

Spatial Planning in India : A Preliminary Classification of Existing Models

**Christopher Joseph
Kavia Satheesh**



**Politecnico
di Torino**

Research Thesis for MSc in
Territorial, Urban, Environmental and Landscape Planning
AY 2024/2025

Planning for the Global Urban Agenda

"Spatial Planning in India: A Preliminary Classification of Existing Models"

By

Christopher Joseph and Kavia Satheesh

Supervisor(s):

Prof. Giancarlo Cotella, Politecnico di Torino, Italy

Politecnico di Torino
2025

Declaration

We hereby declare that the contents and organization of this research thesis constitute our own original work and does not compromise in any way the rights of third parties, including those relating to the security of personal data.

Christopher Joseph and Kavia Satheesh

2025

Acknowledgment

First and foremost, we would like to take this opportunity to express our deepest gratitude to Prof. Giancarlo Cotella, our supervisor at Politecnico di Torino, for his invaluable guidance, insightful feedback, and unwavering support throughout the course of this research. His vast experience in the realm of territorial, urban, environmental and landscape planning has contributed to the orientation and quality of the research. We also want to thank the faculty and staff of the DIST department of the Politecnico di Torino who presented us with a great academic environment and the resources needed to perform this study.

In addition, we are also grateful to our colleagues and peers who gave us moral support and valuable discussions that made our research experience more fulfilling. We humbly thank our family and friends who have shown a lot of patience and motivation throughout our journey.

Finally, we appreciate the opportunity to pursue our masters at Politecnico di Torino, Italy which has broadened our academic and cultural horizons.

Abstract

This Master Thesis contributes to comparative spatial planning studies, exploring the different territorial governance and planning systems across India's states and Union Territories, and classifying according to the differential capacity to control spatial development that they grant to the public authority. The scarcity and fragmentation of the studies that compare spatial governance and planning in the global south constitute a significant gap in understanding the 'institutional technologies' allowing and organizing this fundamental societal activity beyond the European context. Aiming at contributing to this field of study, this research builds on the theoretical and conceptual framework adopted by the ESPON COMPASS research project to propose an Indian typology on the capacity of public authorities to control spatial development, an important part for the life of entire cities, regions and states within India. The comparative framework draws extensively from European spatial planning typologies while adapting analytical dimensions to address India's unique federal structure and diverse regional contexts. The research methodology employed a systematic qualitative approach combining secondary data analysis from government reports, academic literature, and official documents with primary research through semi-structured interviews. This methodological approach enables a comprehensive assessment of planning frameworks at multiple governance levels, from national policies to local implementation mechanisms. The research reveals that India's spatial planning landscape has a noticeable heterogeneity within a framework that is influenced by its geographic, socio-economic, cultural and historical factors. The 74th Constitutional Amendment Act of 1992 emerges as a legislation that helps shape diverse planning systems through the distribution of powers to local bodies, yet the implementation varies across regions. The evidence emerging from the analysis allows for the classification of the various States and Union's Territories that compose the country into distinct types of spatial governance and planning systems. More in detail, the different regional systems are classified according to the differential power relations linking the state and the market in the definition of development decisions, as well as to the models chosen to distribute land use and transformation rights. A prevalence of conformative rather than performative planning can be observed throughout the country, while the northeastern states have been setting up distinctive performative practices conditioned by traditional land tenure systems and tribal systems of governance. At the same time, the study shows that, while public participation

mechanisms exist across the systems, actual citizen involvement remains largely limited to consultation rather than shared decision-making.

Keywords

Spatial governance and planning systems; comparative planning studies; public participation; spatial development; spatial planning models; public control; India.

Contents

Contents	1
List of Figures.....	4
List of Tables	6
List of Acronyms and Abbreviations	7
1. Introduction.....	9
1.1 Spatial Planning and Comparative Frameworks	9
1.2 India and spatial planning systems	10
1.2.1 Critical challenges in Indian Spatial Planning	11
1.2.2 The Case for Comparative Planning Studies	11
1.3 Objective and research questions	13
1.4 Structure of the thesis	13
2. Theoretical Framework.....	16
2.1 Introduction	16
2.2 Spatial Planning Systems	17
2.2.1 The Evolution Of Comparative Analysis In Spatial Planning	17
2.2.2 Four Analytical Dimensions of Planning System.....	19
2.2.3 Models of Spatial Planning Systems	20
2.3 Spatial governance and planning systems in the public control of spatial development: a European typology	22
2.4 Streamline democratic values in planning systems	24
2.4.1 Introduction.....	24
2.4.2 Theoretical Findings	25
2.4.3 Key Findings.....	25
3. Methodology	27
3.1 Desk Research - Secondary Research Methodology	27
3.2 Primary Research Methodology - Semi Structured Interviews	28
3.3 Comparative Methodological Framework.....	30

4. Indian Territorial Governance and Spatial Planning	31
4.1 The History of India	31
4.1.1 Pre-Colonial Period.....	31
4.1.2 Colonial Period	34
4.1.3 Independence and post-colonial Period	36
4.2 Structure of Indian Territorial Governance	41
4.2.1 Governance and its form.....	41
4.2.2 Administrative Governance division and Structure.....	43
4.2.3 Districts - Primary administrative units	44
4.2.4 Rural and Urban local government.....	45
4.3 Spatial Planning Tools.....	45
4.3.1 History and evolution of Planning tools	45
4.3.2 Different Levels of Planning.....	46
4.4 Discourse in Spatial Planning System.....	49
4.4.1 Five-Year Planning System of the Past	50
4.4.2 Spatial Planning Systems at different levels.....	51
4.4.3 Emergence of a New Institution: NITI Commission (NITI Aayog)	53
4.4.4 Capital Region Planning System	53
4.4.5 The Development of Master Plans.....	54
4.5 Territorial Governance Practices in India.....	55
4.5.1 Kerala, India: “Kerala Model Development”	57
5. Indian States and Union Territories	65
5.1 States.....	66
5.1.1 Northern States	68
5.1.2 Central States	74
5.1.3 Eastern States	81
5.1.4 North Eastern States.....	88

5.1.5 Western States.....	99
5.1.6 Southern States	102
5.2 Union Territories	111
5.3 Data synthesis of the States and Union territories.....	125
6. An Indian typology of spatial governance and planning systems	129
6.1 Indian Systems with respect to the models of planning and of spatial development.....	129
6.2 An Indian Typology of spatial governance and planning systems.....	139
6.3 Positioning Indian systems with respect to public participation in spatial development	144
7. Conclusion and Future Research Perspectives	149
7.1 Results	149
7.2 Limitations.....	152
7.2.1 Scale and Complexity	152
7.2.2 Theoretical Ideals vs Practical Realities	153
7.2.3 Overdependence on Desk Research Methodology	153
7.3 Conclusion.....	155
7.4 Future Research Perspective.....	156
8. References.....	159

List of Figures

Figure 1: Simplified pattern of planning system evolution	19
Figure 2: Simplified model of planning system operation.....	20
Figure 3: Three models of SGPSs as institutional technologies	21
Figure 4: Positions of European SGPSs with respect to the models (X) of spatial planning and (Y) of spatial development	23
Figure 5: Typology of European SGPSs with respect to the capacity for public control of spatial development.....	24
Figure 6: Interview Questionnaire	29
Figure 7: The key characteristics of the planning system in contemporary India	49
Figure 8: Regional division, states and LSGs of Kerala	57
Figure 9: Local Government System in Kerala	58
Figure 10: Milestones in Decentralisation Initiatives in Kerala.....	62
Figure 11: Participatory planning process in People's Planning	63
Figure 12: Selected Activities and Achievements of the Kerala People's Campaign 1996–2001 and continuing to 2007.....	63
Figure 13: Pre Independence Indian Regional Divisions	65
Figure 14: States, Union territories and its Capitals (2024)	66
Figure 15: Indian Regional Divisions of States	67
Figure 16: Indian Regional Divisions of States: Northern States	68
Figure 17: Indian Regional Division of States: Central States	74
Figure 18: Proposed Landuse Plan 2035: Datia Development Plan	77
Figure 19: Proposed land use : Dehradun Master Plan 2041	79
Figure 20: Indian Regional Divisions of States: Eastern States	81
Figure 21: Proposed Land Use Map including Master Land Use plan of the New Town Planning Area Proposed Landuse from the Kolkata City Development Plan (CDP)	87
Figure 22: Indian Regional Divisions of States: North Eastern States	88

Figure 23: Indian Regional Divisions of States: Western States	99
Figure 24: Indian Regional Divisions of States: Southern States	102
Figure 25: Indian Union Territories	112
Figure 26: Master Plan 2031: Chandigarh, India	114
Figure 27: Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Daman and Diu	116
Figure 28: National Capital Region	118
Figure 29: Land use plan - J&K Master Plan 2032	119
Figure 30: Land use plan - Srinagar Master Plan-2035	120
Figure 31: Existing Spatial Planning Division Plan - Ladakh	121
Figure 32: Structure of Lakshadweep Spatial Planning and Governance ...	122
Figure 33: Map of Indian SGPSs with respect to the models of spatial planning (based on: Knieling, Janin Rivolin, Seixas, & Vladova, 2016)	134
Figure 34: Map of Indian SGPSs with respect to the models of spatial development (based on: Berisha, et al., 2021)	137
Figure 35: Positions of Indian SGPSs with respect to the models (X) of spatial planning and (Y) of spatial development	138
Figure 36: Typology of Indian SGPSs with respect to the capacity for public control of spatial development	140
Figure 37: Map of Indian SGPSs with respect to the capacity for public control of spatial development	141
Figure 38: Map of Indian SGPSs with respect to Public Participation Mechanisms	145
Figure 39: Positions of Indian SGPSs with respect to public participation mechanisms of the systems in Indian typologies of capacity for public control of spatial development	147
Figure 40: Typology of Indian and European SGPSs with respect to the capacity for public control of spatial development	151

List of Tables

<i>Table 1: Planning system typologies</i>	18
<i>Table 2: The EU Compendium ideal types of planning traditions</i>	18
<i>Table 3: District-wise Number of Rural and Urban Local Bodies in Kerala.</i>	61
<i>Table 4: Data synthesis of the States and Union territories - 1.....</i>	126
<i>Table 5: Data synthesis of the States and Union territories - 2.....</i>	127
<i>Table 6: Data synthesis of the States and Union territories - 3.....</i>	128
<i>Table 7: Scores attributed to SGPSs according to respective positions between conformative / performative models of planning.....</i>	131
<i>Table 8: Scores attributed to SGPSs according to respective positions between state-led / market-led models of spatial development.....</i>	131

List of Acronyms and Abbreviations

ABD	Area Based Development
ANIAPCC	Andaman and Nicobar Islands Action Plan on Climate Change
CAP	Climate Action Plan
CEC	Commission of the European Communities
CIAM	Congress Internationaux d'Architecture Moderne
COMPASS	Comparative Analysis of Territorial Governance and
CRZ	Coastal Regulation Zones
DDA	Delhi Development Authority
DNHPDA	Dadra and Nagar Haveli Planning and Development
DTCP	Department of Town & Country Planning
EPZ	Export Processing Zone
ESPON	European Spatial Planning Observation Network
EU	European Union
FTZ	Free Trade Zone
GIZ	Deutsche Gesellschaft für Internationale Zusammenarbeit
H&UDD	Housing and Urban Development Department
IIMPs	Integrated Island Management Plans
ITPI	Institute of Town Planners India
LSGs	Local Self Governments
LUP-M	Land Use Planning and Management Project
MoHUA	Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs
MSP	Marine Spatial Planning
NCR	National Capital Region
NCRPB	National Capital Region Planning Board
NGO	Non-Governmental Organization
NITI Aayog	National Institution for Transforming India Aayog
NSDI	National Spatial Data Infrastructure

ODP	Outline Development Plans
PDP	Panchayat Development Plan
PM-UDAY	Pradhan Mantri Unauthorized Colonies in Delhi Awas Yojana
PPP	Public Private Partnership
RERA	Real Estate Regulatory Authority
RPG-2021	Revised Regional Plan of Goa-2021
RUC	Urban rural continuum
SDG	Sustainable Development Goals
SEA	Strategic Environmental Assessment
SEAMF	Social and Environmental Assessment Management Framework
SEZ	Special Economic Zone
SGPS	Spatial Governance and Planning System
SGPSs	Spatial Governance and Planning Systems
SPC	State Planning Commission
SSP	Strategic Spatial Planning
SOTR	State Owned Tax Revenue
SPZ	Special Political Zones
TCP	Town and Country Planning
TCPO	Town and Country Planning Organization
TDR	Transferable Development Rights
TOD	Transit Oriented Development
TPO	Town Planning Organization
TPS	Town Planning Schemes
UDA	Urban Development Authority
ULB	Urban Local Body

Chapter 1

Introduction

1.1 Spatial Planning and Comparative Frameworks

Spatial planning systems play an organized role in managing where various activities take place geographically, dealing with different interests of the state, the market, and communities (Janin Rivolin, 2012). From simple solutions to industrialization dynamics in the early 20th century, these systems have developed into detailed, multi-level approaches that connect economic, social, cultural, and ecological concerns with regional settings.

The gradual development of the spatial planning systems and comparative methodologies in Europe shows a very complicated influence of post-war reconstruction and economic development. It evolved from distinct national models associated with culture and political contexts to international frameworks helping transnational and cross-border cooperation. This development shows how planning has evolved from a tool for territorial development to a process that addresses challenges like climate resilience and digital equity. Transformations in state-society relations have brought about changes in spatial planning, from mainly rules-based strategies to those that mix public authority, market activities, and input from the community. In many nations, there are different types of spatial planning systems, starting with strongly centralized ones that depend on binding rules all the way to flexible options that let cases be dealt with on their own merits within broad guidelines. (Berisha et al., 2021)

If spatial planning is to achieve effective public control over space, the way rights to use and develop physical space are established is very significant (Berisha et al., 2024). The effect covers areas from the community to nationwide, producing formal spatial plans to manage how development happens. Different types of planning develop together with how societies are organized and led, leading to a wide range of national and subnational methods globally.

Contemporary planning in Europe shows a wide range of ways to distribute development rights and oversee spatial development. Drawing on the work of Berisha et al. (2021) on 39 European systems, we notice that they can be arranged on two main scales: ones that emphasis conformative or performative planning and those that rely on state or market-led development. With conformative models, land use and growth are defined and limited by ex-ante, prescriptive zoning plans, while performative models focus on the production of indicative strategies that then shall guide decision making case by case. In the non-EU Western Balkan regions, six systems demonstrate a conformative type with hierarchy, where approval of local binding plans that are basic in coverage yet detailed and firm results in giving spatial development rights. On the other hand, twelve of the thirteen systems in Mediterranean regions have special general plans where the authorities allocate land use and building rights, but still keep separate methods for revising the arrangements. Oftentimes, planners in Northern and Western Europe prefer to defer general allocation plans until specific settlements have been made with landowners and developers involved (Berisha et al., 2021).

Whereas the European continent and, to a lesser extent, other contexts from the global north, have since the end of the 1980s been the subject of various comparative spatial planning studies, a gap still persists when it comes to the comparative analysis of spatial planning systems in the global south. Some pioneering attempts have been recently put in place in relation to Latin America contexts. Spatial governance and planning in Bolivia, Ecuador, and Peru is characterized by a reactive, rather than proactive, approach-primarily regularizing informal developments after they occur. This is driven by necessity, institutional segmentation, and weak public sector capabilities, underscoring the need for new frameworks to understand and improve planning in the global South (Blanc et al., 2022), other geographical areas remain underexplored. Acknowledging this research gap, the present research thesis aims to formulate a typology of spatial planning models in India by assessing the territorial governance and spatial planning structures across different states and union territories. It seeks to do so by identifying different patterns, characteristics, and variations in governance approaches and also ascertaining a correlation between stakeholder participation in spatial planning processes and the effectiveness of plan implementation.

1.2 India and spatial planning systems

The 74th Constitutional Amendment Act (1992) of India requires that Metropolitan and District Development Plans be made under Articles 243ZD and

243ZE, joining urban and regional planning. Yet, because there is no national spatial planning law, every state has adopted its policies in this area. All states have laws for town planning in cities, but designing rural planning rules is underdeveloped, with just Kerala, Maharashtra, and Gujarat making comprehensive rural frameworks. Even though the Delhi Development Authority's Master Plan 2021 shows ways to address issues at different scales using zonal plans and improved infrastructure, its goals are delayed because sectoral policies are not well coordinated, and the budget is often short (Singh, 2009).

1.2.1 Critical challenges in Indian Spatial Planning

In India, 95% of urban local bodies have master plans, while only 5% of rural areas operate under the formal spatial frameworks. This inequality increases the rise in peri-urban expansion, as portrayed by Delhi's National Capital Region, where the rates of conversion of agricultural lands exceed 2.3% yearly. However, the Smart Cities Mission's urban focus has fueled this divide, with less than 10% of the projects addressing rural-urban linkages. (Aijaz & Knopf, 2020).

India's way to urbanization is rather informal and has limited preventive zoning. The Master Plan of Delhi 2021 introduced slum development protocols, but only 18% of the aimed projects were achieved due to land disputes and failing to meet the funding requirements. Also, India is witnessing a rising climate-induced disasters, 12% of India's 28 states have included climate adaptation strategies into their spatial plans. (Aijaz & Knopf, 2020).

1.2.2 The Case for Comparative Planning Studies

If India were to study or compare its planning to federations where state autonomy balances well with national spatial goals, it would be more effective. The Federal Spatial Planning Act, passed in Germany in 1965, shows how viable and successful it is to let the federal government set the rules but allow important implementation to remain with individual states, yet India's National Urban Policy Framework (2022) aims for this arrangement but has not yet achieved it. To overcome spatial planning issues in India, it is necessary to compare the country's governance, urban-rural divide, and climate concerns to find situation-oriented solutions. Dialectical learning, where vertical, horizontal, and historical elements are included, helps Indian planners to make hybrid models using the most effective practices from elsewhere and what works in India. Comparative learning approaches should be set up in the framework, and progress toward international

standards should be tracked with the support of regional planning observatories. Only with this type of analytical approach will India be able to ensure fair regional growth and deal with contemporary urban and ecological needs. (Singh, 2009)

Vertical comparisons with federal nations would be of great advantage for India's planning systems. India, taking in the model of Germany's 1965 Federal Spatial Planning Act, put forward a National Urban Policy Framework in 2022, which grants federal framework competence while preserving state implementation authority. Looking at Bavaria's rural planning codes could explain India's efforts to connect urban and rural data gaps through NSDI applications in agricultural zoning. (Singh, 2009)

It is important to make a systematic comparison of India's spatial planning issues, such as how things are managed, gaps between cities and rural areas, and climate importance, to find solutions that fit the country's needs. By learning through head-to-head (vertical) comparisons within India, side-by-side (horizontal) comparisons with other countries, and by examining history (temporal), Indian planners can form unique hybrid approaches using top practices and local features.

India, during its colonial-era legacy, has shown inadequacies in managing 11.3 million slum households and 377 million urban residents. Taking in examples from Latin America's informal settlement management models shows many alternative pathways. The policy proposal should focus efforts to compare learning, so new regional planning observatories can follow progress against norms set by other countries. Only by using this type of approach can India fulfill its promise of fair and equitable growth in all regions, handle many aspects of urban living, and support ecology.

Similar to Brazil's example, India might benefit from a National Council of Urban Policy to rate all its municipalities every year against 72 selected areas. Among the recommendations are these reforms: The National Planning Observatory brings together different groups to examine policies across different countries. These units are staffed by planners who have learned by applying both sides of a debate. Municipal Peer Networks help 4,000+ ULBs trade information and learn from peers in the Global South in real time. Thinking about strategies for development in a continuous, reflective way and not just in academic settings can enable India to find local solutions appropriate for the global SDGs. The model used in Latin America, mixing active citizen involvement, distinctive culture, and

innovation, can successfully serve India's urban population of 600 million in 2030. (Vidyarthi, 2017)

1.3 Objective and research questions

The main objective of the research is to take inspiration from existing comparative spatial planning studies produced in relation to the European continent, in relation to the public control of spatial development, to establish a theoretical foundation for the study of spatial planning in India. In this way, the present research work aims at devising a typology of spatial planning models in India by assessing the various territorial governance and spatial planning models that characterize the different states and union territories. It seeks to do so by identifying different patterns, characteristics, and variations in governance approaches and also ascertaining a correlation between stakeholder participation in spatial planning processes and the effectiveness of plan implementation. For these objectives, the research uses a methodology that revolves around a combination of desk research, semi-structured interviews, and comparative frameworks.

With this research, we aim to find answers to a few research questions:

- i. Which spatial planning models are the most common in the states and union territories of India, and how to classify them into the typology systematically, according to their main characteristics and the organization mode that they operate?
- ii. What impact has the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act and other decentralization actions had on spatial planning models and public participation mechanisms in the various states and union territories in India?
- iii. What are the current forms of public involvement in spatial planning in Indian states and union territories, what is their variability across the typological landscapes of spatial planning? Are the Indian typologies and the mechanisms of public participation leaving any correlation?
- iv. Are there any similarities between European and Indian Spatial Planning Systems and typologies? Are there shared typological features despite contextual differences?

1.4 Structure of the thesis

The second chapter describes the theoretical foundation for analyzing spatial governance and planning systems in a comparative context. Studying the works by

Janin Rivolin (2012), Berisha et al. (2021), and Hossu et al. (2022), we explore how spatial planning systems function as institutional technologies that maintain a balance between public and private interests in shaping the territorial development. The chapter goes through evolution of comparative research in spatial planning, showing the main change from a strict legal-institutional typologies to a framework that incorporates planning cultures, adaptive capacity and implementational practices. Key models like the conformative, performative and neo-performative approaches are introduced. The chapter also discusses the importance of public participation in planning.

Chapter 3 describes the methodology used to find the territorial governance and spatial planning systems across India's diverse states and union territories. India has a complex socio-economic, political and environmental landscape, a systematic qualitative approach is taken to analyze the frameworks at multiple levels. This chapter explains the use of desk research to produce secondary data from the reports, academic literature and official documents, building the foundation for perceiving India's spatial planning diversity.

The fourth chapter deals with planning system in contemporary India, the evolution of planning system is described, starting from the pre-colonial era to Independence and post-colonial Period. The chapter explains the Structure of Indian Territorial governance is explained here, the governance division and structure. The chapter ends with explaining the challenges faced by planning practices in the country.

Chapter 5 explains how each state and union territory functions in India, how India's state government is the primary authority involved in spatial planning. In this chapter the Indian state is divided into 6 - Northern states, Central states, Eastern states, Western states, Southern states and the Union Territories.

Chapter 6 presents a comprehensive analysis of different planning approaches of Indian states and Union territories studied in the previous chapters. The 'institutional technologies' (Janin Rivolin, 2012) of Indian states and Union territories studied are compared in this chapter using some identified characteristics in order to group and define some typologies. Primarily based on the ESPON COMPASS research project to propose a European typology of SGPSs, focusing on their capacity for public control over spatial development (Berisha, et al., 2021), an Indian typology of SGPSs is prepared and proposed in relation to their capacity for public control of spatial development. And also, as a secondary objective, using

1.4 Structure of the thesis

comparative analysis methodologies, public participation mechanisms in spatial planning among the Indian states are identified and grouped which could be used for purpose of future research and the policy implications proposals.

Chapter 7 explains how India has a varied and complicated spatial planning scenario that is characterized by its diverse governance structures, regional priorities and challenges. This chapter summarizes the study carried out throughout this research, discussing mainly the results, limitations, conclusion and the future research perspectives.

Chapter 2

Theoretical Framework

2.1 Introduction

For our research thesis, we have referred to numerous articles and studies, among which three are of particular relevance:

- Janin Rivolin U. (2012) *'Planning Systems as Institutional Technologies: A Proposed Conceptualization and the Implications for Comparison'*
- Berisha, E., Cotella G., Janin Rivolin, U., Solly A. (2021) *'Spatial Governance and Planning Systems in the Public Control of Spatial Development: A European Typology'*
- Hossu et al. (2022), *'Streamline Democratic Values in Planning Systems: A Study of Participatory Practices in European Strategic Spatial Planning'*

Territorial governance and spatial planning are important aspects that guide and shape the spatial development without intruding on property rights. These systems play a crucial role in determining economies, societies, and the environment in cities, regions, and countries.

This chapter aims to construct a strong theoretical foundation to comprehend Spatial Governance and Planning Systems at a global and comparative scale. The theoretical justification of SGPS is discussed and placed within the spatial planning context as interdisciplinary research. Conflating perspectives of urban planning, geography, political science, and public administration, this chapter delves into how SGPS functions as an institutional machinery. Focus is put on establishing its trajectory of development from the rigid, state-oriented model to a more flexible, multi-actor system. Through research, the evolution of Spatial governance and planning system comparative studies is examined with utmost focus on its transformation towards an increasingly effective and global system.

2.2 Spatial Planning Systems

Spatial planning and governance systems are viewed as institutional instruments that facilitate the ability of public authorities to steer and manage spatial development, balancing property rights with public interests. These systems are essential to the socio-economic life of cities, regions, and states as they establish the land use and development rights. The paper - Spatial governance and planning systems in the public control of spatial development: a European Typology builds on the EPSON COMPASS research project, which aims to develop a European typology of SGPSs, with a particular emphasis on their potential for public control of spatial development.

