogonal plans for their cities. City planning in the Roman world was developed for military defense and public convenience. The spread of the Roman Empire subsequently spread the ideas of urban planning. As the Roman Empire declined, these ideas slowly disappeared. However, many cities in Europe still held onto the planned Roman city center. Cities in Europe from the 9th to 14th centuries, often grew organically and sometimes chaotically. But in the following centuries with the coming of the Renaissance many new cities were enlarged with newly planned extensions.^[19] From the 15th century on, much more is recorded of urban design and the people that were involved. In this period, theoretical treatises on architecture and urban planning start to appear in which theoretical questions around planning the main lines, ensuring plans meet the needs of the given population and so forth are addressed and designs of towns and cities are described and depicted. During the Enlightenment period, several European rulers ambitiously attempted to redesign capital cities. During the Second French Empire, Baron Georges-Eugène Haussmann, under the direction of Napoleon III, redesigned the city of Paris into a more modern capital, with long, straight, wide boulevards.^[20]

Planning and architecture went through a paradigm shift at the turn of the 20th century. The industrialized cities of the 19th century grew at a tremendous rate. The evils of urban life for the working poor were becoming increasingly evident as a matter of public concern. The laissez-faire style of government management of the economy, in fashion for most of the Victorian era, was starting to give way to a New Liberalism that championed intervention on the part of the poor and disadvantaged. Around 1900, theorists began developing urban planning models to mitigate the consequences of the industrial age, by providing citizens, especially factory workers, with healthier environments. The following century would therefore be globally dominated by a central planning approach to urban planning, not necessarily representing an increment in the overall quality of the urban realm.[19,20,21]

At the beginning of the 20th century, urban planning began to be recognized as a separate profession. The Town and Country Planning Association was founded in 1899 and the first academic course in Great Britain on urban planning was offered by the University of Liverpool in 1909.^[21] In the 1920s, the ideas of modernism and uniformity began to surface in urban planning, and lasted until the 1970s. In 1933, Le Corbusier presented the Radiant City, a city that grows up in the form of towers, as a solution to the problem of pollution and over-crowding. But many planners started to believe that the ideas of modernism in urban planning led to higher crime rates and social problems.^{[8][22]}

In the second half of the 20th century, urban planners gradually shifted their focus to individualism and diversity in urban centers.^[23]

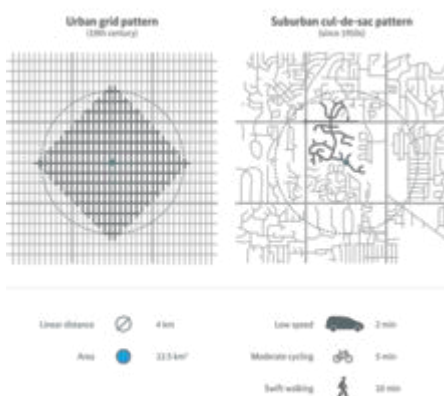
21st century practices

Urban planners studying the effects of increasing congestion in urban areas began to address the externalities, the negative impacts caused by induced demand from larger highway systems in western countries such as in the United States. The United Nations Department of Economic and Social Affairs predicted in 2018 that around 2.5 billion more people occupy urban areas by 2050 according to population elements of global migration. New planning theories have adopted non-traditional concepts such as Blue Zones and Innovation Districts to incorporate geographic areas within the city that allow for novel business development and the prioritization of infrastructure that would assist with improving the quality of life of citizens by extending their potential lifespan.

Planning practices have incorporated policy changes to help address anthropocentric global climate change. London began to charge a congestion charge for cars trying to access already crowded places in the city.^[24] Cities nowadays stress the importance of public transit and cycling by adopting such policies.

Theories

Street Hierarchy and Accessibility



TUMI Street Hierarchy and Accessibility

Planning theory is the body of scientific concepts, definitions, behavioral relationships, and assumptions that define the body of knowledge of urban planning. There are eight procedural theories of planning that remain the principal theories of planning procedure today: the rational-comprehensive approach, the incremental approach, the transactive approach, the communicative approach, the advocacy approach, the equity approach, the radical approach, and the humanist or phenomenological approach.^[25] Some other conceptual planning theories include Ebenezer Howard's The Three Magnets theory that he envisioned for the future of British settlement, also his Garden Cities, the Concentric Model

Zone also called the Burgess Model by sociologist Ernest Burgess, the Radburn Superblock that encourages pedestrian movement, the Sector Model and the Multiple Nuclei Model among others.^[26]

Technical aspects

Technical aspects of urban planning involve the application of scientific, technical processes, considerations and features that are involved in planning for land use, urban design, natural resources, transportation, and infrastructure. Urban planning includes techniques such as: predicting population growth, zoning, geographic mapping and analysis, analyzing park space, surveying the water supply, identifying transportation patterns, recognizing food supply demands, allocating healthcare and social services, and analyzing the impact of land use.