Spatial planning and governance systems are considered institutional instruments that allow public authorities to steer and control spatial development, balancing property rights and public interests. They are important in the socio-economic life of nations, regions, and cities because they influence land use and development rights. The paper - Spatial governance and planning systems in the public control of spatial development: a European Typology is constructed from the EPSON COMPASS research project, and it aims to propose a European typology of SGPSs, highlighting the capability to exert public control over spatial development. (Berisha et al., 2021)

2.2.1 The Evolution Of Comparative Analysis In Spatial Planning

Drawing from the paper Janin Rivolin U. (2012) 'Planning Systems as Institutional Technologies: A Proposed Conceptualization and the Implications for Comparison', the research takes into account the development of comparative research on Spatial governance and planning systems (SGPS) in Europe. The Foundational Legal-Institutional Approach - Davies et al. (1989). This framework contrasted binding planning systems like in Germany, France with the UK discretionary non-binding system. The binding system relied on pre-determined zoning rules, with certainty but rigidity. This framework was western European specific and addressed only legal structure and not socio-economic effects.

Legal Families and Planning Traditions- Newman & Thornley (1996) This approach was titled Urban Planning in Europe and it classified European SGPS into five legal families:

LEGAL FAMILY	CHARACTERISTICS	COUNTRIES
Germanic	Rule- based, hierarchical	Germany, Austria
Napoleonic	Centralized, codified	France, Spain, Italy
British	Discretionary, flexible	UK, Ireland
Scandinavian	Welfare-state oriented	Sweden, Denmark
East European (Post-Soviet)	Transitional, weak enforcement	Poland, Hungary

Table 1: *Planning system typologies* © Based on: Nadin & Stead, 2008a, 2009

This approach did not explain why similar legal systems produced different urban outcomes and they gave more importance to legal structures, ignoring planning practices and market behaviors.

EU Compendium (CEC,1997): Ideal Types of Planning Systems: This approach introduced four “ideal types” of planning traditions.

IDEAL TYPES	DESCRIPTION	COUNTRIES
Regional Economic Planning	Focused on economic growth	France, Germany
Comprehensive Integrated	Holistic, sustainability-driven	Netherlands, Nordic states
Land Use Management	Regulatory, zoning-based	UK (post-1947)
Urbanism Tradition	Architect-led, design-focused	Southern Europe

Table 2: *The EU Compendium ideal types of planning traditions* © Based on: CEC, 1997

Here the approach moved beyond legal framework to inculcate policy integration, public-private roles and implementation effectiveness. But the system was very overgeneralized and did not take into consideration post-socialist transitions in Eastern Europe.

EPSON 2.3.2 (2007): Spreading to New EU Members- Labeled as Governance of Territorial and Urban Policies from EU to Local Level this system extended the EU Compendium to new EU members (Central/Eastern Europe). It was observed

2.2 Spatial Planning Systems

that post-socialist countries exhibited disintegrated planning systems due to rapid decentralization. While some ex. Czech Republic, Slovenia adopted Western patterns, there were others like Romania that grappled with corruption.

Knieling & Othengrafen (2009): The Cultural Turn – titled as ‘Planning culture in Europe’ the main focus shifted from institutions to planning cultures- beliefs, discourses and behaviors shaping planning. (Berisha et al., 2021)

2.2.2 Four Analytical Dimensions of Planning System

The territorial regulation is described as a social construction, which enables the command decisions of the "government system" over the "spatial production and consumption system". The social constructions are an end result of trial-and-error based creative selection processes, based on variety generation of rules and practices and competition and variety reduction of rules and practices and survival of the selected solutions (Janin Rivolin, 2012).

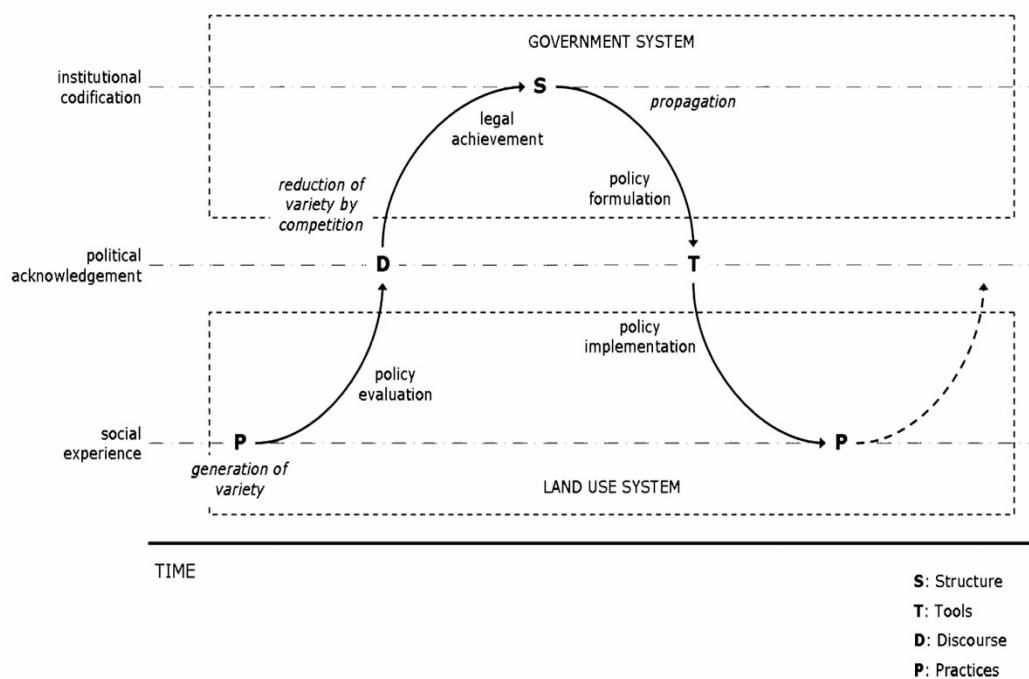


Figure 1: Simplified pattern of planning system evolution © Janin Rivolin, 2012)

The four analytical dimensions are **Structure(S)**, **Tools(T)**, **Practices(P)** and **Discourse(D)**

Structure(S) constitute a collection of constitutional and legal provisions aimed at territorial administration, they are rules of procedure, administrative structure, vertical and horizontal relations, or maybe the legitimacy of control and planning actions.

Tools(T) are all instruments of planning and control. Various kinds of plans and programs, policies, types of incentives and prohibition, control and evaluation procedures.

Practices(P) are social experience of the spatial development in local implementation.

Discourse(D) are formal and informal assessment of the specific and overall outcomes of the territorial governance (Janin Rivolin, 2012).

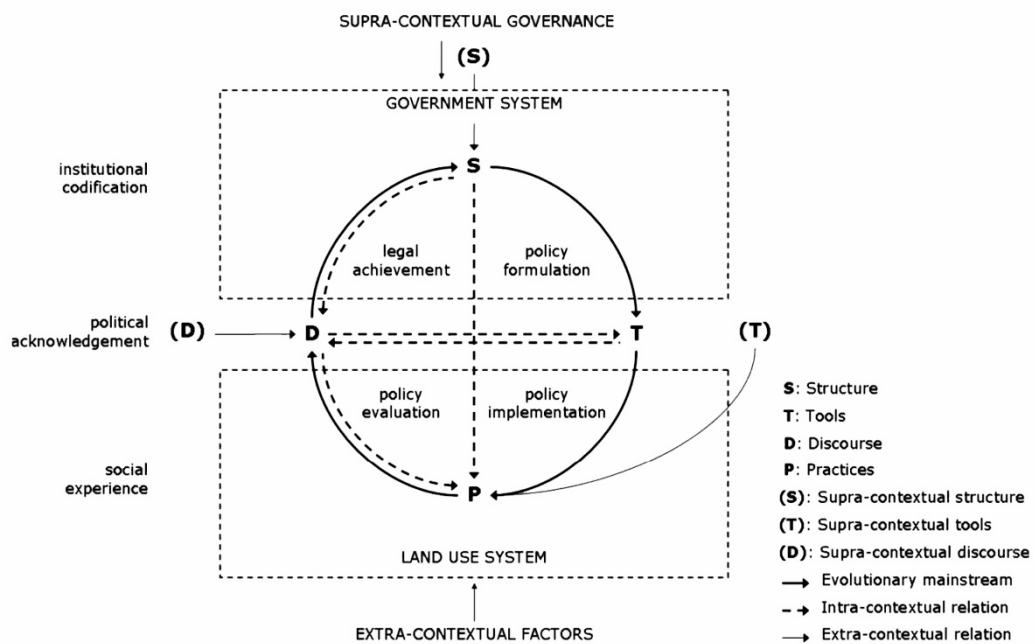


Figure 2: Simplified model of planning system operation © Janin Rivolin, 2012

2.2.3 Models of Spatial Planning Systems

SGPSs are institutional technologies that allow the public authority to guide and control the transformation of physical space through the allocation of land use and spatial development rights (Janin Rivolin, 2012).

2.2 Spatial Planning Systems

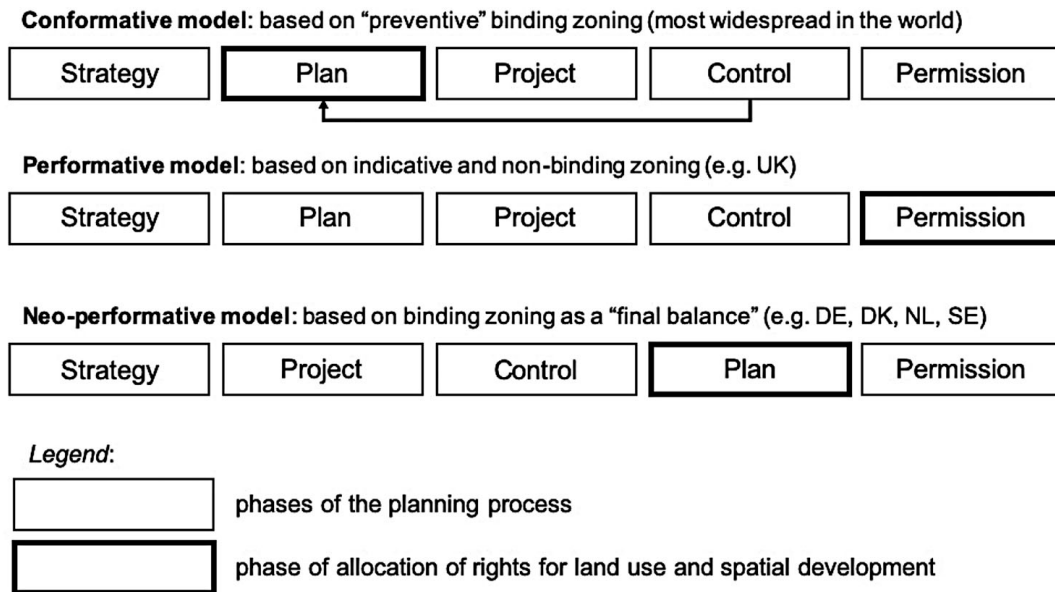


Figure 3: Three models of SGPSs as institutional technologies © Knieling, Janin Rivolin, Seixas, & Vladova, 2016

Conformative Model: The model is based on predetermined plans that manage land use and development. It's an extensive model with an offer of certainty to public authorities along with private actors but with a tendency to generate tension between public policies and market forces. The main characteristics of the model are that it has a preventive binding area, the development rights are allocated through comprehensive and detailed regulations. The building permits are granted based on adherence to pre-established plans. The countries that follow this model are France, Italy, Spain, and the majority of Eastern Europe. The drawbacks are that the model provides legal certainty, reduces discretionary decisions and protects public interests.

Performative Model: The model is based on non-binding plans, with development rights. It is associated with system such as the UK, whose choice is made on the basis of consistency of the project with public strategy. The development rights are negotiated on an individual basis and there exists planning permission discretionary. Typical countries that use this model is UK, Ireland, Malta, Cyprus. The advantages include flexible market conditions and allow negotiated planning gains.

Neo-Performative Model: It combines binding plans and negotiated, cautious development rights, which are fixed after negotiation with private agents.

Netherlands and Germany are the examples of governments where rights are transferred after negotiations with landowners and constructors. This model provides equilibrium between predictability and flexibility, facilitates public-private cooperation. (Berisha et al., 2021)

2.3 Spatial governance and planning systems in the public control of spatial development: a European typology

The EPSON COMPASS research project provides many analysis on the state of SGPSs in the 39 countries (mentioned in the figure 4 below) and the EU policies that contribute to the change of these systems. The SGPSs all belonging to non-EU countries in the Western Balkan region looks more related to conformative model of planning. In accordance with the 39 systems analyzed are positioned on the X-Y diagram. These systems have a hierarchical character and the spatial development rights is issued by the approval of local binding plans, general in terms of administrative extension but detailed in their form and rigid in their duration (Berisha et al., 2021).

The analysis led to the identification of 5 types of SGPS : State-Led Systems, Market-Led Neo -Performative Systems, Conformative Systems and Pronto-Conformative Systems, and Misled Performative Systems. State-Led Systems contain dominant state control also contains neo-performative planning with agreed-on detailed plans. Issues facing these kinds of systems include bureaucratic stiffness. Also through neoliberal alterations dilute state control such as at the time of UK after the 2008.

2.3 Spatial governance and planning systems in the public control of spatial development: a European typology

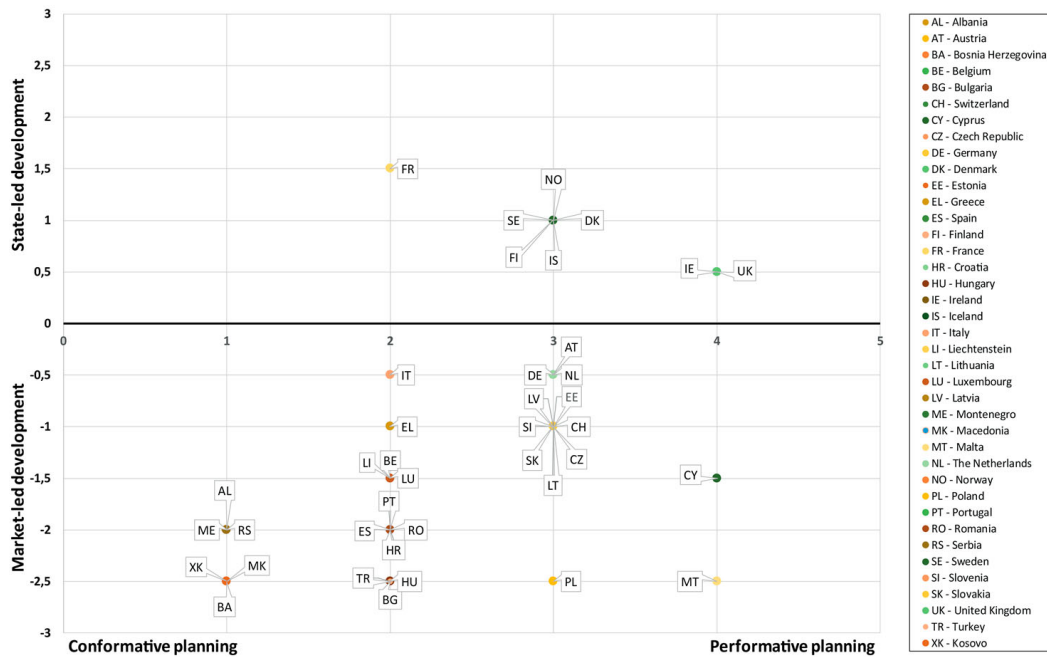


Figure 4: Positions of European SGPSs with respect to the models (X) of spatial planning and (Y) of spatial development © Berisha et al., 2021

The study reveals a variegated European landscape of SGPSs, where State-led systems (type A) and neo-performative systems (type B) offer good public control. conformative (type C) and performative systems (type E) often fail to curb market excesses. Pronto-conformative systems (type D) face systematic governance challenges (Janin Rivolin, 2012).

Type A : State-led systems (e.g. UK, France) found in Northern and Western Europe, spatial development here is driven by the state, with respect to market influence.

Type B: Market-Led Neo-Performative Systems (e.g., Netherlands, Austria) possess public-private coordination, they have rigorously negotiated agreements with developers.

Type C : Conformative systems (e.g. Spain, Italy, Portugal) have binding plans but are prone to several subsequent alterations. The implementations are thereby weak, and market-led development is witnessed.

Type D : Pronto-Conformative Systems (e.g. Albania, Serbia, Kosovo) consists of Top-down hierarchical planning with corruption, informality, and weak public control issues.

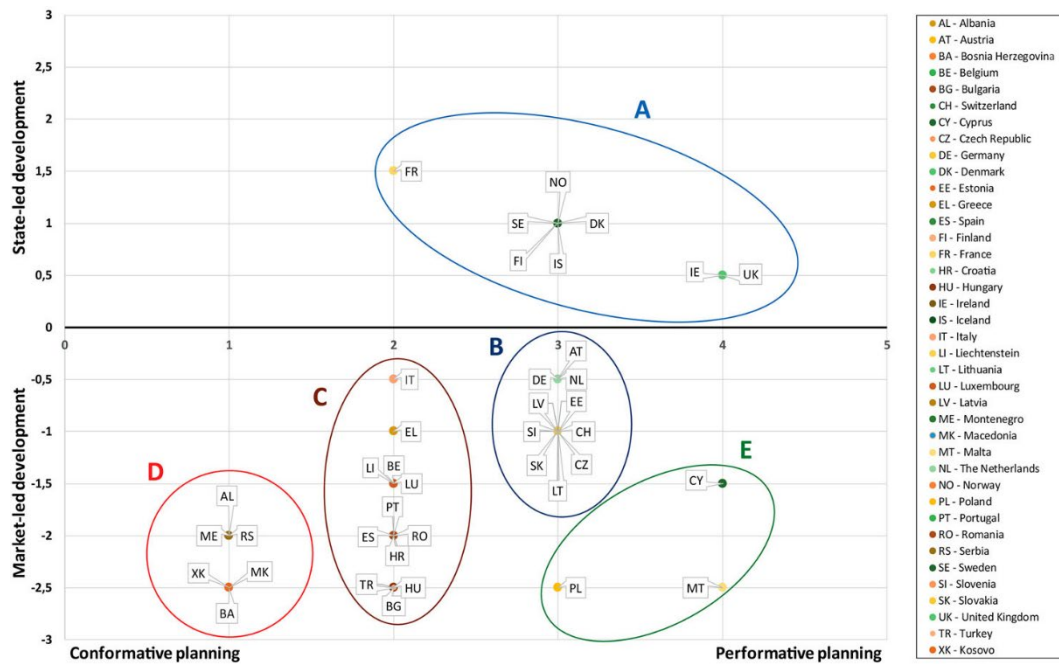


Figure 5: Typology of European SGPSs with respect to the capacity for public control of spatial development © Berisha et al., 2021

Type E: Mised Performative Systems (e.g. Poland, Cyprus, Malta) consists of ad hoc choices in favor of market interests. It is characterized by a weak state control which is amongst the disadvantages.

2.4 Streamline democratic values in planning systems

2.4.1 Introduction

This research by Hossu, Oliveira, and Nija (2022) looks at participatory practice in Strategic Spatial Planning (SSP) in Europe and how it contributes to improving the democratic quality of urban governance, improving environmental quality, and providing legitimacy for planning outcomes. SSP is a transformative, integration process comprising visioning, policy rationalization, and implementation (Albrechts et al., 2020). The author advocates on participatory

practices that are impactful for Legitimacy, Innovation and Sustainability. Gaining Legitimacy through the guarantee that decisions made include diverse interests of stakeholders (Forester, 1989), fusing strategy and professional knowledge to innovate (Sandercock, 1998), addressing socio-ecological challenges through co-production for sustainability (Ostrom, 2009). The two main frameworks that are provided are the Aarhus Convention and The New Leipzig Charter. The Aarhus Convention signed in 1998 which officially allows the public to participate in environmental decision making. The New Leipzig Charter has been newly established in 2020, this charter encourages "Co-creation" and "Co-design" in urban planning (Oliveira, E. 2022).

2.4.2 Theoretical Findings

Three theoretical findings have been developed by this study. The Deliberative Democracy (Forester, 1999) describes the public participation as a way to equitable dialogue and conflict resolution. While Collaborative Planning (Healey, 1997) focuses on the multi-stakeholder networks and social learning, this method emphasizes on "community rationality" over the top-down technocracy. Lastly, Strategic Spatial Planning (Albrechts, 2012) is shown as a flexible, adaptive process that creates a balance between a long-term vision with short term actions (Oliveira, 2022).

The researchers used a mixed methods process to draw conclusions. Systematic literature review using Scopus and Google Scholar were done. Network analysis was carried out to detect co-occurrence mapping that discovered 222 participatory practices under 5 meta-categories. According to centrality measures collective actions, digital tools, and workshops were most influential. The authors constructed a Spatial Governance Typology that placed 39 European countries into 5 SGPSs based on public influence over spatial development (Hossu et al., 2022).

2.4.3 Key Findings

It has five meta-categories that emerged from the analysis, such as Exchange knowledge-led that contains focus groups, interviews and arts-based methods to co-produce knowledge. Citizen-led contains activist movements, crowd sourcing, and grassroots movements. Collaborative-led contains advisory groups, roundtables and boundary events to broker conflicts. Adaptive approaches utilize context-sensitive tools such as workshops and polls. Detailed planning uses multi-stakeholder methods like living labs and 3D visualization tools (Hossu et al., 2022).

Public participation and their innovations may be Conventional methods like the public hearing remain in place but are increasingly supplemented by new information technologies like GIS and human-centered methodologies like living labs etc.

Variation by planning systems is observed as the State-led systems emphasize negotiation between public and private actors, while Market-led systems feature intense citizen-led participation. In contrast, Proto-confirmative system entails limited participation and relies on top-down planning. We have an examination in this article of participatory democracy's contribution to planning in urban areas, the governing models that can be compared and their impacts on SSP. Also, on the types of innovative tools like the 3D modelling, living labs for inclusive planning.

Chapter 3

Methodology

The methodological approach for understanding territorial governance and spatial planning in India needs an intricate and systematic approach considering the India's rapidly urbanizing landscape and the complex meshing of socio-economic, environmental, and political factors. This section outlines the research design and methods used to find the dynamics of territorial governance and spatial planning of India. By using qualitative research techniques, the study dissects the policies, institutional frameworks, and the practices which shapes the Indian spatial planning system at different levels.

The main research objective is to devise a typology of spatial planning models in India by assessing the territorial governance and spatial planning structures across different states and union territories. It seeks to do so by identifying different patterns, characteristics, and variations in governance approaches and also ascertain a correlation between stakeholder participation in spatial planning processes and the effectiveness of plan implementation. For these objectives, the research uses a methodology that revolves around a combination of desk research, semi-structured interviews and comparative frameworks.

3.1 Desk Research - Secondary Research Methodology

The research primarily focused on secondary data research, Desk Research, utilizing pre-existing data from various sources, such as government reports, academic journals, books, websites, or databases. The territorial governance and spatial planning of Indian states and Union territories were studied and assessed through examining planning frameworks, institutional studies, and pre-existing data collected. The diversity of spatial planning in different states and union territories to ensure that is aligns with the varying needs of each region due to various factors namely the governance structure, historical and cultural factors, socio-economic conditions and geo political situations.

The research started with gathering and synthesizing information at national level structuring the foundation of the research exploring the country's gradual formation of planning framework and the influence of local and national governmental bodies in the structural and policy formations. This was followed by the analysis of each state and union territory through scholarly articles, government reports, policies and data from the official government websites respective states and union territories. This analysis was combined with comparative analysis, explained in section 3.3, to create a synthesis of all the states and union territories.

Along with analysis of the state and union territories, a secondary data, European Commission documents, were studied to base a main reference document to follow for creating a typology for Indian states and union territories. The ESPON COMPASS research project to propose a European typology of SGPSs, focusing on their capacity for public control over spatial development (Berisha, et al., 2021), served as the main reference to form the research and some scholarly articles published between the year 2019 to 2024 augmented the comprehension of the Spatial governance execution and policy formation objectives which were later used in the Comparative Methodological Framework (section 3.3).

The secondary data served as the foundation for understanding existing knowledge and practices related to the main elements of the spatial planning discourses and practices in India which were combined with semi structured interviews and the comparative framework to structure the research.

3.2 Primary Research Methodology - Semi Structured Interviews

In a latter phase of the research, semi-structured interviews were conducted with 20 participants which includes urban planners, policymakers, local government officials, and community representatives. This is a qualitative research method that combines predetermined questions with the flexibility based on participant responses. Adept and experienced participants were selected through the process of purposive sampling. The sample included 10 policymakers (Govt. Officials from the Planning Department and practicing urban planners), 5 elected representatives of local self-governing body (Panchayat and Municipality), and 5 community representatives to ensure diverse perspectives. The interviews focused on the views, challenges, and experiences of the participants which in turn provided depth, particularly on challenges and recommendations for implementing the key

3.2 Primary Research Methodology - Semi Structured Interviews

planning tools. The interviews revolved around the following questions and explored unexpected insights based on responses of the participants.

Government Official from the Planning Department	
1	How would you describe the current state of spatial planning in India?
2	How effective is the 74th Amendment in mandating district-level spatial planning? Are there any improvements needed? Do you think that there is a need of more binding regulations?
3	What innovative techniques can be used to incorporate informal settlements into formal spatial plans in different state structures? Is it possible to have common solutions for different regions?
4	How do emerging technologies like GIS and AI influence the approach to spatial planning in the country?
5	How can spatial planning in India better align with SDGs, particularly in climate-vulnerable states like Kerala or the north eastern states?
6	How can international best practices or collaborations enhance spatial planning efforts in India?
Practicing Urban Planner	
1	How would you describe the current state of spatial planning in India?
2	How do varying geographic, demographic, and cultural characteristics across Indian states influence the approach to spatial planning?
3	What are the most pressing challenges faced when aligning city and rural level initiatives with broader state, regional and central development plans or policies?
4	What role does traditional knowledge play in modern spatial planning practices across different cultural contexts in India?
5	How can spatial planning in India better align with SDGs, particularly in climate-vulnerable states like Kerala or the north eastern states?
Elected Member of a Local Self Governing Body	
1	How would you describe the current state of spatial planning in involving the local community?
2	How do you involve local residents in the spatial planning process to ensure their needs and priorities are addressed?
3	What role does technology play in enhancing spatial planning efforts at the Gram Panchayat/Municipal level?
4	How does spatial planning help bridge the rural-urban divide and promote equitable development across the boundaries of local self governing bodies?
5	What is your vision or expectations for spatial planning over the next decade?
Citizen	
1	How familiar are you with the concept of spatial planning, and how do you think it affects your daily life?
2	Do you feel that spatial planning in your area reflects the needs and priorities of the community?
3	Do you believe spatial planning has helped reduce inequalities between urban and rural areas in your region?
4	Have you ever participated in any public consultation or feedback sessions related to urban or rural planning? If yes, what was your experience?
5	What is your vision or expectations on how spatial planning could improve living conditions in your area over the next decade?

Figure 6: Interview Questionnaire © Authors

3.3 Comparative Methodological Framework

The Comparative Framework plays a crucial role in shaping the research, from, creating a comparative analysis of the operational framework of territorial governance of the Indian states and union territories, to, interpreting the global comparisons of spatial planning to form an Indian classification of existing state models. The structured approach of Comparative Methodological Framework enables the evaluation and comparison between two or more cases, situations or entities and their phenomena across multiple contexts.

The comparative methodology is used in different phases of the research. In the initial phase, many articles and European documents were studied and compared to form a solid foundation for the research. This methodology works alongside the desk research to refine the results to correspond with the objectives of the study. The focus is placed on examining spatial planning together with territorial governance as an "institutional technology" which forms spatial dynamics. While studying the states, comparative methodology was used for inter state comparisons and intra state comparisons at different levels of spatial planning systems inside the states. In order to compare and position the planning systems, existing comparative researches were studied, focusing on the tools and methodologies, on different countries within global frameworks. The ESPON COMPASS research project to propose a European typology of SGPSs, focusing on their capacity for public control over spatial development (Berisha, et al., 2021), which served as the main reference to form the research and some scholarly articles published between the year 2019 to 2024 were studied and compared to develop a typology for the Indian planning systems.

In the final phase of the research, by means of the comparative methodology, the similarities in challenges and the policy responses were identified, considering unique regional, geopolitical, and other contexts, the feasibility of adopting successful strategies across regions were studied and evaluated. This aspect of the analysis is important for understanding the current and future development of planning and policies in India.

Chapter 4

Indian Territorial Governance and Spatial Planning

4.1 The History of India

India's history in terms of territorial governance and spatial planning can go back to the Pre-colonial era, to the post-independence, and modern era. The following chapters explain each evolution and transformation that India's reforms went through.

4.1.1 Pre-Colonial Period

In India, the matter of local governance has been an important subject of attention since the ancient times and even before the arrival of modernity. The ancient panchayats or the village governments were formed as republics, and similarly the city governments existed as well. This was continued under the Mughal times when the ruler of the town was a man called the Kotwal, who handled magisterial affairs, police administration, financial affairs and other municipal activities. (Maheshwari, 1970).

While the roots of local governance in India can be traced to ancient times, its current form and operational style are largely shaped by British rule. The current division, characterized by representative organizations accountable to an electorate, taking extensive powers in administration and taxation, and serving as both a ground for responsibility and a component of the national governance system, is a product of British influence. In contrast, the ancient village communities, established on a limited foundation of hereditary privilege or caste, with restricted duties, did not serve as conscious instruments of political education or essential components of the administrative framework. (Maheshwari, 1970).

Local governance in India started back in 1687, by the start of a Municipal Corporation in Madras. Authority to impose taxes were granted to this locally

governing body which was later succeeded by the mayor's court in 1726. Meanwhile, the Mayor's Court primarily functioned as a judicial entity rather than an administrative one. The foundation for local governance in India gained a statutory footing in 1793 when municipal administration was instituted in the presidency towns of Madras, Calcutta, and Bombay through the Charter Act of 1793. Subsequently, the expansion of municipal administration to district towns in Bengal occurred in 1842 with the enactment of the Bengal Act. (Maheshwari, 1970). When the royal commission on decentralization in 1907 emerged, we could witness a significant change in local governance. The commission put forward a restructuring, telling the villages to be seen as the primary unit for local self-government institutions, with a panchayat for each village.

In urban areas, municipalities were recommended to be established. To enhance the decentralization of power and promote the gradual democratization of local bodies, the commission proposed several key measures: (a) nonofficial election of the chairman, (b) a majority of non-official members in the panchayats, (c) municipalities gaining increased powers in taxation and budget control, and (d) empowering large municipalities to appoint qualified health officers alongside executive officers (Maheshwari, 1970).

The Government of India, through its resolution on April 28, 1915, endorsed the phased implementation of these recommendations. Punjab took the lead by incorporating the Royal Commission's suggestions into its Municipal Act of 1911. Subsequently, other provinces followed suit, passing similar acts to align with the proposed reforms (Maheshwari, 1970).

The First World War made the British Government to find support and cooperation from people of India. This made a greater feel of unity between the British administration and Indian population in the war time. In line with these incidents, a resolution in 1918 emphasized that the goal of local self-government was to educate people in managing their own local affairs. This political education was deemed crucial and should take precedence over departmental efficiency considerations. The resolution emphasized the importance of representative local bodies, real authority in entrusted matters, minimal unnecessary control, and the opportunity for learning through making and rectifying mistakes (Maheshwari, 1970).

The Government of India Act in 1919 came up with 'Dyarchy' in the provinces, with Local Self-Government becoming under the oversight of a popular Minister in

4.1 The History of India

the provincial legislature. This act gave the taxation powers of local bodies, lowered the franchise, reduced the nominated element, and extended the communal electorate to numerous municipalities. However, this act marked the start of a new phase characterized by increased interest and activity in the local government. A series of correcting acts on local government were implemented in every province during this period (Maheshwari, 1970).

The Act of 1935 marked a shift by introducing a new form of government and granting 'Provincial Autonomy' to the provinces. This legislation saw a self-government for the entire country. As the national movement gained interest and provincial autonomy was achieved, local government in India did not end to be an experimental station for self-government. Instead, it evolved into an integral component of the self-governance structure for the entire nation, establishing a new and stable foundation. Despite this progress, there were certain deficiencies and drawbacks that became apparent and required identification, diagnosis, and clearance. In response, provinces-initiated investigations into local governing bodies to improve their effectiveness in managing local affairs. In 1935, the Central Provinces established an enquiry committee, followed by the United Provinces in 1938 and Bombay in 1939. (Maheshwari, 1970).

While the implementation of municipal enquiry committee recommendations varied across provinces, a clear trend toward the democratization of local government came. The system of nominations was abolished, and functions were separated from executive ones. These steps aimed to address the observed disadvantages and promote a more effective and participatory local governance system (De Souza, 2003).

The year 1947 marked an important moment in the history of local government in India, coinciding with the country's freedom from British rule and the start of national independence. This neo freedom allowed local government to operate within an area of sovereignty for the first time. The revision of the Village Panchayat system became a fundamental commitment during the struggle for national political changes. Therefore, aligning with the revolutionary spirit of pre-independence era, the establishment and promotion of village panchayats as useful units of self-government became a high-priority task for the newly formed governments at the Centre and in the states (De Souza, 2003).

In 1948, a conference held by Amrit Kaur was held, bringing together ministers responsible for local self-government in the provinces. This marked the first

instance of such a conference, emphasizing the vital importance of local self-government for the overall well-being of the people. In his inaugural address, Jawaharlal Nehru emphasized the critical role of local government in free India, stating, "Local self-government is and must be the basis of any true system of democracy. We have got rather into the habit of thinking of democracy at the top and not so much below. Democracy at the top may not be a success unless you build on this foundation from below" (Maheshwari, 1970).

4.1.2 Colonial Period

Diverse culture and the vast area of India has made to the adaptation of different policies in different regions, the policies were similar and their implementation was often different. This diversity was evident even among the Presidency cities of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, which were established by the British with minimal indigenous foundations. Differences in these cities became apparent soon after their creation, long before the British began to exert control over pre-existing cities (Britannica,2025).

The Bombay Town Planning Act of 1915 stands as the initial town planning legislation in India. This act empowered the Bombay Municipal Corporation to formulate Town Planning Schemes aimed at urban development or redevelopment, which were then presented to the Governor in Council of the City of Bombay. It introduced provisions for zoning, building regulations, land acquisition for public purposes, and the generation of funds for local improvements. The necessity for such legislation was particularly acute due to the disorderly expansion of Bombay's textile mills and the corresponding housing for workers. While primary authority rested with local authorities, the State Government retained the ability to direct them to undertake Town Planning Schemes in specific cases (Britannica,2025).

Following Bombay's lead, other provinces began to enact town planning legislation. Uttar Pradesh (UP) implemented such legislation in 1919, followed by Madras in 1920. These plans predominantly focused on physical aspects of development. Responsibilities varied, with some entrusted to local governments and others to Improvement Trusts. Geographical scopes also differed, with some limited to municipal limits while others encompassed peripheral areas or both.

While most town planning legislation involved the use of eminent domain, the approach in Bombay was distinct. It advocated for land pooling where feasible. Under this scheme, each landowner affected by land acquisition for public facilities

4.1 The History of India

would surrender a portion of their land to the government while retaining another portion. The remaining land would then be redistributed in proportion to each person's land value relative to the whole. This approach presumed that landowners would support it because the introduction of new infrastructure would enhance the value of their land, even if its size decreased. This method avoided complete dispossession of landowners, led to increased land values, and prevented the government from becoming a landlord. While time-consuming due to extensive consultations with landowners, it resulted in less resentment and fewer protests in the long term (Directorate of Town Planning, 2025).

However, the land pooling process gave way to the more straightforward use of eminent domain, even in Bombay Province, as it appeared more convenient and expedient.

The development plans crafted in 1915 for Ahmedabad by Arthur Mirams, the 'Consulting Surveyor' to the Bombay Government, illuminate the intricate interplay between British town planners, the colonial government, and the burgeoning Indian nationalist movement, which was formulating its own urban agenda (Directorate of Town Planning, 2025).

The town planning schemes aimed at revitalizing areas like Jamalpur and Kankaria, situated adjacent to and outside the walls of the old city, garnered widespread support and were easily approved. However, on the west bank of the Sabarmati River, farmers protested against new development plans encroaching on their land. Vallabhbhai Patel, advocating for city expansion, eventually persuaded them to relent.

However, Patel objected to plans proposing the demolition of the city walls to make way for a ring road and an electric tram line, deeming them overly expensive. He recognized the symbolic significance of the walls to the Muslim community, constructed during the Gujarat Sultanate era, and advocated for preserving the Muslim cemeteries at their base. Consequently, this project was delayed for two decades before being implemented without the tram line. Patel later opposed a road through the walled city, citing lack of consultation with Indians, leading to the postponement of road construction until 1933 (Directorate of Town Planning, 2025).

Social and political considerations also influenced the agenda of the Indian National Congress (INC). In 1924, the INC oversaw the election of Kacharabhai

Bhagat and two other Dalits as representatives in the Ahmedabad Municipality, marking the first inclusion of 'untouchable' mill workers in municipal governance.

Independence in 1947 underscored the shortcomings of town planning practices thus far: a scarcity of professionals, the absence of comprehensive town planning legislation in most states, and the lack of organized town planning departments. In response, the Institute of Town Planners, India, was established in 1951, initially comprising 19 members, which grew to 290 by 1971 and surpassed 600 by 1979. Both central and state governments initiated the establishment of planning legislation and town planning departments at the state level.

The 1950s saw the commencement of preparing Master Plans for major Indian cities. These plans aimed at offering coordinated proposals for the holistic physical development of entire cities, unlike the earlier Town Planning Schemes which focused on specific parts. Moreover, they transitioned from crisis management towards considering both present and future needs. This marked the beginning of a new era with its own set of challenges, seeking innovative solutions. However, this new era began amidst the ambiguous legacy of the previous century. (Kalia, 1999)

Town planning originated in England as a response to the challenges presented by industrial cities during the 19th century. In contrast, in India, the construction and reconstruction of cities were undertaken primarily for governance purposes and to mitigate the risks posed by epidemics. However, these efforts were often fragmented and incomplete, hindered by neglect towards indigenous areas of the city, limited financial resources, and ineffective legal measures.

By the 20th century, the landscape began to change due to the influence of professional town planners, a growing interest in municipal politics among nationalists, and the involvement of indigenous elites. Despite these changes, many Indian cities still retained traces of their legacy, characterized by divisions along racial and class lines, and were planned (or unplanned) accordingly (Kalia, 1999).

4.1.3 Independence and post-colonial Period

When the post-Independence debate on local governance in India its second phase within the Constituent Assembly. During this period, the call for increased autonomy for rural bodies gained momentum, bolstered by the influence of Mahatma Gandhi on the national stage. Gandhi articulated the doctrine of national development through autonomous rural organizations, drawing inspiration from the ancient Indian Panchayat system. He envisioned a comprehensive five-tier system

4.1 The History of India

comprising Village Panchayats, Taluka Panchayats, District Panchayats, Provincial Panchayats, and All-India Panchayats (Mishra, 1994).

In Gandhi's administrative vision, the structure resembled a pyramid, with a broad base formed by numerous village communities across the country. The higher-level Panchayats were seen to provide advice, expert guidance, information, and supervision, coordinating the activities of Village Panchayats to better the administrative efficiency and public service. Importantly, the basic units, the Village Panchayats, were intended to hold power over the center, establishing a structure where the village became dynamic unit of administration, effectively reversing the traditional top-down approach. Opposite to Gandhi's vision, Dr. Ambedkar, who played a crucial role in drafting the Constitution, excluded Panchayats from it. He expressed strong disapproval of village Panchayats, describing them as "a sink of localism and a den of ignorance and narrow-mindedness and communalism". Ambedkar believed that these village republics would lead to the country's ruin and would not contribute to the nation's affairs and destiny (Mishra, 1994).

The resolution that followed represented a middle ground between the Gandhian concept of village Panchayats and Ambedkar's condemnation. While there was formal idea of local autonomy, there existed a well-enhanced resistance to any significant shift in the balance of power in favor of local self-government institutions. As a result, the compromise took the form of incorporating village Panchayats in the Directive Principles of State Policy (Article 40) of the Indian Constitution. Article 40 stipulates that "the State shall take steps to organize village Panchayats and endow them with such powers and authority as may be necessary to enable them to function as units of self-government." (Mishra, 1994).

After independence, the initial effort towards rural local governance was the start of the Community Development Programme in 1952, followed by the National Extension Scheme in 1953. Sadly, both programs fell short of expectations. Consequently, the Balwant Rai Mehta Committee was established to investigate issues of economy and efficiency and propose alternative measures for the reorganization of the Community Development Programme. The committee presented its report in 1958, suggesting the implementation of a three-tier system of rural local government. This system would be granted statutory status, and various developmental functions performed by Blocks would be devolved to these local government tiers. The democratic decentralization scheme gained full momentum initially in Rajasthan and Andhra Pradesh. Late Pandit Jawahar Lal

Nehru inaugurated the Panchayati Raj Institution (PRI) in Nagaur district, Rajasthan, on October 2, 1959. This initiative rapidly spread throughout the country, and by the end of 1963, most states had enacted legislation to introduce Panchayati Raj within their jurisdictions. Despite the initial enthusiasm and a promising start, the Panchayati Raj Institutions began to deteriorate rapidly and could not effectively function as institutions of local governance. In addition to concerns expressed by the Central Government, several State Governments, including Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, and Rajasthan, took significant steps in the direction of democratic decentralization. Various committees were set up by the Central Government, such as the Committee on Administrative Arrangements for Rural Development (CAARD) in 1985, the L.M. Singhvi Committee for the Concept Paper on Panchayati Raj Institutions in 1986, the Sarkaria Commission in 1988, the P.K. Thungon Committee in 1988, the Congress Committee on Policy and Programmes in 1988, and more.

The recommendations of these committees created a conducive environment for reinvigorating the concept of democratic decentralization. Political parties, in general, reached a consensus that it was high time to confer Constitutional status upon the Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs). The outcome of this consensus was the introduction of the 64th Constitutional Amendment Bill in Parliament in July 1989. Although the Bill was passed in the Lok Sabha, it failed in the Rajya Sabha due to serious apprehensions regarding the timing and intention of the Bill, preventing it from becoming part of the Constitution.

Following the defeat of the 64th Amendment Bill, the National Front Government introduced a new Amendment Bill in the Lok Sabha on September 4, 1990. However, this Bill met an untimely demise as the Janata Dal Government collapsed before passing the Bill (Maheshwari, 2006).

The 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act of 1992 marked a pivotal step in the constitutionalizing of Panchayats, aiming to accelerate the progress of rural local governance and reinforce the strength and stability of local institutions. This amendment made it mandatory for all states to establish three-tier Panchayats (or two-tier in smaller states with a population of less than 20 lakhs), including Zilla Parishad at the district level, Panchayat Samiti at the block level, and Gram Panchayat at the village level.

The amendment introduced provisions for regular elections to all tiers at five-year intervals, with the requirement for fresh elections within six months if

4.1 The History of India

dissolved earlier. It also mandated reservation of seats for Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs) in all Panchayats at all levels, proportional to their population, along with one-third reservation of seats for women in Panchayats. Additionally, the amendment facilitated the creation of a State Election Commission to conduct elections for Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) and a State Finance Commission to review the financial positions of PRIs. Importantly, it provided for the devolution of powers to Panchayat bodies, enabling them to perform 29 functions listed in the Eleventh Schedule.

Following Independence, Article 40 was inserted into the Constitution, providing for the formation of Panchayats, but it remained silent on the establishment of urban bodies. The only mention of urban self-government was in two entries: Entry 5 of List II of the Seventh Schedule and Entry 20 of the Concurrent List. However, compared to the significant changes in rural local government, the progress of urban local government was slow and, at times, underwhelming. (Maheshwari, 2006)

Urban local government received attention from the government relatively late compared to rural bodies. It wasn't until the Third Five-Year Plan that urban local government's significance was officially recognized. The plan emphasized the need to incorporate as many towns and cities as possible, particularly those with populations of one lakh or more, into planning processes. Each state was encouraged to mobilize its resources and contribute to creating conditions conducive to improving citizens' quality of life (Planning Commission: Third Five-Year Plan, 1961).

The Central Government appointed various committees and commissions over time to enhance urban local bodies. One of these committees was:

The Local Finance Enquiry Committee (1949-51), which primarily recommended expanding the scope of taxation for urban bodies.

The Taxation Enquiry Committee (1953-54) recommended segregating certain taxes to be exclusively utilized by or for local government.

The Committee on the Training of Municipal Employees (1963) emphasized the establishment of training institutes at both the central and state levels to provide training for municipal personnel.

The Rural-Urban Relationship Committee (1963-66) investigated various aspects of municipal administration, including personnel, planning, taxation, and the interdependence between towns and surrounding villages (Maheshwari, 2006).

The Committee of Ministers on Augmentation of Financial Resources of Urban Local Bodies (1963) emphasized that urban local bodies were not effectively levying taxes in designated fields and urged the establishment of statutory Urban Development Boards for town development.

The Committee on Service Conditions of Municipal Employees (1965-68) suggested the formation of a statewide cadre of municipal employees.

The National Commission on Urbanization (1988) recommended revitalizing urban governance.

In 1989, the Constitution 65th Amendment Bill was presented in Parliament, aiming to constitutionalize urban local bodies. While the Bill passed in the Lok Sabha, it was defeated in the Rajya Sabha. Similar efforts were made in 1990 when the National Front Government, led by Shri V.P. Singh, introduced the Constitution 65th Amendment Bill in Parliament, but it faced the same fate.

Finally, in 1991, the Congress-led Government under Shri P.V. Narasimha Rao introduced a new Bill, which successfully passed through Parliament. This legislation is now widely known as the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act.

The 74th Constitutional Amendment Act marked the beginning of a new era in urban local governance in India. It granted constitutional status to municipal local bodies, mandating their formation by the government. This act introduced a new part, Part IXA, in the Constitution, addressing issues related to municipalities such as their structure, composition, elections, powers and functions, finances, and reservation of seats (Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs, 1992).

The amendment established a uniform three-tier structure for urban local bodies, comprising Municipal Corporations, Municipal Councils, and Nagar Panchayats. It prescribed a uniform tenure of five years for all three types of urban local bodies, with elections to be held within six months in case of dissolution. Additionally, it mandated one-third reservation of seats for women in all urban local bodies and reservation of seats for Scheduled Castes (SCs) and Scheduled Tribes (STs) in proportion to their population.

The twelfth Schedule was added to the Constitution, listing 18 subjects on which municipal bodies can enact laws and implement schemes for economic development and social justice. Each state was required to establish a State Finance Commission to assess the financial position of urban local bodies. A State Election Commission was set up to conduct elections for urban local bodies.

Furthermore, the amendment provided for the establishment of District Planning Committees (DPCs) and Metropolitan Planning Committees (MPCs) to formulate development plans. It also introduced the provision of ward committees to facilitate better interaction with citizens (Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs, 1992).

4.2 Structure of Indian Territorial Governance

4.2.1 Governance and its form

The concept of the "separation of powers" or "trias politica" was coined by Charles de Montesquieu. Its origins can be traced back to ancient Greece, where it was initially embraced, and later adopted by the Roman Republic in its constitution. This principle finds its roots in the philosophical works of Aristotle and Plato, who integrated it into their theories. During the 16th and 17th centuries, British figures such as Locke and the French philosopher Justice Bodin also contributed to the discourse on this doctrine (Seervai, 2015).

Montesquieu, a prominent French scholar, provided the first systematic articulation of the principle of separation of powers in his seminal work "The Spirit of Laws," published in 1748. He discerned that concentrated power, whether in the hands of an individual or a group, tended to lead to despotic rule. To forestall such tyranny and to safeguard against the arbitrary exercise of authority, Montesquieu advocated for the distinct allocation of powers among the three branches of government: the Executive, Legislative, and Judiciary. This distribution of power, as expounded by Montesquieu, serves as a bulwark against potential abuses and ensures the preservation of liberty within a political system.

In India, the government's powers are divided into three distinct branches, each vested in a separate organ. The Legislature is tasked with the formulation of laws, the Executive with their enforcement, and the Judiciary with their interpretation and implementation.

While there is no explicit provision in the Indian Constitution mandating an absolute separation of powers, certain provisions do delineate distinctions among the powers of government organs. Consequently, although the doctrine of separation of powers is not expressly codified, it is adhered to in India in an implicit manner. This adherence is evidenced by the delineation of roles for each government organ, which helps maintain a balance of power and fosters effective governance within the constitutional framework (Montesquieu, 1989).

The Constitution of India delineates the functions of the government organs in distinct ways:

The judiciary is endowed with independence, safeguarding its autonomy from undue influence. The conduct of judges cannot be subject to scrutiny or interference by the Parliament or State Legislature.

Executive Powers The executive powers are vested in the President at the central level and in the Governor at the state level. These executive authorities are responsible for the implementation and enforcement of laws, policies, and administrative decisions within their respective jurisdictions.

The Constitution of India also establishes a nuanced relationship between the organs of government:

In specific instances, such as the impeachment of the President or the removal of judges, the legislature may assume judicial powers. Similarly, the executive holds sway over the appointment of judges and the Chief Justice, influencing the functioning of the judiciary.

The executive is empowered to exercise certain legislative functions when the legislature is not in session and there is an urgent need to enact laws. This authority is granted, allowing for the promulgation of ordinances to address pressing matters (Austin, 2013).

Moreover, the Constitution establishes a system of checks and balances to prevent the potential misuse of powers vested in each branch of government. This arrangement underscores that the Constitution of India does not adhere to a rigid interpretation of the doctrine of separation of powers. Instead, it allows for a flexible application wherein the three organs of government can exercise their powers and functions, even with some degree of overlap. This approach reflects a broader understanding of governance dynamics, emphasizing the need for cooperation and

4.2 Structure of Indian Territorial Governance

coordination among the branches while maintaining essential checks to safeguard against abuse of authority (Austin, 2013).

Over the past four decades, India has demonstrated a concerted effort to establish planning organizations and execution bodies across various administrative levels, aimed at formulating master plans and overseeing the implementation, guidance, and regulation of development initiatives. These organizations primarily emphasize urban planning activities across the majority of Indian states. However, states such as Maharashtra, Punjab, and Karnataka have also directed attention towards rural and regional planning in conjunction with urban planning. The organizational framework outlined below serves to elucidate the prevailing simplified structure across the country, despite notable variations among states. This framework offers valuable insights into the landscape of planning organizations and their respective activities nationwide.

- i. The TCPO (Town and Country Planning Organization);
- ii. Directorate of Town Planning at the state level;
- iii. Town planning units at the district/local level;
- iv. Development authorities at the level of cities and metropolises;
- v. Improvement trusts/special planning authorities for intermediate towns.

4.2.2 Administrative Governance division and Structure

Administrative structure of India has undergone a lot of changes since its independence in 1947, these changes show the nation's journey for effective governance, linguistic divisions, and administrative efficiency across the states which are geographically and culturally diverse. Zonal Councils first came up as a visionary answer to the problems of post-independence. Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru first came up with the idea in 1956 during the discussion on the State Reorganization Commission report, suggesting that the states be categorized into 5 zones with councils to indulge them in a habit of cooperative working (Kulkarni, 2025).

Each of the Zonal Council has a union home minister at the top, followed by the Chief Ministers. These councils play the role of advisory with non-binding recommendations, giving importance to the interstate cooperation, economic

development and resolving the border disputes (M.H.A,2023). When India attained independence in 1947, it inherited a complicated administrative structure consisting of 17 provinces, around 500 princely states, and colonial areas previously ruled by France and Portugal. The British territories were directly administered, whereas princely states functioned under the local rulers who were answerable to the British (Varshney, 2024).