In order to predict how cities will develop and estimate the effects of their interventions, planners use various models. These models can be used to indicate relationships and patterns in demographic, geographic, and economic data. They might deal with short-term issues such as how people move through cities, or long-term issues such as land use and growth.^[27] One such model is the Geographic Information System (GIS) that is used to create a model of the existing planning and then to project future impacts on the society, economy and environment.

Building codes and other regulations dovetail with urban planning by governing how cities are constructed and used from the individual level.^[28] Enforcement methodologies include governmental zoning, planning permissions, and building codes,^[1] as well as private easements and restrictive covenants.^[29]

Urban planners

An urban planner is a professional who works in the field of urban planning for the purpose of optimizing the effectiveness of a community's land use and infrastructure. They formulate plans for the development and management of urban and suburban areas, typically analyzing land use compatibility as well as economic, environmental and social trends. In developing any plan for a community (whether commercial, residential, agricultural, natural or recreational), urban planners must consider a wide array of issues including sustainability, existing and potential pollution, transport including potential congestion, crime, land values, economic development, social equity, zoning codes, and other legislation.

The importance of the urban planner is increasing in the 21st century, as modern society begins to face issues of increased population growth, climate change and unsustainable development.^{[30][31]} An urban planner could be considered a green collar professional.^[32]

Some researchers suggest that urban planners around the world work in different "planning cultures", adapted to their local cities and cultures.^[33] However, professionals have identified skills, abilities and basic knowledge sets that are common to urban planners across national and regional boundaries.^{[34][35][36]}

Participatory urban planning

Participatory planning in the United States emerged during the 1960s and 1970s.^[37] At the same time, participatory planning began to enter the development field, with similar characteristics and agendas.^[38] There are many notable urban planners and activists whose work facilitated and shaped participatory planning movements. Jane Jacobs and her work is one of the most significant contributions to participatory planning because of the influence it had across the entire United States. There has also been a recent emergence in engaging youth in urban planning education.

Education

Many professional practitioners of urban planning, especially practitioners with the title "urban planner" study urban planning education, while some paraprofessional practitioners are educated in urban studies,^{[2][3][4]} others study and work in urban policy - the aspect of public policy used in the public administration subfield of political science that is most aligned with urban planning.^{[5][6]}

Criticisms and debates

The school of neoclassical economics argues that planning is unnecessary, or even harmful, because market efficiency allows for effective land use.^[39] A pluralist strain of political thinking argues in a similar vein that the government should not intrude in the political competition between different interest groups which decides how land is

used.^[39] The traditional justification for urban planning has in response been that the planner does to the city what the engineer or architect does to the home, that is, make it more amenable to the needs and preferences of its inhabitants.^[39]

The widely adopted consensus-building model of planning, which seeks to accommodate different preferences within the community has been criticized for being based upon, rather than challenging, the power structures of the community.^[40] Instead, agonism has been proposed as a framework for urban planning decision-making.^[40]

Another debate within the urban planning field is about who is included and excluded in the urban planning decision-making process. Most urban planning processes use a top-down approach which fails to include the residents of the places where urban planners and city officials are working. Sherry Arnstein's "ladder of citizen participation" is oftentimes used by many urban planners and city governments to determine the degree of inclusivity or exclusivity of their urban planning.^[41] One main source of engagement between city officials and residents are city council meetings that are open to the residents and that welcome public comments. Additionally, there are some federal requirements for citizen participation in government-funded infrastructure projects.^[11]

Many urban planners and planning agencies rely on community input for their policies and zoning plans. How effective community engagement is can be determined by how member's voices are heard and implemented.^[21,22,23]

Conclusions

A development plan sets out a local authority's policies and proposals for land use in their area.^[2] The term is usually used in the United Kingdom. A Local Plan is one type of development plan. The development plan guides and shapes day-to-day decisions as to whether or not planning permission should be granted, under the system known as development control (development management in Scotland). In order to ensure that these decisions are rational and consistent, they must be considered against the development plan adopted by the authority, after public consultation and having proper regard for other material factors.

Section 38(6) of the Planning and Compulsory Purchase Act 2004 (replacing Section 25 of Town and Country Planning (Scotland) Act 1997 and Section 54A of the Town and Country Planning Act 1990) requires that decisions made should be in accordance with the development plan unless material considerations indicate otherwise.^[3] Although development plans do not have to be rigidly adhered to, they provide a firm basis for rational and consistent planning decisions.^[25]

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