The constitution firstly classified the Indian territory into four categories, Part A states, Part B states, Part C states, Part D territory. Part A states were the previous British provinces with their elected governor and legislatures that comprised of 9 states including Assam, Bihar, Bombay, East Punjab, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Odisha, Uttar Pradesh, and West Bengal. Part B states were the former princely states that were governed by Rajpramukhs that included Hyderabad, Jammu and Kashmir, Mysore, Rajasthan. Part C states had the former princely states and the Chief Commissioner provinces that had 10 states including Delhi, Himachal Pradesh, Manipur, Tripura, and finally the Part D Territory had Andaman and Nicobar Island under a governor (Home Affairs, 1955).

The Reorganization had many phases, initial major phase was the Linguistic Foundation (1953-1956), this phase gained importance with the creation of Andhra Pradesh and the States Reorganization Act of 1956 created 14 states and 6 union territories. The main changes included Andhra Pradesh merging with Telugu speaking region of Hyderabad, Kerala formation through the unification of Travancore with the Malabar districts. Karnataka integrated with the Kannada speaking areas and Tamil Nadu with the Tamil speaking regions (Home Affairs, 1955).

The further Linguistic division (1960-1966) led to additional reorganization. Division of Bombay states to Gujarati and Marathi speaking and so on. And the final phase (2000-2019) focused on administrative efficiency and development.

4.2.3 Districts - Primary administrative units

The districts originated from the Mughal administration and was officialized by the British rule. Supervisors were re-designated as Collectors and established the districts as the foundation of local administration. India had an evolving sub division and reorganization. It went from 300 districts during independence to 760 districts in 2025 (Pradhan, 2016).

4.3 Spatial Planning Tools

The Sub-districts are headed by designated officers, The Tehsildar in tehsil-based systems, Talukdar in taluk-based system and Block Development Officer in community development blocks (Pradhan, 2016).

4.2.4 Rural and Urban local government

From ancient times rural self-governance was always a part of Indian governance with officials called Gramik. With the colonial period the modern Panchayati Raj system evolved. Post independence era witnessed the 73rd Constitutional Amendment Act of 1992 which institutionalized Panchayati Raj as a 3-tier system. The Gram Panchayat has the basic unit covering around 1000 population, Panchayat Samiti is the intermediate level for block level panchayat and The Zilla Panchayat for district rural development (India Development Review, 2020).

The 74th Constitutional Amendment Act of 1992 put forward constitutional status to urban local bodies, this amendment provided 3 categories of municipalities. The Municipal Corporations are the areas with population over 1 million, Municipal Councils are areas with 25,000 to 1 million population and Nagar Panchayats are transitional areas with 10,000 to 25,000 population. Currently, India has 250,000 local government bodies with around 3.1 million elected representatives (India Development Review, 2020).

4.3 Spatial Planning Tools

4.3.1 History and evolution of Planning tools

New planning concepts initially focused on serving administrative and commercial needs in India. The modern urban planning in India was molded by British colonialism. The Bombay Town Planning Act of 1915 was one of the earliest planning legislations in India. This introduced the concept of Town Planning Schemes first aimed at microlevel planning. The practice then extended to other parts of Bombay Presidency which now includes present day Maharashtra and Gujarat.

Colonial planning always aimed at concerns regarding diseases, social order, and economic productivity leading to the founding of European enclaves, cantonment areas, and civil lines, The starting of planning during this period

includes the establishment of town planning institutions, civil works departments etc. (Bhagat, 2005).

India's step towards spatial planning underwent a big change after independence in 1974, it was divided into 3 stages. First stage being, spanning the first to third five-year plans. This was characterized by a fragmented approach focusing on housing provisions, slum clearance, and rehabilitation. The second five-year plan paved for the start of town and country planning laws and started planning institutions, after that rigid Masterplans were developed for several cities. The third five-year plan saw the development of two state capitals and industrial towns (G.O.I, 2024).

The second phase started in the 1990s which started the devolution of funds, functions and functionaries to the urban local bodies. Urban development was given more importance with the launch of Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) in 2005. JNNURM wanted efficiency in urban infrastructure, service, community participation and accountability of ULBs (G.O.I, 2024).

The third phase took on more recent initiatives like the Smart Cities Missions and the Atal Mission for Rejuvenation and Urban Transformation (AMRUT), which took steps towards new ideas for urban planning with emphasis on technology integration, sustainability, and public participatory solutions (G.O.I, 2024).

4.3.2 Different Levels of Planning

4.3.2.1 National Level Planning

Planning Commissions are responsible for making the Five-Year Plans at the National Level. They are also in charge of coordinating sectoral development across the different ministries of the central government. The Planning Commission was replaced by the National Institution for Transforming India (NITI AAYOG), making it a significant change in the approach towards India's planning approach. NITI Aayog provides technical advice both to central and state governments on various policy matters. NITI Aayog aims to render cooperative federalism through partnership with the states. Their function includes providing direction and strategy into the development process, developing mechanisms to make plans from the village level and upwards. They create knowledge, innovation and give support through collaboration with experts. They monitor and focus on technology upgradation and capacity building. They also offer a platform for resolving inter-

4.3 Spatial Planning Tools

sectoral and inter0departmental issues to increase development agenda implementation (G.O.I, 2024).

4.3.2.2 State Level: Functions and powers

In the state level, planning is coordinated by State Planning Boards, that is headed by the Chief Minister with the Planning Minister, Finance Minister, Chief Secretary, and senior secretaries as members. The Administrative Reforms Commission (ARC) has allocated the functions for the State Planning Board. They determine the plan priorities within the framework of National plan priorities, assessing state resources and making plans for their effective and balanced utilization. They assist district authorities in making development plans and coordinating these with the state plan. Identifying the factors that stop the economic and social development and making suitable conditions for the successful plan execution is an important duty they follow. They also review the plan implementation progress and take necessary measures. The state government has the authority to act on their own Town and Country Planning Acts (Ahuja,2025).

Regional planning is done by the Regional Planning Boards which is held under their respective Town and Country Planning Acts. These boards are responsible for surveying the region and preparing regional plans, ensuring coordination between various local planning areas within the regions, submission of regional plans for the approval of state government and monitoring the implementation of the approved regional plans (Government of Maharashtra, 2025). Metropolitan areas consist of a population over one million, the 74th Constitutional Amendment makes the creation of Metropolitan Planning Committees. MCPs prepare drafts of development plans for the metropolitan area as a whole. they have to consider a few things like the plans prepared by municipalities and panchayats within the metropolitan area, the common interests of municipalities and panchayats, the objectives and priorities set by the central government and investments that may be made by central and state government agencies (Metropolitan Planning Committee, 2019).

Urban Development Authorities (UDAs) are established under the state legislation and many metropolitan areas and large cities have them. These authorities have the duties of urban planning and development for the urban area, implementation of the town planning schemes, developing of the infrastructure projects like roads drainage and water supply, and providing affordable housing and real estate rules (PIB, 2023).

4.3.2.3 Local Level: Functions and powers

74th Constitutional Amendment assigned urban planning as a function of the Urban Local Bodies at the local level. In practice planning exercises in Indian cities are done by the non-representative bureaucratic agencies under the state governments. ULBs prepare the master plans that look after the land use, enforcing the development within the permitted zones for residential, commercial or industrial purposes. They approve building plans, provide basic services like water supply, sanitation, waste management etc. They facilitate local economic growth by provision of market and business zones. They also implement central and state government schemes related to urban development (PIB, 2023).

In 2010, Dr. Deepak Gopinath, in the working paper “Emerging spatial planning systems in the global south: case study of India”, produced a flowchart (figure) based on the key characteristics of the planning system in contemporary India.

4.4 Discourse in Spatial Planning System

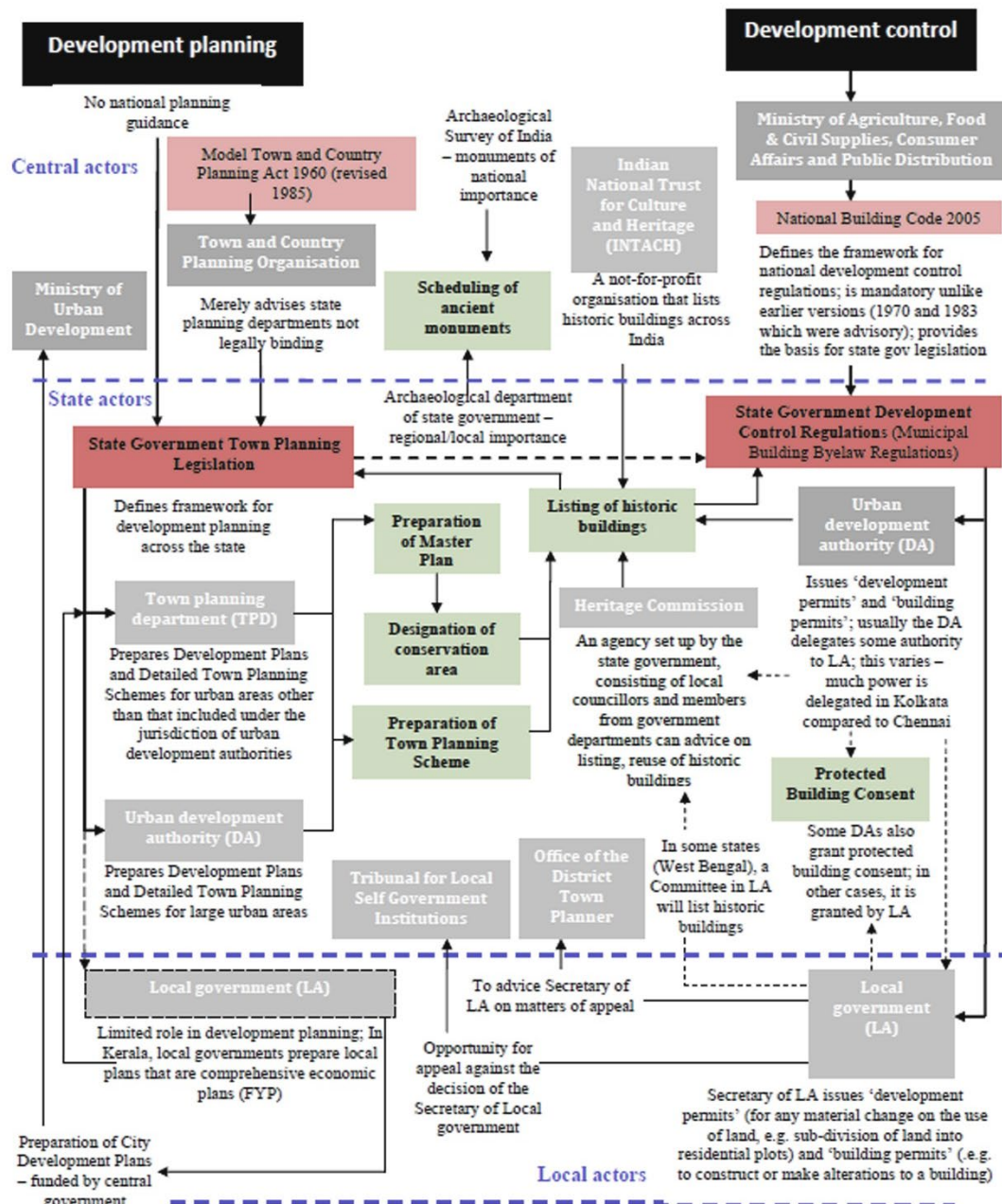


Figure 7: The key characteristics of the planning system in contemporary India
© Gopinath D, 2010

4.4 Discourse in Spatial Planning System

Spatial planning in India has undergone many changes since independence, the planning first came up from India's first Prime Minister Jawaharlal Nehru's state

and welfare-oriented approach, that later moved towards market-oriented economy in the 1990s. This change revolutionized how spatial planning were conceptualized in post-independence India (Sangapala, 2017).

Spatial planning debate in India has been dominated by the polarizing view of urban and rural settlements which has not managed to reflect the various types of human settlements in India today. Other researchers have suggested renaming of the concept of rurality in India to other urban characteristics, such as conversion of the term rural to rural in women rural areas that are showing their new urban features today. This is an indication of the need to understand the settlement patterns in India in more complex terms than the conventional urban-rural divide (Sangapala, 2017).

4.4.1 Five-Year Planning System of the Past

India's Five-Year Plan, a series of centralized integrated national programs in the socio-economic fields each extending over a period of five year was adopted by the Indian Government starting in 1951 and suspended in 2017. Based on the Soviet model that had been applied in 1928 by the Soviet authorities led by Joseph Stalin, India introduced its First Five-Year Plan in 1951, under the socialist influence by Jawaharlal Nehru, its then Prime Minister. The Planning Commission was shaped on March 1950 and it was given the role of preparing the evaluation of all resources of the country, filling the toothless and shortfall functions, designing plans on the most viable and thorough utilization of resources and prioritizing (Krishnan & Krishnan, 2020).

The urban development course of India can be partially categorized into three phases. The initial phase was a 15-year phase (First to Third Five Year Plans) during which a piecemeal strategy that took into concern housing supplies, slums clearance and rehabilitation took place. The second five-year plan was envisaged to result in the formulation of town and country planning legislation and the planning institutions were started, followed by the formulation of strict Master Plans of some of the cities. The third five-year plan experienced the growth of two state capitals and industrial towns (Krishnan & Krishnan, 2020)

The course of urban planning adopted a new direction in the Fourth, Fifth, and Sixth Five-year plans, where the fourth FYP was all about the need to restrain population growth in the urban area, the fifth FYP insisted on smaller towns, and finally in the sixth FYP there was a focus on the towns, development of the roads,

4.4 Discourse in Spatial Planning System

pavements, bus stands and markets. On the whole, slum clearance was transformed into slum improvement and the priority turned to the creation of the small and medium towns and to the policy of balanced development in the regions (Krishnan & Krishnan, 2020).

The second stage began in the nineties with the passage of 74th Constitutional Amendment Act that facilitated devolution of finances, functions, and functionaries to the continuous urban local bodies (ULBs). The revival of interest in urban development came along with the initiation of the Jawaharlal Nehru National Urban Renewal Mission (JNNURM) in 2005. This was also the time when City Development Plans (CDPs) were evolved as project-investment plans of cities with very little spatial reference, but Master Plans remained the spatial planning instrument with Development Control Regulations being implemented by ULBs/development authorities (Krishnan & Krishnan, 2020).

4.4.2 Spatial Planning Systems at different levels

Nationally, the Planning Commission used to be the traditional backbone of the national planning in the country having the role of formulating Five-Year Plans as well as to coordinate sector development and various ministries of the central government on its function. The Planning Commission was abolished in 2015 to be replaced by the National Institution of Transforming India (NITI Aayog), and this provided a major change in the planning in India.

Failure to emphasize more on the concept of 'spatial planning' in the national level has seen unbalanced growth and development in terms of states that record high economic growth rates and those who do not. This was reflected in the 10th Five Year plan (2002-2007) by the use of the so-called differential development strategy in which development was to be done based on space needs but it seems that this strategy has not been fully successful in terms of equitable growth of the country as a whole (Vinit Loharia et al., 2023).

Planning is largely the coordinated activity of State Planning Boards at state level and headed by the Chief Minister usually along with the Planning Minister, Finance Minister, Chief Secretary and the senior secretaries as its members. Such boards are supplemented with planning departments who offer secretarial services. Among the functions that Administrative Reforms Commission (ARC) defined of the State Planning Boards are the ones that plan priorities within the context of Planning priorities of the nation, determination of state resources and participation

with the authorities of districts in the development of their development plans, as well as detecting the factors that block the ways of economic and social development, and the review of the progress of plan implementation (Matthaei & Sector Project Rural Development, 2018).

With regard to regional level, states may form Regional Planning Boards through their Town and Country Planning Acts. As is the case with regard to the Maharashtra Regional and Town Planning Act, 1966 which in its Part 3 provides constitution of Regional Planning Boards comprising a chairman appointed by the state government, the Director of Town planning, representatives of local-authorities and expert in related spheres. These boards execute the obligation of surveying the region, creating regional plans, coordinating the various local planning areas in the region, presenting regional plans to the state government to be approved and ensuring that regional plans approved by the state government are implemented (Matthaei & Sector Project Rural Development, 2018).

Centralized planning as against multi-level planning is a game in which local institutions take part not only in implementation levels but at every level of administrative footage, geographical, political, and regional planning levels also. It aims at engaging the lower tiers of the hierarchies actively in generation of information, data collection, policy recommendations, implementation of plans, as well as monitoring all development projects. In India, single envelope sectoral planning has been common since long and the planning process has been largely centralized. The multi-level planning procedure separates the national territory into small territorial units whose amount is determined with the size of the national territory and its administrative, geographical, regions structure.

In India, five stages of multi-level planning (Matthaei & Sector Project Rural Development, 2018) have been acknowledged as

- i. National level - sectoral as well as inter-state/ inter-regional planning
- ii. State level -Challenging of sectoral cum inter-district/ inter-regional planning
- iii. District / Metropolitan level - Regional planning
- iv. Block level area planning
- v. Panchayat level - Village planning

4.4.3 Emergence of a New Institution: NITI Commission (NITI Aayog)

On 1 January 2015, 65-year-old Planning Commission was also scrapped by the government and NITI Aayog (National Institution for Transforming India) was established as a significant change of policy by including the states in policy-making. Such a shift has been made following the wide consultation along the range of interested parties, which can be state governments, experts in the field, and institutions. Disbanding the Planning Commission May 2014 Narendra Modi announced in his first Independence Day address in 2014 that the Planning Commission had been dismantled. He said the replacement would be a step forward to bringing in a cooperative federalism (G.O.I., 2015)

NITI Aayog is aimed to give a critical directional and strategic input in the development process. This has been done at the expense of activity marked by the common characteristic during the Planning Commission era, the center-to-state one-way flow of policy that has now been substituted by an actual and real long-lasting relationship involving a partnership between states. NITI Aayog has also come up as a think-tank that can give governments, both central and state, the required strategic and technical suggestions of various salient aspects of policy. In 2021, NITI Aayog introduced a report called reforms in urban planning capacity in India, which suggests steps in ramping up urban planning capacity in the country. The report was also formulated after consultation was undertaken with the ministries and prominent professionals in the field of urban and regional planning. It underlines the foundations of an integrated development of the cities, citizens and environment to be based on urban planning and provides various recommendations to eliminate the bottlenecks of the value chain of urban planning capacity in India (G.O.I., 2015).

4.4.4 Capital Region Planning System

The largest in the country is the polycentric urban region seen in the National Capital Region (NCR) in the whole of India, covering Delhi and including other districts of Haryana, Rajasthan, and Uttar Pradesh and a population of about 60 million people with a sprawl of around 55,083 sq km. A statutory body, the NCR Planning Board (hereafter NCRPB) is constituted under the National Capital Region Planning Board Act, 1985, to have coordinating powers in harmonizing land use and infrastructure, over this cross-state territory. The Board has been given authority to coordinate and supervise the implementation of the Regional Plan as

well as to develop coordinated policies of control of land uses and development of infrastructure in the National Capital Region so as to prevent any non-planned development. The NCRPB is a coordinating and monitoring body and the province of executing schemes in the concerned states has always been reserved to the participating states or their nominated implementing agencies. The Board also has the power to choose and fund the development of any other city outside the National Capital Region according to the concept of the counter-magnet so that the goals of the Regional Plan could be fulfilled (Kumar, 2025)

In 2005, the current Regional Plan of the NCR was notified. Considering the high rate of demographic growth and intense urban expansion across NCR and more specially at the periphery and peri-urban regions of the same that has seriously stressed already established infrastructure and public services, the Regional Plan, 2041 (RP) was crucial to be in place so that there could be regulated, sustainable and balanced regional growth of the region of Delhi and its neighboring states (Kumar, 2025).

4.4.5 The Development of Master Plans

Master plans in India can be traced back to the British town planning system which though adapted to suit the needs of the Indian cities took the form of the town and country planning acts in the different states. The acts put in place the obligation to work out the Master Plans to develop cities that were imaginable within 20 or 25 years to come. The Master plans or development plans included land use (present and proposed) plan and development control restrictions.

The Third Five Year Plan was the one which identified the term of what is called Master Plan as being a legislative tool of regulating and guiding and enhancing economically and rationally sound construction and re-construction of an urban region holding a perspective of obtaining utmost economic, social and aesthetic advantage. The master plan prepared in India is drawn and is based on the provisions as per the provisions of individual acts like Delhi Development Act 1957 in case of Delhi (Nallathiga, 2009).

4.4.4.1 Delhi Master Plan: A Case Study

The Albert Mayer head Ford Foundation team and in collaboration with the Town Planning Organization (TPO) prepared the first Master Plan of Delhi. The Delhi Development Authority was established in 1957 through the Delhi Development Act and the relevant acts were there to have the Master plan and this

4.5 Territorial Governance Practices in India

could be legally executed. The initiative of the Master Plan of Delhi in 1962 (MPD-62) got the wheels of the planned development of Delhi and infrastructure services rolling, this move was mainly on the part of the public sector moving forward. In the Master Plan of Delhi (1962), the shortcomings in terms of housing, community amenities, services etc. were evaluated and the estimates based on 4.6 million (later revised to 5.3 million) population in 1981 had been made. The then 42, 700 acres of urbanized land in 1958-59 was expanded to 110,500 acres. The scheme of the Large-Scale Acquisition, Development and Disposal of Land in Delhi was Notified in November 1959 by the Government under Land Acquisition Act, 1894 (Nallathiga, 2009).

Master Plan of Delhi-2001 (MPD-2001) has envisioned population of 12.20 million to 13.8 million in the year 2001. The Master Plan of Delhi 2021 is notified in February 2007 which estimated the population of Delhi to be 22 to 23 million in the year 2021. The Census 2021 has not been made yet but the preliminary estimates given by the Census of India show that the population is 20.6 million. Delhi is struggling with pollution, shortage of water and electricity, climatic change, transport and surrounding. The Draft Master Plan of Delhi-2041 which the DDA has accepted on February 28, 2023, and has been sent to the Union government for its final nod, has taken that 20 years previewing of master planning (Nallathiga, 2009).

Even though substantial advances have been made towards the construction of a comprehensive mechanism of planning on different levels, the problems pertaining to the implementation, co-ordination among different planning authorities and, above all, to actual devolution of planning functions to planning authorities of local nature as it is meant to be by the 74 th Amendment to the Constitution. Future of spatial planning in India is connected with reinforcement of multi-level planning framework and adoption of new tools and methods that may help in resolving the multifaceted issues of rapid urbanization, environment sustainability and inclusive development.

4.5 Territorial Governance Practices in India

Territorial governance practices in federal India encompass a mix of decentralized and devolutionary autonomy models aimed at balancing regional diversity with national unity. The administration of India's territories is complicated due to its large population and diversity. The territorial governance practices in federal India encompass two main types of autonomy: decentralized autonomy and

devolutionary autonomy (K.K.S. Hausing). Decentralized autonomy involves the delegation of powers to subnational governments, while devolutionary autonomy entails the transfer of authority to local bodies. Decentralized autonomy in India is primarily seen in the form of states and union territories, which have their own legislative and executive powers as enshrined in the Constitution. Each state has its own government with jurisdiction over certain subjects, such as education, healthcare, and agriculture. This allows for decision-making at the local level and fosters a sense of regional identity and pride. Devolutionary autonomy, on the other hand, is evident in the system of local self-government bodies known as Panchayats and Municipalities. These institutions are responsible for grassroots governance and service delivery in areas such as sanitation, water supply, and urban planning. They play a crucial role in ensuring citizen participation and empowerment at the community level. In India, these practices have been influenced by historical and political factors, leading to a complex interplay between central and regional authorities.

Decentralization of authority allows autonomous state governments to allocate some of their powers to the national government. Democratic decentralisation was initiated at the grassroots level soon after independence, though the Panchayati Raj institutions got only limited powers. It was only with the passage of the 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments in December 1992 that local self-governance and planning practices were extended to rural and urban India.

One of the best examples in India for applying grassroots democracy is the state of Kerala which executes largely at both state and local levels. Additionally, this chapter goes into the structure of local bodies, its functions and coordination between different levels of government within Kerala.

India's shift from state to urban governance is characterized by challenges associated with the fast-urbanizing India. The 74th Constitution Amendment Act (CAA) of 1993 gave Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) powers in areas such as urban planning, water supply, social and economic planning, slum upgrading, public health etc. with an objective of enhancing decentralization of the urban system. Urban India is structured and governed by Local Area Plans, Zonal Plans and Master Plans prepared by the ULBs (C. Vaidya). Master plans are critical instruments, providing a detailed framework, in the practice of urban governance. Bengaluru, known as the Silicon Valley of India, the largest urban agglomeration in south India from the state of Karnataka, will enlighten the competencies of a master plan.

4.5.1 Kerala, India: “Kerala Model Development”

“The ‘Kerala model’ of development should be counted as a possible idealisation of a sustainable development paradigm” (G. Parayil, 1996, p.941).

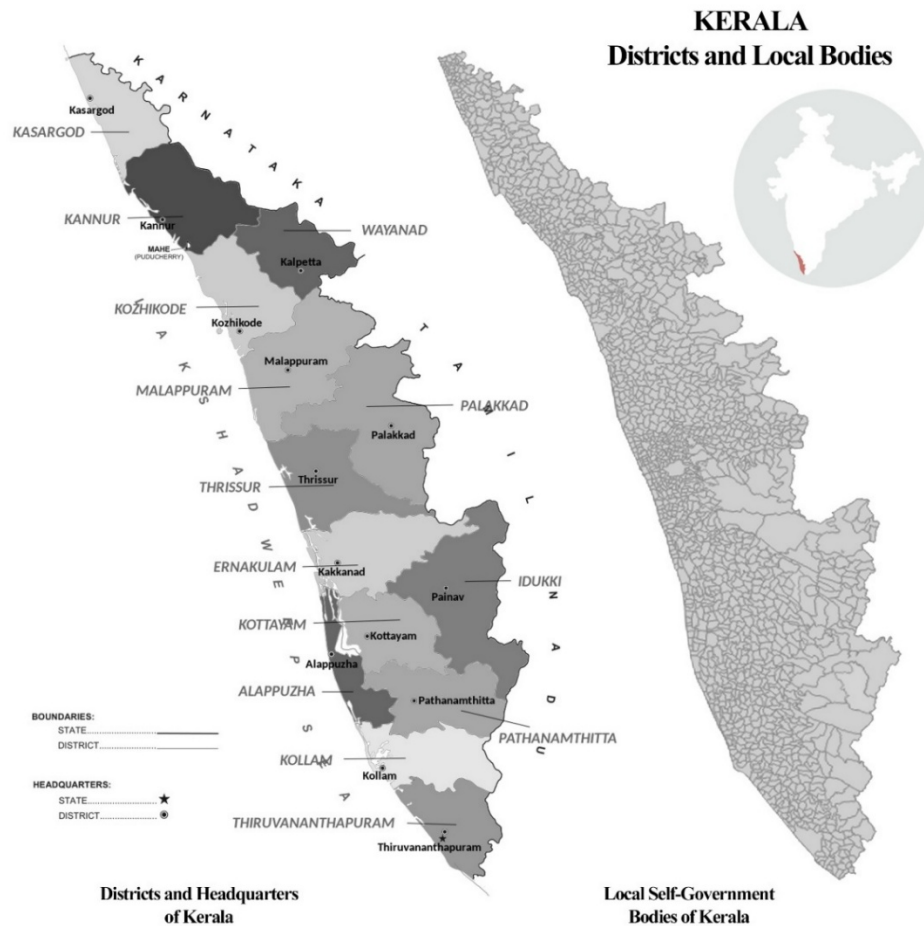


Figure 8: Regional division, states and LSGs of Kerala © Authors (Kerala Geoportal)

Kerala, one of the most densely populated state in the country located in the southwestern coast of the country came into lime light for its social development achievements known as the “Kerala Model” of development (René Véron). A well developed system of decentralization and participatory local democracy characterizes Kerala. The Kerala Municipality Act and the Kerala Panchayat Raj Act provided for the three tier local bodies structure in the state with gram panchayats, block panchayats and district panchayats. This system of local government affords the local governments a plethora of powers and duties which

include offering social welfare services, economic development, and the maintenance of some of the bare essentials of life. Kerala has carried out decentralization reforms in the provision of services, which has enhanced the involvement of the citizen's participation in the governing processes, and has enhanced accountability and transparency of local government authorities (V. N. Mukherjee).

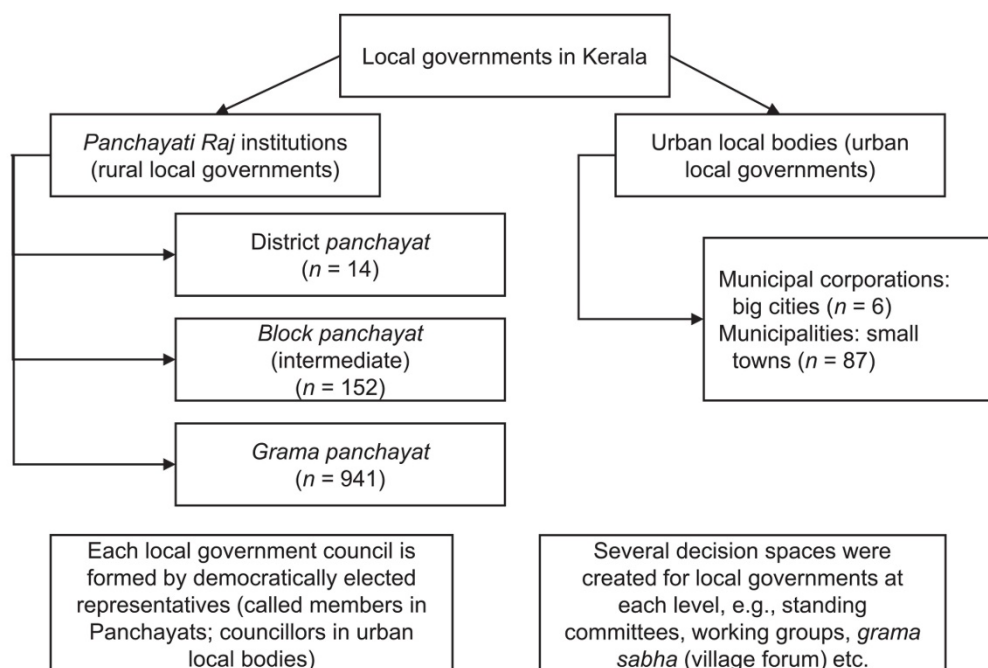


Figure 9: Local Government System in Kerala © Anju R., et al., 2023

The decentralization programme of Kerala was again restructured during the 10th five-year plan and was called as the Kerala Development Plan (KDP). The process of the 11th Five-Year Plan period was changed completely, with much stress on the concept of 'People's Planning' and the finalization of decentralized government institutionalization.

The state-level and local planning practices in Kerala are examined in the overview and study that follows, concentrating in particular on Kerala's local self-governing bodies.

4.5.1.1 State Level Planning Practices

Kerala, the only state in India, is distinctive as it has a longstanding experience of carrying out five-year plans from the time it was introduced. Since its founding

4.5 Territorial Governance Practices in India

in 1967, the Kerala State Planning Board has played a crucial role in developing and assessing the state's development plans using scientific methods. The Board has been instrumental in creating long-term plans such as the state's Five-Year Plans (from the 4th) and in preparing annual plans. The Kerala State Planning Board acts as an advisory body that helps the government to create development plans based on a scientific evaluation of the resources available, through which the Kerala state government engages in planning of the territory. It is formulated during the board's annual planning and is a detailed economic outlook of the state. Moreover, through its Planspace management information system, it also supports the monitoring of these development plans' execution. The board also coordinates with other departments of the government in matters pertaining to the actualization of planned schemes and programs into action. The "People's Plan Campaign", which sought to transfer 35% of the state development budget to local governments for local-level planning and implementation, is one of the board's initiatives that has contributed to the decentralization of planning in Kerala (K.I.L.A). Correspondingly, it also offers policy recommendations, professional advice, and technical support to the state government on a range of development-related issues. The Board is divided into eight major divisions that carry out its official duties. They are as follows:

- Plan Co-ordination Division
- Agriculture Division
- Evaluation Division
- Social Service Division
- Industry and Infrastructure Division
- Decentralized Planning Division
- Perspective Planning Division
- Information and Technology Wing

In Kerala, decentralization started with the "Janakeeyasoothranam" (Peoples Plan Campaign) plan prepared and executed by the Panchayati Raj Institutions. The state government published an order (G.O (MS) No.10/96/plg.; dt. 30-7-1996) outlining the concept of the people's plan campaign and setting the stage for participatory planning for the 9th Five Year Plan (1997–2002) (K.I.L.A). Kerala State Planning Board has to work in coordination with other departments of local self-government to ensure participative planning. The State Planning Board has a Division of Decentralised Planning which looks after the matters related to the formulation and execution of local government plans and exercises related to urban and rural development, community development, and the development of

Scheduled Castes and Scheduled Tribes. Furthermore, this division develops policies and procedures for planning at the local level.

Key to Kerala's development and governance are the Local Self Government Institutions (LSGIs).

4.5.1.2 Local Self-Government Institutions

Kerala's decentralized governance is characterized by the significant delegation of authority, responsibilities, personnels and resources to Local Self Government Institutions (LSGIs). After the 73rd and 74th Constitutional Amendments were put into effect in December 1992, this delegation of power to the local bodies took place.

Before its revision in 1994, the Kerala Panchayats Act, 1960 governed the panchayat's operations. Under the Kerala Panchayats Act of 1960, the panchayats had limited functional freedom and autonomy. Even though the panchayats were governed by an elected body, Section 55 of the 1960 Act gave the Government extensive authority over them. The Government was empowered to dissolve and replace panchayats if it believed that a panchayat lacked the necessary skills or continuously failed to fulfill its legal obligations, or if it had overreached or abused its authority (P.Ramachandran). The power dynamics among the government, the Panchayat Department, and the panchayat were altered by the 1994 act. Kerala saw notable advancements in the transfer of authority to Local Self-Government Institutions (LSGIs) between 1996 and 2001 (R.W.Franke). Delegating authority and funds to Local Self-Government Organizations (LSGIs), the state started a democratic decentralization process. Panchayats (LSGI) are elected bodies that function in a three-tier system. By giving these local governance institutions 35 percent of the authority and funding, the devolution process enabled them to assume a pivotal role in local development and administration.

The Kerala Panchayat Raj Act and the Kerala Municipality Act in 1994 was a crucial milestones in Kerala's devolutionary process. The Kerala governance in rural area is structured by a three-tier governance system, which consists of Grama Panchayats, Block Panchayats, and District Panchayats and the governance in urban area is a single tier system with Municipalities in towns and Municipal Corporations in cities and this constitutes the framework of local self-government in the state.

4.5 Territorial Governance Practices in India

District	Number of Grama Panchayats	Number of Municipalities	Number of Municipal Corporations
Thiruvananthapuram	73	4	1
Kollam	68	4	1
Pathanamthitta	53	4	-
Alappuzha	72	6	-
Kottayam	71	6	-
Idukki	52	2	-
Ernakulam	82	13	1
Thrissur	86	7	1
Palakkad	88	7	-
Malappuram	94	12	-
Kozhikode	70	7	1
Wayanad	23	3	-
Kannur	71	9	1
Kasaragod	38	3	-
KERALA	941	87	6

Table 3: District-wise Number of Rural and Urban Local Bodies in Kerala © Department of Local Self-Government

There are different levels of Local Self-Government Institutions (LSGIs) for which elections for representatives at all these levels are conducted periodically in Kerala. These elections determine the leadership and governance at the local level whereby citizens are given a chance to elect local representatives who will be in charge of development projects in their communities through organizing and planning and implementing. The LSGI election process is governed by the Kerala Municipality Act and the Kerala Panchayat Raj Act to ensure the citizens of a democratic council to select their representatives who will work for local development and for the benefit of their people. The Peoples Plan Campaign or “Janakeeyasoothranam” initiated in 1996 with the decentralisation with the LSGIs by the government lead by the Left Democratic Front intended to engage the populace in decision-making process, to take government nearer to the people. This helped in the enhancement of the involvement of the Citizen in the local governance. As the basic level of organizations that are to implement the plans that are worked out with the use of the public, LSGIs play a critical role in this regard. The partnership model of LSGIs with people’s planning reveals that Kerala has been involving cooperation in the development projects for the common people. Figure illustrate the major achievement of Kerala’s decentralisation after the

implementation of Kerala Panchayat Raj Act and the Kerala Municipality Act in the year 1994.

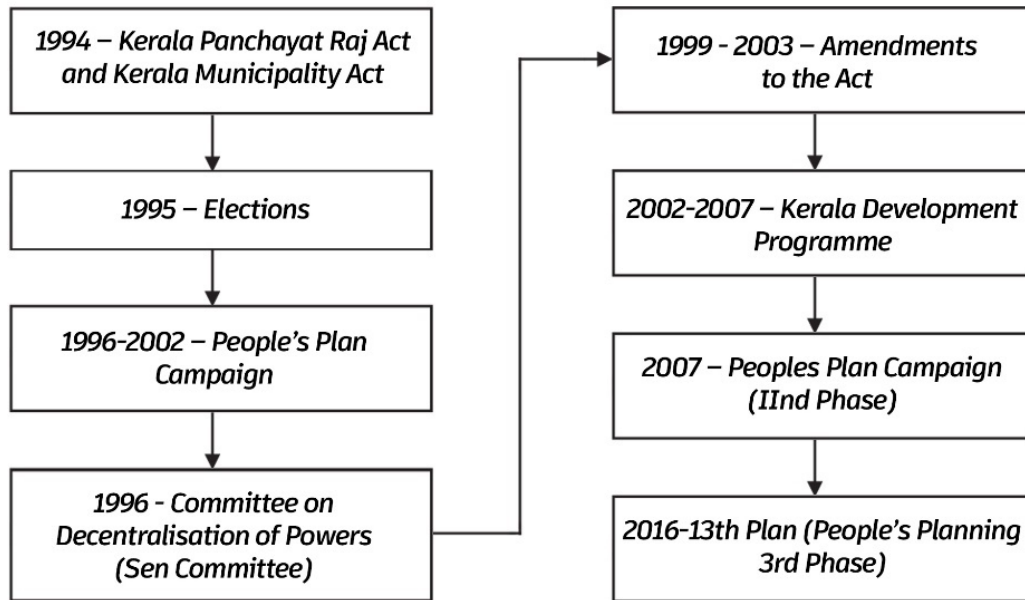


Figure 10: Milestones in Decentralisation Initiatives in Kerala © The Kerala Public Health Act, 2023 (2023)

The "Janakeeyasoothranam" (Peoples Plan Campaign) launched in 1996 by the government lead by the Left Democratic Front, aimed to involve the public in grassroots decision-making, bring governance closer to the people. The People's Planning Campaign is a hierarchical compilation of local, regional, and state-level plans that serves as a planning and budgeting mechanism. It was created expressly for the development of the 9th five year plan (J. Plummer & S.de.Cleene., 1999).

A participatory planning process is used in people's planning. The figure 12 illustrates the procedures and stages of the participatory planning methodology that have been used since the start of the Ninth Five Year Plan (1997–2002) from an existing data from a working paper by Richard W. Franke in 2008 "The Kerala Experiment in Democratic Decentralization: An Overview for Bolivarian Activists". This process have been futher continued and improved over the years.

4.5 Territorial Governance Practices in India

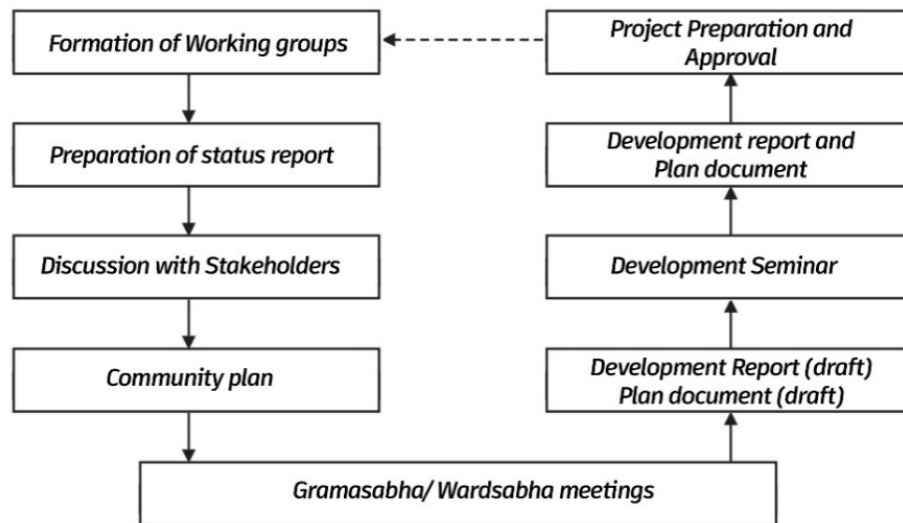


Figure 11: Participatory planning process in People's Planning © Kerala Institute of Local Administration (KILA)

Activity Number	General Stage	Achievement	Significance for Democratic Governance and Development
1	1	Devolve 35-40% of State Plan Funds to Local Units	Decentralization–Empowerment
2	1	Local Assembly Attendance by Nearly 3 Million Adults	People's Participation
3	1	Empowerment Through Small Group Meetings with Semi-structured Discussion Format	Participation–Transform Individuals
4	1	Collect Local Data and Conduct Transect Walks	People's Participation
5	1	Write Community Development Reports and Conduct Development Seminars	Participation–Transform Individuals
6	2	Draft, Appraise, Prioritize, and Implement Projects and Plans	Participation–Transform Individuals
7	2	Reduce or Eliminate Corruption – Social Auditing and Related Practices	Improve Government
8	2	Reduce Cynicism; Mobilize Volunteer Labor and Materials to Increase Project Inputs by 10%	Improve Quality of Life–Transform Individuals
9	2	Deliver funds to SC/ST	Improve Quality of Life
10	2	Women's Projects, Women's Involvement	Improve Quality of Life–Transform Individuals
11	2	Division of Plan Priorities at Different Levels	Improve Government
12	1-3	Involve Opposition Parties to Greatest Extent Possible	Reduce Rivalries – Improve Community Life
13	1-2	Training—Mass Education	Sustainability – Transform Individuals
14	2	Physical Achievements	Improve Quality of Life
15	2-3	Emergence of Exceptional Communities that Could Inspire Others	Sustainability
16	2	Institutionalize Campaign Through Legislation	Sustainability
17	2-3	Spontaneous Creation of Neighborhood Groups	People's Participation – Transform Individuals
18	2-3	Raise Environmental Issues, Start Watershed Awareness	Sustainability
19	3	Organize Women's Micro-Finance Cooperatives	Overcome Poverty – Transform Individuals
20	1-3	Learn How to Correct Mistakes and Deal with Unanticipated Activities	Sustainability – Improve Government – Transform Individuals

Franke Overview of Kerala People's Plan Campaign September 2008 – 4

Figure 12: Selected Activities and Achievements of the Kerala People's Campaign 1996–2001 and continuing to 2007 © Franke, R. W. (2008)

The participatory planning process initiated in Kerala was a radical decision in devolving the spatial planning role to local self-government bodies by making them able to diagnose the local needs as well as to designate areas of priority. This has led to Kerala People Planning Campaign being the largest decentralization project

ever implemented in India and which serves as a role model of bottom-up planning and local empowerment. The Kerala spatial-planning paradigm holds a unique position, due to its high-level rural-urban continuum. Through the years, the state has developed its planning practices in the ability to respond to heterogeneous settlement requirements through prospective, participatory and adaptive orientation. Kerala is therefore a national model that has combined development with environmental sustainability and social justice.

Chapter 5

Indian States and Union Territories

Before India gained its independence, it was split up into 565 princely states and 17 provinces. The Reorganization of States of 1956 resulted in the creation of 14 states and 6 Union Territories following independence. Several reorganizations over the years have resulted in changes to the number of states and Union Territories; the most recent was the establishment of Telangana in 2014.



Figure 13: Pre Independence Indian Regional Divisions © Authors

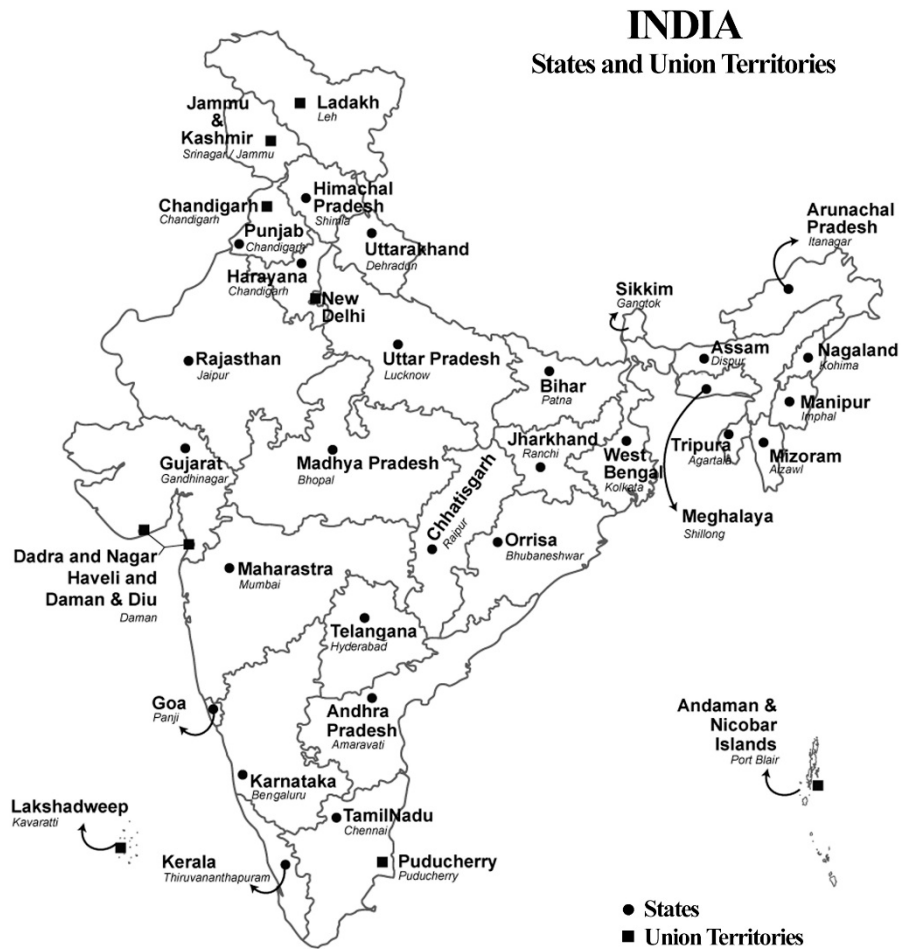


Figure 14: States, Union territories and its Capitals (2024) © Authors

5.1 States

In India, state governments are primary authorities that are most involved in spatial planning, although the central government plays a supportive role through policies and measures. Town planning acts and development authorities at the state level provide the state governments the overall control of land use planning and urban development. The Planning Commission, which is currently known as NITI Aayog, and the Ministry of Urban Development offer guidelines and technical assistance at the national level. Based on their geographic location and shared cultural heritage, the states of India can be divided into six main geographical regions, allowing for improved regional administration and development planning. This regional classification was considered when conducting the state study (figure.00).

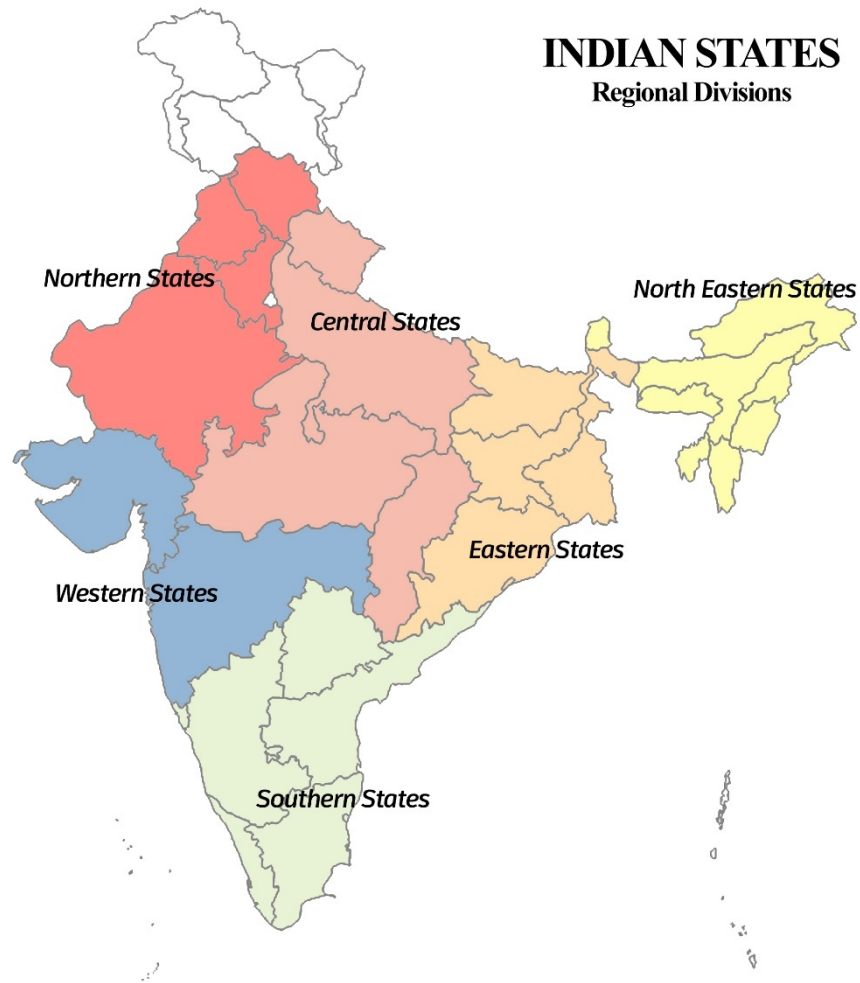


Figure 15: Indian Regional Divisions of States © Authors

In certain situations, spatial planning is implemented using common national standards and tools. One example of that would be the authority vested in the state and the authority transferred to local bodies by the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act of 1992. Special Economic Zones are also such a unique situation. These are designated geographic areas that provide incentives to local companies to encourage investments, manufacturing focused on exports, and facilitate business operations. In order to draw in more substantial foreign investments and spur economic growth, these zones are intended to offer a more liberal economic environment than the nation's domestic economic laws. In India, SEZs come in four different forms: Free Trade Zones (FTZs), Export Processing Zones (EPZs), Industrial Estates (IEs), and Urban Enterprise Zones. There are numerous Special

Economic Zones (SEZs) in operation throughout India's states. The states are mainly analyzed according to the transfer of land use rights, the type of spatial planning system and the locus of power in governance and spatial planning decisions.

5.1.1 Northern States



Figure 16: Indian Regional Divisions of States: Northern States

The Northern region of India is renowned for having a varied climate, with the hot, humid Indo-Gangetic plain and the frigid, dry Ladakh region. The Indo-Gangetic plain borders it on the south and east, the Himalayas to the north, and the Thar Desert to the west. This region covers the union territories of Chandigarh,

5.1 States

Jammu and Kashmir, and Ladakh as well as the states of Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Punjab, and Rajasthan.

Haryana, primarily a state led system with some market driven elements, the state retains power over regulatory frameworks and government agencies, with the participation of private developers and market demand, driving urban development in the state. Haryana Development and Regulation of Urban Areas Act, 1975 and Haryana Urban Development Act of 1977 establishes, legalizes and regulates the planning framework.

Haryana has a six-tiered structural framework, state level, Urban Development Authorities (UDA), district level, block level, local level and Panchayati raj institutions, with various governmental agencies and governance bodies coordinating at different levels to facilitate effective spatial planning. At the state level Department of Town & Country Planning (DTCP), Haryana Shehri Vikas Pradhikaran (HSVP), Haryana Urban Development Authority (HUDA), and Haryana State Industrial & Infrastructure Development Corporation (HSIIDC) acts as the regulatory bodies. The DTCP serves as the pivotal body for regulating the planning through out the state, it prepares the development plans Haryana Development and Regulation of Urban Areas Act, 1975 and also provides guidelines and advisory services to other urban planning agencies. The HSVP oversees the planned development of urban areas, while the HUDA prepares and implements Master plans and coordinates developments across different urban areas and the HSSIID promotes industrial development and infrastructure projects in the state. These bodies uses plans along with specific tools at different levels to ensure spatial planning in Haryana. The framework of tools starts with the Sub Regional Plans. Sub-Regional Plans focuses on broader regional development goals that extents over multiple urban and rural areas. These plans conforms to the guidelines established by the Regional Plan for National Capital Region. Sub Regional Plan are prepared by the state and submitted to National Capital Region Planning Board (NCRPB) which ensures the compliance with regional objectives of the National Capital Region. At the district level, the District Plans focuses on the needs of the specific districts prioritizing the requirements of communities with inputs from the local institutions. It is followed by development plans and master plans. Development Plans are regulatory documents with guideline for land use and development in specific urban areas, meanwhile Master Plans provide framework for long term development addressing different sectors of the planning and development. Both are prepared by DTCP and HUDA and implemented by local authorities such as the HSVP along with HUDA. At the rural level, Village

Development Plans addresses the spatial planning needs of rural communities and are prepared and implemented focusing on the local contexts.

The main discourses revolves around state's response to rapid urbanization and environmental challenges. Public-Private Partnerships (PPPs) are vital in spatial planning and urban development in Haryana. Various models like Build-Operate-Transfer (BOT), Design-Build-Finance-Operate (DBFO) and Joint Ventures are key PPPs followed in the state. Urban regeneration projects are facilitated through PPPs by the revitalization of neglected urban areas. Another response to rapid urbanization in Haryana is the Capacity Augmentation of Urban Planning. It adapts with the fast phase of urbanization through local bodies, meetings, policy reforms, and sustainable development tools. The environmental challenges associated with rapid urbanization is addressed by Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA). Its focuses on the integration of environmental considerations in spatial planning and policy preparation processes. Along with the identified special economic zones, a special case in spatial planning in Haryana is the development of Civic Amenities and Infrastructure Deficient Areas. Haryana Management of Civic Amenities and Infrastructure Deficient Municipal Areas (Special Provisions) Act, 2016, legalizes the identification and regularization of unauthorized colonies and areas lacking essential infrastructure, and transforming it into planned urban spaces.

Himachal Pradesh, market led approach, has an integrated spatial development strategy that is a set of measures and policies aimed at stimulating business activity, strengthening the material and technical basis for the development of the economy. As per the Himachal Pradesh Town and Country Planning Act, 1977 which lays down the laws for planning and development in Himachal Pradesh, spatial planning is largely the responsibility of the state government. Based on integration, coordination and use of geographical information technologies, the state of Himachal Pradesh is characterized by a multi-scalar statutory and all-encompassing planning regime. This strategy involves the planning at different scales as it is crucial to address the state's specific spatial planning challenges, especially regarding the topography and the extreme climate (Kapoor, N. ; Bansal, Vijay Kr.).

There are essentially two categories into which this multi-scale approach can be grouped: Statutory Plans and Detailed Plans. Planning and executing statutory plans, such as Regional plans, Development plans and Sectoral plans, falls within the purview of the state government's Department of Town and Country Planning (TCP). The regional plan defines the broader vision and approach for the area's

development, the development plan provides comprehensive guidelines for land use, zoning, and infrastructure development at a 1:1000–12,000 scale and the sectoral plans are detailed plans that expand on the development plan's description of land use (Development plan, Manali). The detailed planning approach incorporates the spatial planning at site level which entails the development of location plan, site plan, and subdivision plan at scale of 1:1000, 1:200, and 1:100 respectively. These detailed plans are made and finalized as per the provisions of the Himachal Pradesh Town and Country Planning Rules, 2014 and the Himachal Pradesh Town and Country Planning Act, 1977.

One essential element of discourse from regular spatial planning in Himachal Pradesh is the Spatial suitability assessment for planning infrastructure facilities at the site level in hill areas. It encompasses evaluating the technical feasibility and suitability of land for the development of infrastructure for small-scale spatial planning in hilly regions, which is quite often disregarded in furtherance of large-scale regional and national planning. It facilitates in resolving the unique challenges brought on by Himachal Pradesh's hilly terrain (Kapoor, N.; Bansal, Vijay Kr.).

Punjab, a state-led system, is distinguished by its multi-scaled and multifaceted structure, a complete and integrated urban planning framework which involve state and local development bodies and community engagement. Punjab Urban Planning and Development Authority (PUDA), which is established under the Punjab Regional and Town Planning and Development Act (PRTPDA), 1995, is the primary agency for urban planning in Punjab that guide urban development initiatives. They work alongside Town and Country Planning Organization (TCPO) to prepare development plans and guidelines.

The multi-scaled institutional structure includes authorities and committees at different levels and public participation mechanisms along with multifaceted tools forms the spatial planning framework of Punjab. Punjab Urban Planning and Development Building Rules issued by the PUDA shapes the development practices in the state. It outlays the standards and guidelines for the preparation of master plans and development plans. At the regional level, Regional Plans provides framework for the management of various urban centers and districts. It outlines long term vision for regions and addresses the interdependencies between urban and rural areas. Master Plans serves as regulatory documents for specific areas outlining long term visions for urban development for period of 10 to 20 years. These are developed by local development authorities at urban level guided by the PUDA. The involvement of local development authorities ensures that Master

Plans can address the specific needs of every town or city as well as ensure general compliance with state requirements. The goals outlined in master plans are put into practice through Development Plans, that serve as medium-term documents that concentrates on particular projects and activities over a time span of 5 to 10 years. Development Plans details out the land use allocations, infrastructure development, strategy implementations and public participation processes of the specified urban area. In the development plans, depending on the needs of certain areas or certain sectors of a city, zonal plans are developed, which details the proposed use of land, infrastructure and public facilities within the sector. In the Rural area of Punjab, Panchayat Development Plans (PDP), prepared by the Gram Panchayats, are the pivotal tool in structuring the development objectives and projects addressing the local needs of the rural communities. PDPs authorizes local self-governance institutions to plan and implement sustainable rural development in villages across Punjab. To address specific sectors of development, such as housing, water supply, sanitation, waste management, transportation etc., Sectoral Plans are prepared. It set outs strategies and guidelines for the sectors of developments within urban and rural context aligning to the broader objectives.

Public participation and Community Engagement can be considered as a discourse in the spatial planning of Punjab, which ensures the relevance of the development initiatives for local needs and objectives in Urban and Rural areas. The mechanisms include Gram Sabha meetings, in rural areas, and Public Consultations, in urban areas, and Stakeholder Engagement Plans like the Punjab Urban Land Systems Enhancement Project. Along with the identified special economic zones, Special Area/New Town Planning Authorities can be considered as a special case. Punjab Regional and Town Planning and Development Act, 1995 legalizes the establishment of Special Area/New Town Planning Authorities to oversee the development of special areas or new towns which requires attention due to unique challenges or opportunities with cultural, economic or environmental significance.

Rajasthan, a state led system with very little market-driven elements, is distinguished by its multi-scaled and multifaceted structure involving state and local development bodies and agencies at multiple levels. Rajasthan Urban Improvement Act, 1959, provided the legal basis of spatial planning framework in Rajasthan. Along with this, the recent Rajasthan Regional and Urban Planning Act, 2024, aims at establishing balanced regional and urban development across the state spotlighting public participation and stakeholder engagement in the process. Rajasthan has projects and organizations across multiple regions and cities

throughout the state, focusing on water supply, infrastructure, transport, sewerage etc. like the Rajasthan Urban Infrastructure Development Project (RUIDP) and Rajasthan Urban Drinking Water, Sewerage & Infrastructure Development Corporation (RUDSICO). The market driven elements are primarily Public-Private Partnerships (PPP) initiatives aimed at housing and infrastructure schemes and incentives for private sector involvement in township developments.

The structured multi-scaled approach starts with Rajasthan Master Plan 2031, which serves as the framework for spatial planning across the state. This serves as overarching guideline for the city specific master plans and other development initiatives. Rajasthan Regional and Urban Planning Act, 2024 legalizes Sub-Regional Plans creating regional planning areas to address specific challenges faced by sub regions. They are prepared in consultation with local bodies and complies with the broader objectives of the state. Under the Rajasthan Master Plan 2031, City Master Plans are blueprints tailored to specific needs of the city focusing mainly on land use planning, infrastructure development, transportation, cultural and historic significance and civic amenities. Furthermore, for specific areas within cities detailed regulations are provided through the Zonal Development Plans. Rural development and urbanization management in smaller urban centres are realized by Master Plans for Census Towns and Village Development Plans with inclusive planning strategies. The implementation and management of the master plans and development plans are carried out through Urban Improvement Trusts (UITs). They are established under the Rajasthan Urban Improvement Act, 1959 and operated under Rajasthan Urban Improvement Trust Rules, 1961.

The notable discourses in Spatial Planning in Rajasthan are its policies and the Water Management Strategies. Transferable Development Rights (TDR) Policy is one of the most important policies in Rajasthan which allows the transfer of development rights of an area (sending area) where development is restricted (agricultural land, open spaces, or historical sites) to other areas (receiving area) which are identified for increased density and development. Developers can purchase TDRs from landowners in sending areas to exceed local zoning regulations of the receiving areas. The other important policy is the Slum Rehabilitation and Affordable Housing Policy. It focuses on the improving the conditions of the slum areas and providing affordable housing to the Economically weaker sections of the state. This policy complies with the broader Rajasthan Urban Development Policy which addresses the issues related to rapid urbanization across the state. Since Rajasthan has significant challenges related to water scarcity because of its desert climate, water management strategies assume an important

role in formulating development policies and directions across the state. Along with the identified special economic zones, Heritage Conservation Plans are special cases where plans and policies for urban development accommodates protection, preservation and promotion of state's rich cultural and architectural heritage. This resonates with the goals set under the Heritage City Development and Augmentation Yojana (HRIDAY) launched by the Government of India to reactivate and promote heritage cities in India.

5.1.2 Central States

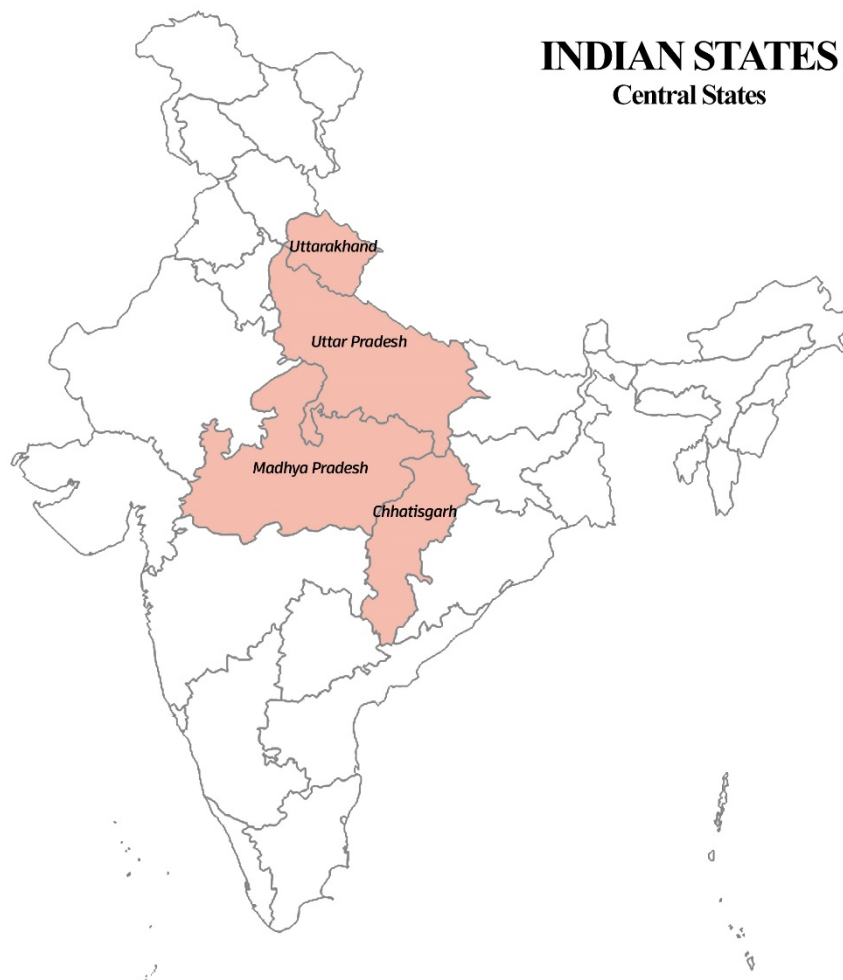


Figure 17: Indian Regional Division of States: Central States © Authors

5.1 States

Central India consists of Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh, Uttarakhand and Uttar Pradesh. Geographically and culturally the region of central states of India is diverse and significant. Each state has its own state legislations that legalizes the spatial planning and development. This region is a blend of plains and hills, cultural heritage, and economic diversity, with agriculture being the dominant activity throughout the region.

In **Chhattisgarh**, the economic system operates as a state-led with little elements of market-driven one. Most sectors especially the agricultural, commercial and infrastructure development sectors are characterized with a lot of government intervention with market forces.

The frameworks for urban and rural planning in the state are legalized by the Chhattisgarh Nagar Tatha Gram Nivesh Adhiniyam Act, 1973. This act defines the roles and duties of local urban bodies and gives guidelines on land use, zoning and development plans in the state. The state has made active efforts toward participatory planning; initiatives like the Mitani Programme in health and education are an approach to community participation. Natural resource planning and sustainability principles are becoming a part of the discourse of the state, which aims to achieve both effective management of natural resources and economic growth (Misra J.P., 2011).

The state government enjoys significant powers in policy making and resource allocation particularly in the health, education and development of infrastructure. Chhattisgarh's governance model gives importance to decentralization, allowing local bodies, such as Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs), to have a significant role in decision-making. An integrated planning structure connects several departments and administrative levels, an example of which is the Centralized Online Real-time Electronic Public Distribution System (CORE-PDS) which explains how vertical integration strengthens food security and enhances delivery of public services through an integrated approach across administrative levels. (Gowd K., 2020). The Directorate of Town and Country Planning is an administrative entity in the Department of Urban Development that sets development plans, structure plans as well as land use regulations in the state of Chhattisgarh. It looks after the approval of layouts and building permissions to ensure organized urban development. The directorate works in coordination with the ministry of Panchayati Raj in cooperation with other national institutes in the development of cohesive Master Plan framework of local governance. This project aims at reversing the unplanned rural development and improve the delivery of services in the regions around the urban areas. To maintain economic growth and ensure that the environment is not affected

too much, it is imperative to integrate the principles of sustainability into spatial planning. This includes assessments of ecological impacts and strategies for resource conservation that practitioners are implementing in Chhattisgarh. Much of the state is governed by the Fifth Schedule of the Indian Constitution that provides special governing structures in tribal areas. Some of these mechanisms include autonomous councils that empower local governance organizations to make land-use and development decisions hence giving tribal voices priority in planning processes (Jamatia, K. 2024).

The spatial development in **Madhya Pradesh** follows a state-led system with elements of market-led system. One of the most impressive indicators of this integration is the large amount of mineral revenue that the state produces, next only to Gujarat in the country. Spatial planning in Madhya Pradesh follows multi-scalar approach, with state-centric planning, district-wise master planning and Gram Panchayat master planning of settlements around urban nodes and major highways. This multi-scalar approach aims to foster sustainable development and improve the quality of life across the state (Spatial planning: Ministry of Panchayati Raj: India, n.d.).

Various spatial planning and development tools are used in Madhya Pradesh.

Decentralized District Planning: In Madhya Pradesh, decentralized district planning is being implemented and uses Technical Support Groups and Excel based planning, economic and statistical analysis.

Directorate of Town & Country Planning: Madhya Pradesh has a Directorate of Town & Country Planning which has developed a master plan of the district of Datia (Figure:00) which contains a lot of land-use and urban survey data.

Livelihood Zones Analysis: Livelihood Zones Analysis tool in Madhya Pradesh is employed to plan agricultural water management investment aimed at realizing better agricultural productivity and water resource management in Madhya Pradesh.

The land use rights and transformation mechanisms in Madhya Pradesh are governed by the Madhya Pradesh Land Revenue Code, which requires land use certification from the Directorate of Town & Country Planning. Real Estate Policy of the state also acknowledges Transfer of Development Rights (TDR) as an official instrument of land-use transformation. At the same time, the government has taken a more integrated strategy; schemes like the Ecosystem Services Improvement

5.1 States

Project (ESIP), which covers both public and private land, and involves local communities. The Madhya Pradesh ESIP also spends a lot of money on the specific areas of forest, which proves that they are quite serious about the environmental conservation and sustainable development. Additionally, the state also has in place capacity building provisions, knowledge partnership provisions and research collaborations all aimed at enhancing governance and land-management activities.

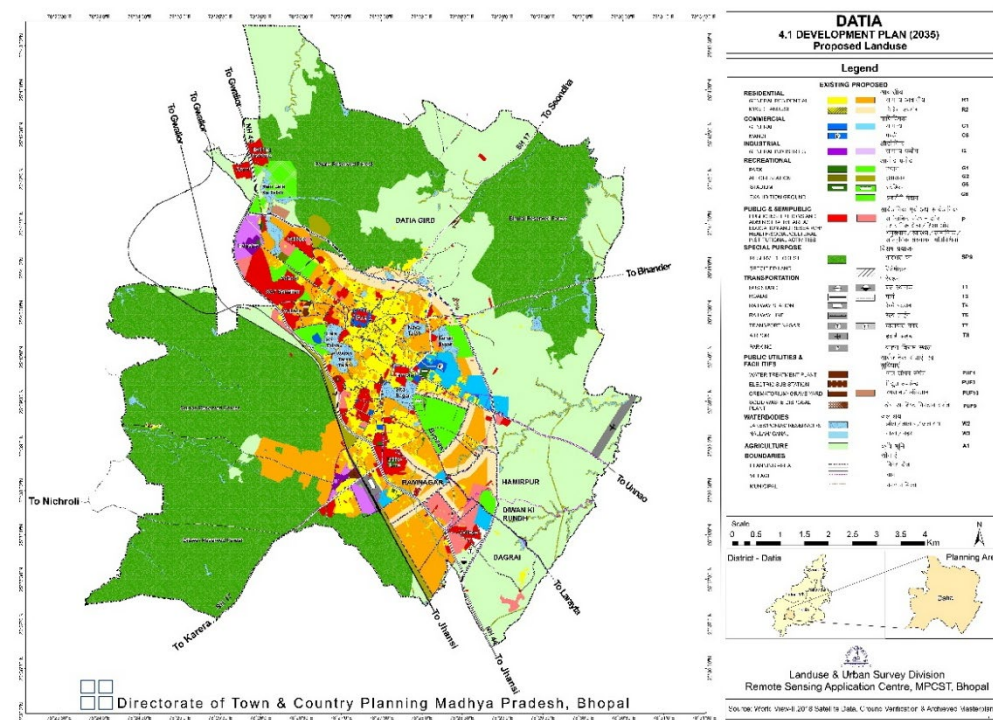


Figure 18: Proposed Landuse Plan 2035: Datia Development Plan © Landuse & Urban Survey Division Remote Sensing Application Centre, MPCST, Bhopal

The existence of a number of initiatives in Madhya Pradesh suggests a space of citizen involvement in policy making, especially in the education sector, in the form of Public Participation Committees in colleges and higher education reform conferences. This involvement is a factor that depicts the state desire to be inclusive in development and governance reform initiatives. Special cases in territorial governance and spatial planning in Madhya Pradesh include significant institutional changes and policy reforms aimed at enhancing local governance and infrastructure development.

The most important of these reforms is the decentralization of local institutions of governance especially Gram Sabhas to have powers over land disputes,

appointment of village guards and control of interest rates charged by moneylenders. The amendments of acts like the excise act and Mining act have granted ownership of the resources to the local bodies thereby allowing them to control the natural resources and bring about local development. The establishment of District Planning Committees (DPCs) with wide financial and administrative authority, headed by the regional leaders and District Collectors, is a strategic move to merge the objectives of rural and urban development planning into the district planning. At the same time, the state policy of decentralization, expressed in guiding principles, aims to empower Panchayati Raj Institutions (PRIs) and improve their role as local self-governing institutions. These initiatives reflect a comprehensive strategy to promote participatory governance, empower local communities, and drive sustainable development in Madhya Pradesh through effective spatial planning and territorial governance practices (Gupta N.D., 2002).

Uttarakhand is primarily a state led system, with some market driven elements. The state-led system ensures regulatory assistance and planned unbiased development while the market-led elements creates competition and innovation, especially in agriculture and manufacturing. Uttarakhand's governance structure includes various departments and agencies that are responsible for urban and rural planning and sustainable development, disaster management mechanisms, and environmental protection. The Centre for Public Policy and Good Governance (CPPGG), established in 2017, assists policy reforms and enhances governance through research and analytics. It focuses on integrating Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) into planning processes at all governance levels. (UNDP,2024).

The state authorities of Uttarakhand, have prepared and issued master plans for the urban areas which outlines long-term development strategies and zoning regulations for the defined area. These plans guide land use and infrastructure development in a structured framework. Such a master plan, the Dehradun Master Plan 2041, prepared by the Mussoorie Dehradun Development Authority (MDDA) for the city of Dehradun, aims to provide guidelines regarding infrastructure, housing, transportation, environment, and heritage conservation till 2041. Figure 19 shows the proposed binding land use plan for the city. The Uttarakhand Tourism Development Master Plan (2007-2022) delineates tourism zones and proposes strategies for sustainable tourism infrastructure. It stresses the importance of helping local communities and managing the environment to enhance tourism ensuring a holistic sustainable approach. The Uttarakhand Integrated and Resilient Urban Development Project (UIRUDP) focuses on improving urban infrastructure and services while enhancing climate resilience. This project aims to provide

5.1 States

equitable access to water supply and sanitation services across major urban centers like Dehradun and Nainital (PIB Delhi, 2024).

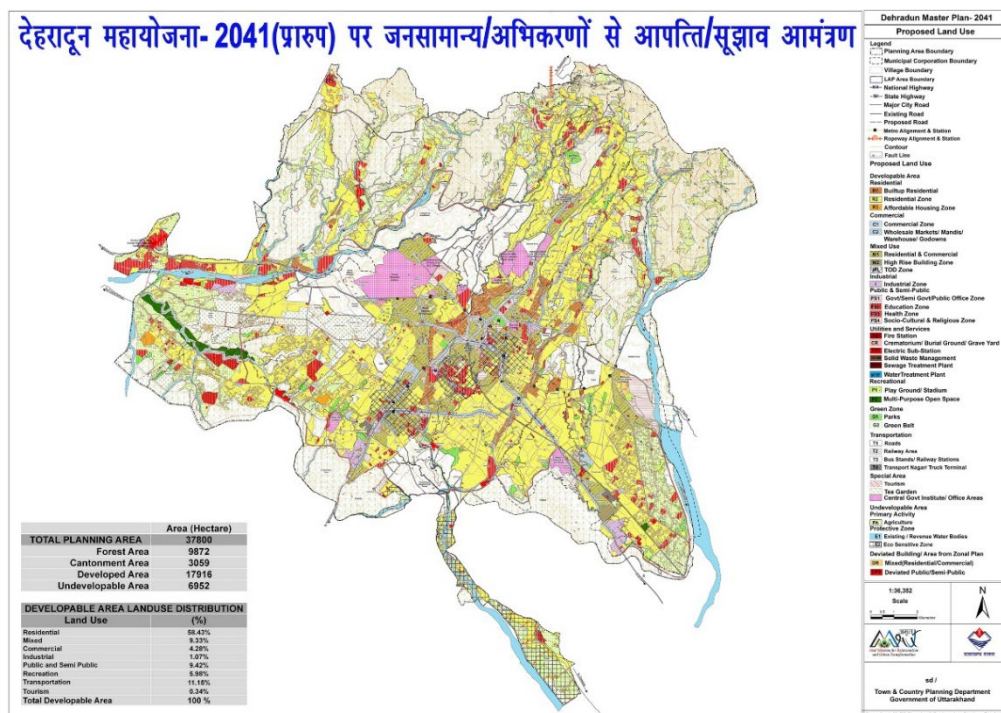


Figure 19: Proposed land use : Dehradun Master Plan 2041 © Dehradun Master Plan - 2041, Town & Country Planning Department Uttarakhand

In Uttarakhand, power in spatial planning is distributed among government agencies, local government bodies and some selected civil society organizations. This distribution is very essential in shaping up the spatial planning structure, to address the unique challenges faced by the state, such as its geographical vulnerability to natural disasters. The vertical coordination in the framework of Uttarakhand, refines the effectiveness of governance and sustainable development throughout the state. The state aims to overcome its specific problems by improving how various levels of government coordinate at multiple levels and by using technology to boost community involvement in the decision-making mechanisms.

Uttar Pradesh's governance system is primarily a state led system, with some market driven elements. The Uttar Pradesh Industrial Investment & Employment Promotion Policy 2022 and other policies pertaining to a certain area such as electronics, pharmaceuticals, and agriculture demonstrate the great participation of the state in determining the course of economic life. The growing trend in

infrastructure projects has been in terms of public-private partnerships, which entails more efficiency and innovation due to tapping on the expertise and investment of the private sphere of the economy (Ratnani, D).

Uttar Pradesh has emphasized on the role of spatial planning in the management of urbanization, development of infrastructure and regional development. This has posed challenges to the state considering the rapid urbanization and the need to govern with efficiency. Master plans of cities and towns are prepared by the Town & Country Planning Department in Uttar Pradesh. These plans are crucial in zoning, land use control and future direction. It also acts as a technical consultant to different development authorities and urban local bodies. Regional Planning Conclave was convened in Uttar Pradesh and deliberated on means by which economic geography should be promoted by regional planning. Through this effort, it is intended to exchange best practices and increase knowledge sharing among stakeholders engaging in regional development. In spatial planning, there is an increasing level of attention given to the public engagement. Engaging local communities helps ensure that planning reflects their needs and aspirations, fostering a sense of ownership and accountability in the development process (UPEIDA,2020). The state play the pivotal role in the hierarchical system of governance in Uttar Pradesh. The state government implements policies and programs across various sectors of development throughout the state. The district administration, led by District Magistrate, takes a prominent role in ensuring execution of these policies and programs at the local level. Spatial planning in Uttar Pradesh includes different levels of governance and planning frameworks in terms of their scale of planning. The Uttar Pradesh Urban Planning and Development Act 1973 offers legal provisions to the urban planning and development of the state. The act demonstrates the significance of spatial planning and coordination of various governance levels. The State Urban Development Agency (SUDA) undertakes urban development projects and ensures spatial planning in the state of Uttar Pradesh. An innovative planning tool opted for by Uttar Pradesh is the Uttar Pradesh Aspirational Blocks Program (UPABP). The Department of Planning in the Uttar Pradesh government is primarily responsible for making a development plan for the state and overseeing the implementation of the plan.

The land use rights frameworks are legalized by the Uttar Pradesh Land Revenue Code of 1901, with required amendments in the state. It stipulates classifications of land, agricultural ownership or conversion of land to non-agricultural use. Amendments of this code have added dwelling rights and conversion procedure with changes of land use in case of urbanization. The Urban

Development Policy in Uttar Pradesh aims to effectively manage urban expansion and land use. This also has mechanisms of land pooling, whereby several land owners are given the opportunity to develop land jointly and the resourcefulness of the land and infrastructure is used effectively. The Uttar Pradesh government also seeks active involvement of the people in the process of policy implementation. This is part of a broader strategy to democratize governance and enhance accountability. The Planning Department attaches significance on considering the citizens in decision making especially on the district level so that the policy is in concurrence with the people in terms of their needs and desires (PPD,2021).

5.1.3 Eastern States



Figure 20: Indian Regional Divisions of States: Eastern States © Authors

The Eastern states of India consist of Bihar, Jharkhand, Odisha, West Bengal, Sikkim and The Union Territory of Andaman and Nicobar Islands. The eastern states are primarily characterized by a mix of cultural variation and geographical diversity.

Bihar has a state led development system with strong market influences, blending the government's guiding hand with the market's dynamic forces. This mixed approach enables it to find a balance between governmental control and free movement of trends in the market to influence economic activities in the right direction. The jurisdiction of the state of Bihar is multidimensional and has a hierarchical system of administration that includes divisions, districts, sub-divisions and circles. This framework seeks to implement the creation of physical, social, economic, and ecological infrastructure, with the primary focus on the development of growth centers, IT parks, and the redevelopment of such institutions as Nalanda University (Govt. of Bihar, n.d.).

The planning and development department is a central institution of spatial planning of the state of Bihar. Realizing the multi-dimensional development in the state is dependent on the coordination, implementation, and monitoring of the policy tools that are embedded in the multi-layered planning schemes. In that regard, the Five-Year and Annual Plans constitute the legislative base; they provide a framework of a 15-Year Vision, a 7-Year Strategy, and a particular 3-Year Work Plan as well as the careful spending of the state funds and the confirmation of the implementation results (Gupta, 2010). In Bihar, the locus of power is concentrated in the hands of the Chief Minister, who serves as the head of government and wields the majority of executive authority.

Panchayats make administration and local governance in rural areas easier and at the local level in the urban areas, it is implemented by municipalities. Both are either directly or indirectly elected by the people to carry out the responsibility of supplying basic needs and infrastructure to the people of Bihar. The power structure of the state is highly centralized, and it has been characterized by extensive executive powers of the Chief Minister. It follows that the Bihar Government has established Planning Area Authorities to manage the development of 10 cities that are designated. These authorities are responsible for preparing, implementing, and taking regulatory actions along with the master plan for the extended areas. They are mandated to fast-track development, urbanization, advise on funding mechanisms and planned development in the chosen areas.

5.1 States

The Bihar Urban Local Body (Community Participation) Rules, 2013 emphasize the role of the Ward Committee in participating in all city development plans and enforcing zoning and land use regulation: Decentralized Governance Structure, Emphasis on Infrastructure Development, integration of Planning and Development: The Planning and Development Department in Bihar is responsible for formulating and implementing Five-Year Plans and Annual Plans.

The territorial governance structure of Bihar is characterized by clear administrative framework, organized participation of the community in the city planning, decentralized decision making, and focus on infrastructure development along with coordinated spatial planning. All these together form the unique integrated state model of spatial planning and development (Govt. of Bihar,2013).

The Government of **Jharkhand** is undertaking an inclusive approach that is a blend of market-based and state-driven programs to address the issues of agricultural, rural and urban development in the State. Jharkhand is working on planning and designing a new capital city, which involves coordinating various administrative levels and stakeholders. At the same time, the State is also generating a Tribal Development Digital Atlas to keep track of the socio-economic status of all tribal communities, especially the Vulnerable Tribal Groups (PVTGs). This digital medium aims at integrating these communities into the larger social and infrastructural context.

Jharkhand is implementing micro-planning initiatives at the local level to promote people's participation in government policies and development efforts. The Planning and Development Department of the state organizes these efforts, dealing with spatial planning, as well as with more general development goals. These commitments are reflected in Jharkhand Vision 2026 which specifically aims at transforming development in urban areas by using mixed-use, high-density, and walkable settlement forms. In an effort to make these aspirations operational, the government has defined a certain Transport-Oriented Development (TOD) policy, which combines the land-use planning with transport infrastructure to ensure sustainable urbanization.

One of the current challenges for Jharkhand is the spatial imbalance in the location of its urban population; about 64.54% of all urban dwellers in Jharkhand are concentrated in the four districts. The resulting shortcomings in basic service delivery, including the absence of a centralized sewerage system in Dhanbad, are being handled with specific projects, the most well-known of which is the

Jharkhand Urban Sewerage System Development Project (ITDP,2025). Jharkhand's planning tools include various initiatives and projects aimed at enhancing spatial planning and development in the state. Some of them are: The Jharkhand Landscape Planning Project, a landscape-scale planning approach is used with a combination of geographic information systems, remote sensing and stakeholder participation which aims to come up with a consolidated evaluation of all land-use categories and to reshape the state spatial planning system. The second one, Jharkhand Urban Sewerage System Development Project is the first in this regard, an intervention aimed at enhancing the living conditions in Dhanbad and reducing pollution to the Damodar River through the installation of sewer systems and on-site sanitation systems that are capable of resisting climatic extremes. The programme has a vision of reaching all urban dwellers (100 percent) with sanitation services and at the same time managing the capacity and institutional gaps that hinder the provision of efficient and sustainable sewerage systems. Another one is the Transit-Oriented Development (TOD) Policy outlined in the Vision 2026 of Jharkhand sets high targets to steer metropolitan development towards compact, mixed-use, and pedestrian-oriented forms of development. Though not a uniquely Jharkhand project, the Energy Access Explorer (EAE) is worth mentioning as a spatial planning tool that can aid the development agenda of the state with its attention on energy access related studies, thus providing useful information in energy-planning processes (D.P.D, Jharkhand, n.d.).

Within indigenous land tenure context, the Adivasi (tribal) communities in Jharkhand has traditionally claimed customary rights providing khuntkattidars (original/ founding families) with preferential rights to forests and common lands. However, the legalization of women rights to land in such customary systems is relatively low. Another legislative framework is the Tribal Land Alienation and Transformation Mechanisms that is legally binding to prevent the transfer of tribal land to other non-tribal communities. Fraudulent land transfers still occur despite these provisions, and this demonstrates the fact that the act still has loopholes to close.

The Chota Nagpur Tenancy Act (CNT Act) 1908 and the Santhal Parghana Tenancy (Supplementary Provisions) Act, 1949 (SPT Act) enacted by the state of Jharkhand govern the existence of territorial governance systems and the existence of spatial planning tools and prescribe the existence of tenancy and other rights. Also, the state has struggled with undertaking new revisional land survey- records that date back to pre-independence period are still being used to determine modern land rights- and this has been delayed leading to instances of land fraud. The state's

5.1 States

relationship with forests, significant forest cover, and forest management practices inherited from Bihar highlight the importance of forest rights and management in spatial planning in Jharkhand (Jharkhand State Team, 2022).

Odisha follows a state led approach with some market-based policies in the spatial development framework of the state. The Comprehensive Development Plans are long run plans of urban development that tries to target land development, infrastructure requirements and environmental concerns. One of the aspects of spatial planning of Odisha is characterized by these plans. The administrators of the Zonal Development Plans favor the joint growth of the urban regions with the consideration of the local requirements. The SDGs in Odisha center on environmental sustainability, social equity and economic growth (Government of Odisha, 2025).

The government in a state is headed by the Chief Minister who is supported by Council of Ministers who handles different departments. Such a centralized form is effective in ordering the decision-making process and setting of policies. The district collector controls all of the 30 districts of Odisha and carries out the administration of the districts as well as the state policies. This level serves as a link between the central government and the communities since they make sure that the policies come to suit the local conditions. To promote vertical coordination in Odisha, there are various mechanisms that are undertaken namely the Integrated Planning, E-Government Initiatives, and Public-Private Partnerships allowing the private sector a hold in undertaking the public projects. Odisha has taken numerous steps in integrating e-governance within its government machine, State Wide Area Network (OSWAN) which ensures communication between the various levels of the government, Project Monitoring Units (PMUs) set up within departments ensure monitoring of projects relative to the district level. This guarantees that there is increased cooperation among the departments as well (Government of Odisha Legislative Assembly, n.d.).

Traditional Forest Dwellers Act 2006 identifies the rights of scheduled tribes over forest land, which they have inhabited over the generations. Odisha The funds supplement the State Disaster Response Fund (SDRF) that was established to support in providing financial support in the case of a natural disaster, managed by the State Executive Committee. Odisha has come up with the Land Rights to Slum Dweller Act, 2017 whereby the slums can own a piece of land to house them. Depending on the area, slum dwellers have a right of specific area of land. JAGA

Mission is one more act which works on slum redevelopment (Scheduled Tribes and Other Traditional Forest Dwellers, n.d.).

Cities and towns have been developed with the perception of master plans that give land use and infrastructure suggestions and zoning development plans concentrate on the specific regions of urban environments. Designing the chief judicial magistrates as special courts managing wildlife cases, Odisha promoted the need to raise the level of conservation activities and safeguarding biodiversity in the region (The New Indian Express, 2023). In larger urban areas of Odisha, CDPs which support the urban development plan the long-term vision in terms of land use, infrastructure, housing and sustainability of environment. The importance associated with community engagement in the planning process is attained through public consultations held during the CDPs and master plans. This more inclusive mode of the policy making an assurance ensuring the local requirements are met in the policy making.

CDPs that guide the urban development in larger urban areas of Odisha outlines long-term visions for land use, infrastructure, housing and environmental sustainability. Community engagement is given importance in the planning process through public consultations during the CDPs and master plans. This participatory approach makes sure that the local needs are met in policy formation (Bhubaneswar Development Authority, n.d.)

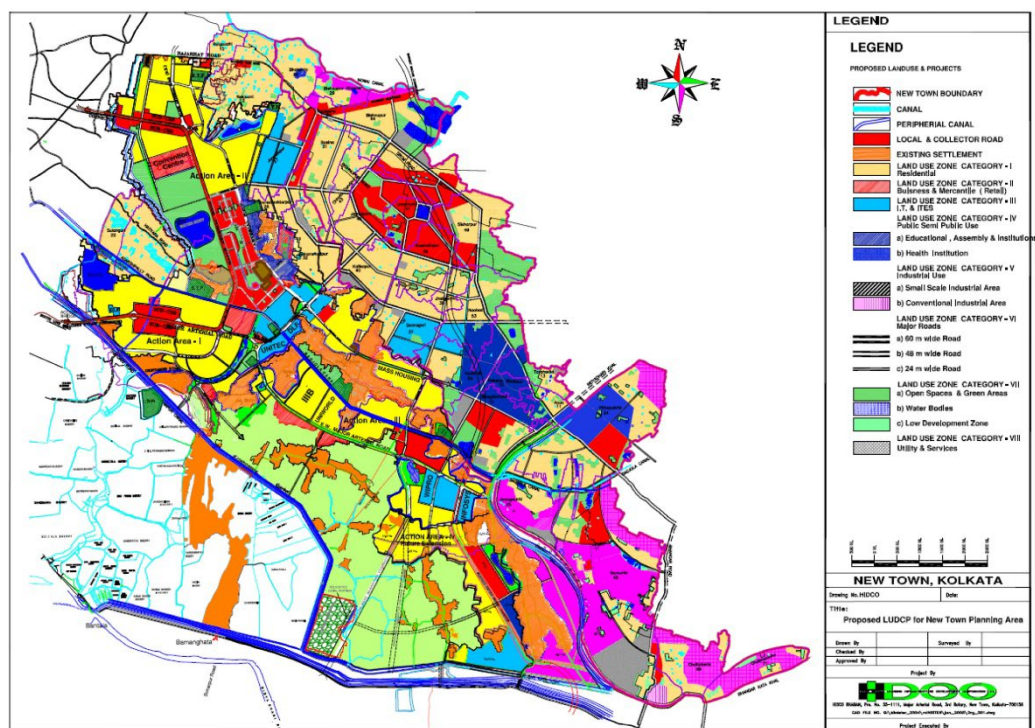
West Bengal, has a governance system with market-based incentives that are combined with the strategic leadership that is initiated by the state. The West Bengal Town and Country (Planning and Development) Act, 1979, is the legislative basis of the spatial planning framework in West Bengal that defines the institutional structure, procedural mechanism, and regulatory tools needed to organize orderly land-use and development in the state.

The spatial-planning discourse in West Bengal consists of a number of dimensions that are interconnected with each other. The concept of participatory planning is one of the main axes and the state has established mechanisms like the Draft Development Plan (DDP) and the City Development Plan (CDP) that takes the stakeholder participation in the forefront.

There has been a consistent agreement in the current literature on urban planning that a hybrid form of top-down and bottom-up paradigms is an essential part of the successful practice. While traditional planning methods follow the top-down method, there is an increasing recognition that local knowledge and

5.1 States

community involvement are important for effective planning. The Draft Development Plan (DDP) in West Bengal, is a case in point, where the idea of participatory methodologies has been stressed upon in both the drafting and implementation processes. Another complementary project, the City Development Plan (CDP), aims at enhancing the urban infrastructure and service delivery through stakeholder involvement and maintenance of an ongoing evaluation of the local needs. At the same time, Land Use and Development Control Plans focus on fairness and sustainability of land resource distribution, whereas the DCP provides sets of regulations addressing proper land-use patterns (Roy et al., 2009).



Development Committees that involve the local people in appraising their resources and needs articulation. Along with these instruments, there are the National Rural Development Management Systems, which provide a basis within which data management methods are applied to formulate development strategies.

Recent initiatives include the development of a land use policy that addresses land acquisition, special economic zones (SEZs), and modifications to land records. This policy aims to enhance land governance, protection of homestead rights, and also make land-use transitions to be equitable and sustainable.

5.1.4 North Eastern States



Figure 22: Indian Regional Divisions of States: North Eastern States © Authors

5.1 States

The North-Eastern states of India consist of Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland and Tripura. They are characterised by their rich culture, unique ethnic groups and abundant biodiversity. These states were formed based on the ethnic and tribal groups of the region after the independence, unlike other parts of India which was divided linguistically. A Ministry of Development of North-Eastern Region (DoNER) came in power in May 2004, as this northeastern region lags in terms of development and socio-economic conditions compared to the other parts of the country.

Arunachal Pradesh, a state led system, has a comprehensive multi-scaled institutional framework that guidelines the urban and rural spatial planning system under the Arunachal Pradesh Urban and Country Planning Act (APUCP) 2007. The APUCP Act creates and empowers local planning authorities, State Urban and Country Planning Board, outlines and directs the spatial planning and development, regulates the building standards, and mandates the preparation and revision of master plans with a period of every ten years. The APUCP Act allows the state government the primary control over the spatial planning of the state incorporating the national policies and frameworks.

The top down multi-scaled spatial planning approach starts with the Master Plans which are prepared under the APUCP Act which can operate at different scales to guide the development of urban and rural areas. These master plans are long term visionary framework, usually 10 and 20 years, guiding the public infrastructure, the zoning and land use provisions and prevention of encroachments of the notified areas. These plans are subjected to periodic reviews and revisions in every five years to tackle the changing needs and conditions of the region. GIS based master plans are the recent addition to these reviews and revisions. These broader projects and goals outlined by the master plan is implement in the form of Development Plans which details out the required projects and steps. These development plans are short to medium term goals and target for the urban and rural development. These plans are also prepared to address rapid requirements and providing a detailed land use and zoning regulation for a specified region or projects. The master plans and development plans at various scales are the key tools in regulating the spatial planning in Arunachal Pradesh. The implementation of these plans are taken care by the Local Planning Authorities (LPA) empowered by the APUCP Act. LPAs play crucial role in the spatial planning framework of the states. They are authorized for the preparation and the implementation of the master plans and development plans, regulation of land uses and building regulation of the region and also the monitoring and evaluation of the plans on a regular basis. Public

participation mechanism are also guided and executed by the LPAs and the local governing bodies. These enables the local community engagements and participation and empowerment of the local and ethnic communities. Like other states of northeastern region of India Arunachal Pradesh is also inhabited by various tribes with different customs and practices. Spatial planning has to be culturally appropriate and guarantee that the plans for spatial development do not infringe upon the cultural rights of the people.

A notable case in the spatial planning system in Arunachal Pradesh is the Geopolitical Dynamics of the state. The state is bounded by Bhutan, China, and Myanmar, which requires spatial planning that takes into account security, infrastructure development and issues of access to the inaccessible areas. In these areas the development and security should be balanced, especially the parts of the region that are sensitive due to territorial issues especially with China, this should include issues of surveillance, defense infrastructure, and community security (Pattnaik, J. K., & Panda, C. K).

Assam, primarily a state led system with some elements of market led system, has a multi-scaled framework for urban development and land management that is legalized through the Assam Town and Country Planning Act (ATCPA), 1959. In support of this act, in 2023, the Assam State Township Policy, 2023 was approved by the cabinet to manage urban development and to address the issues related to the rapid urbanization in the state. The involvement of some market oriented elements and private sector in spatial planning system of Assam is mainly in terms of using private capital for certain aspects of urban development like infrastructure and housing. They give incentives and regulations for the private sector to invest in these aspects.

In the multi scaled system, at the state level, the Assam Town and Country Planning Act, 1959, legalizes the development framework, while the Directorate of Town & Country Planning, Assam is responsible for the preparation of the master plans and the Assam State Township Policy, 2023 ensure the systematic and regulated development of the state. Similar to Arunachal Pradesh, Master plans and development plans are the primary tools for land management and regulation in Assam. These are legalized and empowered by the ATCPA and the Directorate of Town & Country Planning, is responsible for the preparation of these plans under the act. These plans are prepared at district level and the urban or rural local body level. They are prepared for each districts outlining the detailed land use and infrastructural projects at the district and state scale. At the urban or rural body scale

they provide and much detailed land use allocations, infrastructure and development strategies for a formulated 20 year period with a periodic reviews and revisions every five years. Implementation of these plans are overlooked by the respective development authorities authorized by the ATCPA. Along with the master plans and development plans, operating within the master plans, Local Area Plans are prepared to address issues and development for a specific area. They act as a tool for focused urban development and infrastructure with localized planning which aligns with the broader goals in the master plan. The comprehensive master plans are prepared, implemented and monitored with the help of District Planning and Monitoring Committee (DPMC). The DPMC consolidates all the plans and requirements of various local bodies and create a draft for the master plans. They are also responsible for the annual operational plans of the district. The DPMC's are also key in the Public Participation Mechanisms in the spatial planning system of Assam. The Assam State Township Policy, 2023 highlights the importance of the public participation mechanisms in the state spatial planning, allowing the local and ethnic communities to be the part of the development and projects. Similar to other northeastern states of India, spatial planning in Assam recognizes and includes traditional land use practices and cultural heritage site of these communities.

The north eastern region of India is vulnerable to natural disaster due to its topography, Multi-Criteria Decision Making (MCDM) are used to tackle this in the state. The MCDMs are used in various cases such as the Flood risk assessment (Bhuyan, M., Deka, N., & Saikia, A), utility mappings, landslide area mappings, and tea plantation mappings.

Manipur, a state-led system, spatial planning has an institutional structure that operates at multiple scales. The Manipur Town and Country Planning (MTCP) Act of 1975, legalizes the structure for planning and development across urban and rural areas. Planning and Development Authority (PDA) at the state level is Manipur's principal spatial planning authority formed under MTCP Act. Local planning initiatives are undertaken by District Planning Committees, Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) and Gram Panchayats and the plans and policies at the respective levels complies with the state policies.

The spatial planning process in Manipur starts with the Vision Documents at the state level and the northeastern Indian regional level. North-Eastern Region Vision 2047 set outs the strategies for the entire northeastern region of India while Manipur Vision 2047 and Manipur vision 2030 defines the state level long-term

strategic plan focusing on sustainable practices, cultural preservation, infrastructure development, environmental sustainability etc. These goal and strategies of the vision documents are detailed through master plans that operate at multiple scales to address the diverse needs of urban and rural areas. The State Master Plans defines state-level comprehensive guidelines for zoning, infrastructure and land uses across the state while the District Master Plans are tailored for individual districts addressing the local needs and conditions outlining strategies aligning with the state level objectives. At the local level, Urban Master Plans and Village or Gram Panchayat Plans are prepared for respective urban and rural areas. Urban Master Plans defines strategies moulded to the urban dynamics and needs for the particular city while the Village or Gram Panchayat Plans focuses on strategies prepared to deal with the local needs respecting local customs and practices. Along with master plans there are some other crucial elements that shapes up the spatial planning. The Development Control Regulations (DCR), regulates the land use and the development initiatives, and the Three-Tiered Committee, which cuts across the three tiers of government and the stakeholders, are two main tools in the process. The Development Control Regulations (DCR) prepares guidelines for zoning, building permissions, Public Consultation Processes and the monitoring for an organized framework for urban and rural areas of Manipur.

Notable discourses in Manipur can be the Public Consultation Mechanisms and the Environmental Impact Assessments (EIA). Public Consultation Mechanisms ensures that the community requirements are met and the transparency in the system, while the Environmental Impact Assessments makes sure that environmental considerations such as assessments of air, water, soil conditions and ecological surveys form part of the planning process. The special case in the spatial planning process in Manipur is the promotion of rights and cultures of indigenous communities through the Indigenous Peoples Planning Framework (IPPF). It is a framework of policies, procedures and standards formulated to ensure that the indigenous people are given special attention by development policies. It also guarantees the participation of the communities and cultural sustainability of the area and various communities.

Meghalaya, primarily a state led system with some market driven elements, is characterized by a multi-scaled and multifaceted structure, involving state and local development bodies. Spatial planning in Meghalaya is primarily legalized through the Meghalaya Town and Country Planning Act, 1973. Department of Urban Affairs, Meghalaya Urban Development Authority (MUDA) and Town Planning Units are some main actors in the structure.

Similar to Manipur, the spatial planning starts with the Vision Documents at the state level and the north eastern Indian regional level. North Eastern Region Vision 2047 sets out the strategies for the entire northeastern region of India and at the state level Meghalaya Vision 2028 mainly focuses on the economic strategies and goals which helps in the spatial planning and development of the state. The Master Plans at different levels provides comprehensive frameworks for the infrastructure development, land use patterns, sustainable development strategies etc. around the state. The Regional Planning Frameworks aligns development activities between several towns or districts at a broader scale. This is followed by the City-Level Master Plans and Town-Level Master Plans. City-Level Master Plans focuses on major urban centres while the Town-Level Master Plans focuses on smaller towns and semi-urban areas around the state. The Sector-Specific Plans addresses targeted areas of development to address specific needs. Health Resource Planning, Housing Initiatives, Smart Cities Mission and Environmental Improvement Initiatives are some initiatives under the Sector-Specific Plans. Along with the master plans, Community-Based Land Use Plans plays a crucial role in the spatial planning of Meghalaya. Local communities are empowered through this system to manage their cultural traditions and heritage and natural resources. Through the process of Village Resource Mapping, the local communities identify and document their natural resources, land use patterns, and socio-economic conditions which in turn shapes the development of the rural areas around the state.

The integration of traditional knowledge and practices is a key element of spatial planning discourse in Meghalaya. The approach combines multiple elements such as documenting traditional knowledge, Biodiversity Management Committees (BMCs) and reviving traditional land use techniques. Autonomous District Councils (ADCs) and Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) are two special cases of spatial planning in Meghalaya. The Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) allows the local communities to participate in the spatial planning process (Roy, Aniruddha & Tripathi, Anil & Dkhar, D.s.). This approach integrates local knowledge and priorities through various participatory methods and tools engaging the local communities. And through the Autonomous District Councils under the Sixth Schedule of the Indian Constitution of 1972 tribal communities can exercise legislative and executive power alongside judicial functions yet remain accountable to superior government institutions.

Mizoram, a state-led system, has a spatial planning system that operates at multiple scales, with various bodies at different levels, promoting public participation. Mizoram Urban and Regional Development Act, 1990 legalizes the

spatial planning in Mizoram providing a regulated planning and development in urban and rural areas of the state. Like other north eastern states Mizoram also possesses environmental challenges due to its topography and rapid urbanization.

The spatial planning addresses these challenges through frameworks which include community participation and sustainable practices. Master plans at different levels play a crucial role in the spatial planning. Mizoram Urban and Regional Development Act, 1990 empowers the government agencies to prepare the master plans at multiple levels from state level guidance to local micro level plans to address specific community needs. At the district level, District Development Plans are prepared for specific districts aligning with the state level master plan objectives. There are also City Master Plans for chosen urban centres such as the capital city of Aizawl depending on the local needs. The City-Specific Plans focus on specific cities with specific challenges. e.g. Non-Motorized Transport (NMT) City Specific Plan for Aizawl. Further at the local levels we have the Zonal Development Plans and the Site-Specific Development Plans. Zonal Development Plans focus on the specific zones or areas within the urban areas that must deal with specific challenges. And the Site-Specific Development Plans are detailed plans prepared for particular neighbourhoods with layouts, infrastructure, community facilities etc. Sectoral Development Plans are prepared to address specific sectors of development, especially in case of Mizoram agriculture, socio-economic sector, tourism and culture, natural resources and environmental management are crucial for the state's growth and development. Mizoram has a predominantly rural population, the challenges faced by them particularly in the context of environmental sustainability and socio-economic development are addressed by the Rural Development Plans. Rural Development Plans prepare and implement policies, housing schemes and other development initiatives through Community-Based Organizations (CBOs). These are part of the Participatory Planning Frameworks which involve community participation mechanisms at various scales, including public consultations address the unique challenges of the communities.

The discourses in Spatial planning in Mizoram can be The New Land Use Policy (NLUP) and the Cultural Preservation. The New Land Use Policy (NLUP) introduced in 2008, aims to address the challenges associated with traditional shifting cultivation (jhuming) and transform the agricultural practices, promote permanent agricultural practices, environmental sustainability and diversification of livelihoods (T. James). Often planning initiatives try to integrate local traditions and values in urban development strategies to avoid modernization to eradicate

cultural heritage. The Autonomous District Councils (ADCs) in Mizoram is a special case established to address the political, administrative and the developmental needs of the tribal communities across the state. It was established under the Sixth Schedule of the Constitution of India, 1972, to allow local tribal councils to perform self-governance and protect their cultural identity (P.Rohini & S.Sukanta).

Nagaland, a state led system, has a spatial planning system that operates at multiple scales, to address unique socio-economic and environmental challenges of the state. The Nagaland Town and Country Planning Act, 1966, as well as the Nagaland Municipal Act, 2023, serve as the main legal foundations for spatial planning in the state. Under the Nagaland Town and Country Planning Act, 1966, the Department of Urban Development prepares and implements the master plans and development plans for the state and the Department of Planning and Transformation frames the annual and five-year plans of the state.

The spatial planning in Nagaland has a multi scaled approach starting from the national level with the National Spatial Data Infrastructure (NSDI) providing framework and standards regarding the management of spatial data across the country. This guides the state level Nagaland State Spatial Data Infrastructure (NSSDI) which helps in the state level planning initiatives and helps in the decentralized governance. State level planning guidelines are prepared and issued to the local and regional authorities by the State Planning Board, and it mandates the preparation of master plans and development plans. At the regional level, the District Development Plans (DDP) are crucial elements in carrying out the development strategies at the local levels that align with the state and national guidelines and objectives. They are prepared by the District Planning and Development Boards (DPDBs) who are also responsible in the review and approval of proposals aligning to the local needs and state guidelines. The Nagaland Town and Country Planning Act, 1966, legalizes and authorizes authorities at different levels to decentralize the spatial planning system. The Urban Development Departments are mandated to prepare, implement and oversee the Urban Master Plans which details out the comprehensive strategies and plans for the essential services, public amenities and infrastructure. It undergoes reviews and revisions by the urban development departments aiming to address current challenges in line with the community needs. At the rural level, Village Resource Mapping helps in the preparation of detailed maps documenting the land use patterns, infrastructures, resources and the local community assets. The Village Resource Mapping defines

village specific developments incorporating traditional knowledge and unique needs of the diverse local communities of the village.

A discourse that incorporates, traditional practices with contemporary planning approaches, with a focus on Participatory Land Use Planning (PLUP), characterizes the spatial planning process in Nagaland (Siddiqui, S., Chohan, S.). The PLUP includes the local communities in land use decisions recognizing the cultural values and practices of the Naga tribes and other communities, mainly agricultural traditions. It fosters community involvement integrating state guidelines along the needs of the unique communities. The cross sectoral integration is a collaborative approach combining various sectors such as health, infrastructure etc. along with the traditional cultures, values and agricultural practices. This approach creates a more integrated and resilient rural system.

Tripura, a state led system, under the Tripura Urban Planning and Development Authority (TUDA) with a multi scalar spatial planning approach. TUDA under the Tripura Urban Planning and Development Act, 2018 formulates and monitors various urban planning and developmental activities, cooperation with municipal bodies and makes sure that the urban growth is in accordance with local laws and government legislations. The Tripura Urban Planning and Development Act, 2018 gives the legal foundation for the urban and development planning across the state facilitating the establishment of development authorities and schemes (TUPDA,2018).

The multi scalar approach is led by TUDA has a Directorate of Planning and Coordination which is responsible for coordinating planning initiatives at the state level, creating the state plan, and overseeing different development initiatives. It was established in 1987 has been noted to have a critical role in decentralized planning efforts. At the state level TUDA, creates the general framework for housing, transportation, infrastructure, and the management of environmental concerns in cities, collaborating with both the state government and local municipalities to create building codes and bye-laws governing construction practices and their enforcement of environmental and safety requirements. At the district level, the planning offices headed by the district planning officer are responsible for the decentralized planning and the coordination of the local development within the general State framework to address district needs. GIS based master plans provide comprehensive framework covering land uses, infrastructures, public services etc. Along with these, Tripura has approved master plans which serves as formalized blueprints for the long-term objectives of urban

areas, including land use distribution, zoning laws, and infrastructure development plans. They act as guidelines for upcoming development projects. City Development Plans (CDP), another key element in the urban planning of the state, are city specific regulatory documents which focuses on the urban infrastructure, services, and socio-economic development which are developed aligning to the specific needs of the city through stakeholder consultations to ensure community involvement in the planning process. Urban Local Bodies (ULB), municipal corporations and councils and panchayati raj institutions are at the local level that implement master plans and ensure the area development complies with the state policies and at community level, need of the community are addressed. Some specific areas are governed by Town Planning Schemes, which ensures the proper growth and development of infrastructure by giving detailed guidelines on the use of the land and development of the area. TUDA is responsible for the monitoring and evaluation of all the project and schemes in the state using remote sensing and GIS technologies to ensure the project are aligned with the time and budget (Mitra & Santra). To make sure that development is community relevant, Tripura has put in place Participatory Planning Mechanisms, a planning technique that involves consultation of NGO's and other stakeholders and the community.

The cultural heritage integration to the urban development framework can be seen as a special case with a strong emphasis on urban development planning while maintaining Tripura's rich cultural legacy, which includes temples, palaces, and traditional buildings by locating and safeguarding historical sites in the master plans. The participatory method ensures people take part in the actual process of the conservation of their culture and heritage. Incorporation of environmental and social demands are central to spatial planning in Tripura to meet the protection of natural resource needs and the needs of the various tribal and social groups.

Sikkim is primarily a state led system, with very little market driven elements implying the state mechanism has the main role of leading economic growth and carrying out the public policy. Territorial governance and spatial planning in Sikkim have been in evolutionary stages through devolution of functionalities to the local bodies and roll-out of programmes by different government departments. To ensure this arrangement is strengthened, the state applies various spatial planning instruments that make it possible to manage land use and development effectively.

The Sikkim Integrated Urban Development Project is an initiative that aims to strengthen climate-resilient urban infrastructure and improve urban services across

seven towns. The initiative is expected to strengthen the state capacity to govern well by highlighting sustainable service delivery and integrated urban planning. To supplement these, the state has initiated projects that deal with climate change effects such as the glacier dynamics and assessments of carbon pools in vegetations. These programs use the remote sensing data to make planning and policy decisions connected with the environmental sustainability. Urban development policy of Sikkim also highlights the role of public involvement in preparing master plans and sectoral plans so that the needs of the local communities are integrated in the spatial planning process (Gupta, 2021).

The state government enjoys significant powers in Sikkim spatial planning along with some other departments. The spatial planning follows a dual Panchayati Raj system wherein Zilla Panchayats acts as the district level and Gram Panchayats act as the village level. At the urban level, Sikkim has a three- tier system of municipal corporations, municipal councils and Nagar Panchayats. The planning process in Sikkim involves setting definite targets to improve the quality of life at different levels, including humans, nature, society, structures, and networks. The overall plan aims at promoting growth patterns that are conducive to settlements through the use of four overlapping layers of infrastructure, including state-wide, district-specific, urban growth centers, and fundamental urban settlements.

Sikkim's urban development policy adopts a multi-scalar approach, addressing planning and development needs at the state, district, urban growth center, and basic settlement levels to promote inclusive and sustainable urbanization in the state. Basic urban settlement policy aims to improve the quality of life in essential urban settlements through planned development and proper management of spaces for living, working, and enjoying. To promote sustainable development and ensure the protection of the natural resources, many planning instruments are implemented. Among these the Sustainable Forest Management (SFM) Cell stands out as one of the most significant in the framework of the Working Plan Circle to come up with practical ways, instructions and strategies that are in line with an ecosystem-based approach to the management of natural forest cover. Its goals include developing a common terminology of terms and definitions of Criteria and Indicators of Sustainable Forest Management (Forest and Environment Department, n.d.).

In Sikkim, the literature suggests that in the field of policy formulation, there are barriers to public involvement in policy formulation including low levels of participation across professional lines, and limits imposed by lack of knowledge and an overall lack of a participatory culture

5.1.5 Western States

The part of Western India, a region known for its industrialization, diverse culture, and economic development, include Gujarat and Maharashtra, along with the union territories of Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Daman and Diu.



Figure 23: Indian Regional Divisions of States: Western States © Authors

Gujarat, a market led system, employs a complex structure of the spatial planning system that ensures the incorporation of various components to enhance the planning of the urban areas. The Gujarat Town Planning & Urban Development Act, 1976 had a tremendous impact on the Gujarat's spatial planning system because it outlined a multifaceted planning and development structure at varying

tiers. It is noteworthy that Gujarat has a well-developed framework of spatial planning, and its main initiator is the state government. It is facilitated by the Development Plans (DP) and the Town Planning Schemes (TPS). The two-tier system harmonizes the macro level Development Plans and the micro-level Town Planning Schemes. The two-tier system is a system of governance that regulates both ownership and use of land through managing records of land, zoning, land classification and alteration of the use of the land. It is now common knowledge that this system offers a reliable way of ensuring that planned and sustainable development of cities is achieved.

Thus, despite the two-tier system that the government of Gujarat uses for spatial planning, there are some many essential tools used in the system.

Some of them are : Local Area Plans (LAPs): Under the Gujarat Town Planning and Urban Development Act (GTPUDA) 1976, LAPs are a statutory urban planning tool that were introduced in 2014. By providing an incentive-based redevelopment mechanism in place of forced acquisitions or restrictive regulations, they focus to revitalize, regenerate, redevelop, and conserve already developed areas, including inner city and old city heritage areas (Manual, LAP). The two tier system with the local area plans form the backbone of Gujarat's spatial planning framework. Transferable Development Rights (TDR) is a tool used to facilitate the development of infrastructure projects by allowing landowners to sell their development rights from a particular parcel and use them elsewhere within the defined zones of the city (Manual, TDR). Form-Based Regulations (FBR) are land development regulations that control the shape and style of buildings and public areas in order to promote predictable built outcomes and a high-quality urban environment (Manual, LAP). Area-Based Development (ABD) is a method of planning that prioritizes the needs of local communities and concentrates on the development of particular areas within a city, allowing for the regeneration and revitalization of underdeveloped areas. Three primary areas of interest of Gujarat's discourse on spatial planning are urban restructuring, a comprehensive approach to revitalize and regenerate urban areas, political articulation, the exclusion of marginalized communities has been facilitated by policies that encourage spatial segregation (R.Arvind) and maritime spatial planning, an approach to managing the use of marine space for various activities. Along with Special Economic Zones identified, Gujarat has Special Political Zones (SPZ) where a fictitious zone where particular political goals predominate over existing policies, (R.Arvind).

Maharashtra, a state led system with strong market influences in Urban areas, has a multi tiered defined legal and regulatory structure that guides the state-level, metropolitan, and local planning authorities. The Maharashtra Regional and Town Planning Act, 1966, provides the institutional and legal framework for urban and regional planning in the state. It defines the structure to the multi-tiered spatial planning system of planning authorities at the state, metropolitan and local levels. Through this hierarchical system, a primarily state led spatial planning system drives the state.

In the multi-tiered system, at the state level the Maharashtra Regional and Town Planning Act provides an overarching legal spatial planning framework. The Regional and Metropolitan Authorities at the regional level prepares and implements the Regional Plans, which describes the general proposals for the development, infrastructure, public facilities and land use for the rural and urban areas of a district or region. Metropolitan and Development plans follow Regional plans in the hierarchical system. Metropolitan plans focuses on the challenges and development needs on the densely populated urban area. These are prepared by respective metropolitan authorities and work in coordination with the Mumbai Metropolitan Planning Committee. It aligns with the broader objectives of the regional plans focusing on an urban scale. The Development plans are much localised on specific urban areas detailing out the proposed land uses, public facilities and developments. The preparation of the plans are done by the local authorities and should be approved by the Urban Development Department of the Government of Maharashtra. These proposals by the development plans are implemented and executed by means of the Town Planning Schemes. The Town Planning Scheme is a special spatial planning instrument employed in Maharashtra to implement the Development Plan suggestions by means of the land management procedures such as pooling and readjustment. This assists in the conversion of the higher level strategies into actual progress on the field. At the local level, Local Area Plans (LAPs), a micro level tool, are used in the revitalization and redevelopment of specific urban areas and it also allows to implement strategies to meet unique needs of the area that can contract with the broader strategies and plans. Unlike Gujarat, where LAP is integrated well in to the spatial planning framework, Maharashtra still faces the challenge of seamless integration of the LAPs into its spatial planning framework.

A discourse from the regular spatial planning framework can be the conceptualization of Spatial Environmental Planning Program (SEPP) in 1995. The SEPP plays a key role in the integration of the environmental consideration into the

development and planning of the state. It enables a balance between the development needs of the state and environmental sustainability.

5.1.6 Southern States

Southern India consists of five major states: Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Karnataka, Kerala, Tamil Nadu, and Telangana. This region is characterized by its unique geography and coastal location. The region has a border of two prominent mountain ranges: The Western Ghats and Eastern Ghats.



Figure 24: Indian Regional Divisions of States: Southern States © Authors

Andhra Pradesh is governed by a state driven system of government whereby, the state executive has significant deployment of power in respect of establishing and implementing policy in areas that are numerous. The state government being the main decision-making organ makes sure that myriad of departments and agencies answerable to it manage to operate effectively. The territory administration in Andhra Pradesh involves management and control of the districts, municipalities and other local bodies in the state. The Legislative Assembly (known as Vidhan Sabha) is the permanent form of governance or Legislative authority; it is made up of members who are appointed through adult suffrage by means of the territorial constituency. Ministerial duties are carried out under many departments that are presided by a minister and are backed by a group of permanent civil servants. The administration of the 13 districts is overseen by the State Secretariat which is in Hyderabad. To its turn, local administration is vested in the district collectors in each district. The Andhra Pradesh Decentralisation and Inclusive Development of All Regions Act of 2020 tries to introduce equalised governance in each area of the state considering the self-aspirations of its different communities. Based on the advice of various committees, the Siva Rama Krishnan Committee directed by the Indian Government, the G.N. Rao Committee, the Boston Consulting Group (BCG) Committee, among others, this Act aims at achieving inclusive and balanced development (Government of Andhra Pradesh, 2020).

The Andhra Pradesh Reorganisation Act of 2014 gave long term status to Hyderabad as the capital of Telangana and temporary status to Andhra Pradesh. The Act required that a committee be formed to find another site in which Andhra Pradesh would get as its capital, presided by K.C. Siva Rama Krishnan. The Andhra Pradesh Building Rules of 2017 were issued afterwards and this gives the guidelines of layout approval and infrastructure development. Plot sizes, planning scales, provision of amenities, building setbacks, traffic infrastructure, environmental clearance, affordable housing, mortgage plans and conversion regulations are spelt out in the rules. These provisions are aimed at ensuring sustainable and coordinated urban development and to meet the needs of the Andhra Pradesh population that are diverse (Government of India, 2014). The planning that is within the state of Andhra Pradesh is a complex construction which puts together various instruments and control tools to guide its growth and its physical structure. The main features of this type of architecture are the Andhra Pradesh Building Rules of 2017, which provides detailed prescriptive information relative to site plans, layout plans, and subdivision plans in terms of land utilization. These guidelines stipulate strict requirements with respect to location of north point, location of site boundaries,

proximity to other roads, existence of other buildings as well as location of set-backs relative to other lots and buildings (Government of Andhra Pradesh, 2017).

Andhra Pradesh District Planning Committees Act of 2005 is another base as it endows District Planning Committees with the mandate to compile development programs initiated by Panchayats and Municipalities within a district to generate a concluding district-level development program. The institutionalisation of various planning approaches as in the Andhra Pradesh Rural Roads Connectivity Project supported by the Asian Infrastructure Investment Bank also depicts the institutionalisation of the Environmental and Social Management Planning Framework, Tribal Population Planning Framework and Resettlement Policy Framework. These frameworks prioritise the principals of sustainable development and active community involvement with the planning and implementation of the project (Asian Infrastructure Investment Bank, 2021).

Lastly, the Andhra Pradesh Industrial Development Policy 2023-27 focuses on streamlining procedures as well as clear management transparency. This agenda is affirmed by the Andhra Pradesh Building Rules of 2017 where the approvals process in relation to building plans is enhanced in addition to the inclusion of environmental factors into building bylaws. Urban Local Bodies/Development Authorities are therefore allowed to approve the building plans without seeking any other environmental clearances (Asian Infrastructure Investment Bank, 2021).

The nature of land use governance in the state of Andhra Pradesh is based on an elaborate legal framework structure that includes a set of provisions that deal with the determination of land rights, the management of forest and common lands, control over rural and urban land use, management of public land, the disposal of public land to private exploitation, provision of land information, the evaluation processes, fiscal regime, land dispute resolution and so on. This system was established during the post-independence era and some of its radical reforms include abolition of intermediaries, refurbishment of tenancy, capping on land holdings and giving government and wastelands to runaway landless people in the country. Despite such interventions, their positive adoption is still limited by long-term court actions and circumventing of legal parameters on the system levels. In spite of the legal protection against the transfer of tribal lands to non-tribals, very little is done in ensuring that non-tribal people do not hold a large share of scheduled area lands. At the same time, customary land laws still govern land enjoyment by application of traditions whereas easement right falls within the category of customary rights. A look at the land use dynamics in fact indicates that there is a

dire need to understand as well as control the changing dynamics of land use in order to induce sustainable development and resource management in Andhra Pradesh (World Bank & Centre for Good Governance, 2014).

Goa has a mix of both state initiatives supported by regulatory, support schemes and market driven developments in logistics and warehousing. It presents some kind of hybrid leadership to lead and drive business development in the state. Goa has recorded major improvements in spatial planning which includes the adoption of the Revised Regional Plan of Goa-2021 (RPG-2021). The present plan is a bottom-up kind of planning which targets multiple aspects including land pressure, environmental degradation, and aims at infrastructure deficit. The RPG-2021 is all about developing the state of Goa in a prosperous region in the Goan simple popularity and securing its delicate ecosystems in collaboration with the Goan people. The plan contains measured population distribution, sustainable development, establishment of new growth centers in midland talukas, better networks of public transport and the protection of Goa environment. The RPG-2021 proposes a participatory approach through use of State Level Committees, Taluka Level Technical Committees, and the Village Panchayats in order to secure citizen participation and comments to the planning. The plan also lays some stress on the various ecological areas, viz. forests, mangroves, water bodies, and cultivable lands to develop in such a way so as to be able to sustain itself (State Level Committee,2010).

The RPG-2021 also deals with such essential complexes as the impact of tourism activities, real estate development, the influence of mining, and the necessity of improving the infrastructure level. On the whole, the spatial planning in Goa, as presented in the RPG-2021 is targeted on the promotion of sustainable development, the population balancing policy balance, the environment protection, and the improvement of the quality of life in the accepting region (Krishnankutty,2021).

The Goa Land Use (Regulation) Act, 1991 and as amended gives a regulatory framework on land use of the public interest who file an application on acquiring land vested in the tenants to the community or land use project. The concept of vertical coordination and the locus of power in Goa can be understood by observing the governance structures and power distribution within the region. The Minister holds the power in overseeing and improving the state's power infrastructure, bringing up the need for coordination at various levels to ensure reliable power supply to the people of Goa. Adheres to a peculiar land tenure system called the

Land Tenure Act or the Code of Comunidades, they have this system where the land is classified as comunidade (village community-owned) and as a privately owned land with different types of rules. The process of changing land use of agricultural to other purposes can be realized but a Conversion Sanad must be obtained at Deputy Collector. Peasant and other groups of citizens have been reported to have a high resistance towards land deals to Special economic Zones (SEZs) and other development endeavors in Goa. Goa has launched the Real Estate Regulatory Authority (RERA) to control the real estate industry and safeguard the interest of purchasers (Homes,2024).

The governing philosophy of the state, the planning strategy adopted in **Karnataka** incorporates market-driven aspects as well as state-led aspects of planning thus meeting the economic aspirations of the state as well as promoting the aspect of sustainable development in a holistic manner. Under this scheme, the main themes of Karnataka spatial-planning agenda include Decentralization and Local Governments Empowerment. Some of the development priorities in Karnataka entail decentralization of urban management and boosting the capacity of local urban jurisdictions (ULBs) to provide autonomous urban development paths. In this direction, the disbanding of Urban Development Authorities and integration of their functions with Metropolitan Planning Committees as well as District Planning Authorities amounts to policy responses affirming the bottom-up, district-level input. The state has also embarked on unification of disorganized local plans at a district level thus facilitating integrated spatial plans which incorporate harmony between industries and culture. A number of cities within Karnataka have been selected in the country-wide Smart Cities Mission with initiatives aiming to transform the urban infrastructure and services through integration of technology and adopting principles of sustainability. Despite these efforts, issues still have to be addressed especially the case with the implementation and enforcement of master plans. Among the obstacles that can be noted, there are usurpations of restricted territories even in the presence of normative acts (Krishne,2018).

The subject of land management in Karnataka forms an interesting area of concern with about 23 percent of the total geographical land falling under the category of publicly owned land i.e. it belongs to the people. In stopping encroachment of public land, the State has come up with a number of measures with some of the most prominent measures setting up of Karnataka Public Land Corporation and passing of the Karnataka Land Grabbing (Prohibition) Bill 2011. Karnataka Land Reforms (Amendment) Ordinance 2020 aims to centralize and

5.1 States

harmonize statutory provisions of Purchase and holding of agricultural lands and, Tenure and occupancy rights (Government of Karnataka, 2020).

There are also a few special cases when dealing with territorial governance and management especially how Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) and Slum Development Board of the State determine and put up slums or any informal buildings. Although mechanisms such as length of occupation and size of settlement are taken into consideration, the procedural machine is obscure and the management is mostly ad hoc therefore subjecting the process to political exploitation (Centre for Policy Research, 2021). The Karnataka state government has responded to these issues through the decentralization of the urban governance, as well as empowering the local ULBs by eliminating Urban Development Authorities and handing their job to the Metropolitan Planning Committees and District Planning Authorities. In addition, the State realizes that urbanization is a good phenomenon and is trying to direct investment and economic activities to the secondary cities and urban clusters to ensure that they encourage balanced regional development (National Institute of Urban Affairs, 2020).

Kerala's development framework adopts a hybrid model that integrates both state-led and little elements of market-led systems. The Spatial Planning Discourse centers around the highly diverse urban-rural continuum (RUC), which features dispersed settlement patterns. The state has implemented a decentralized governance model that empowers local self-governments (LSGs) to promote participatory planning. Citizens participate in decision-making processes through Gram Sabhas, facilitating their involvement. Kerala has adopted regional planning Kerala has regional planning strategies that encompass both urban and rural areas. (Koshy., 2020). Kerala's discourse emphasizes sustainable development as the main element, integrating environmental conservation with economic growth strategies. Kerala Perspective 2030 serves as a long-term strategic framework for the state's development. The plan addresses key sectors such as agriculture, industry, services and infrastructure, aiming to create a balanced and inclusive economic environment.

The key elements that outline the landscape of land use rights in the state is Kerala Land Reform Act. This legislation was enacted to redistribute land and abolish the feudal land tenure system. Kerala Conservation of Paddy Land and Wetland Act seeks to protect paddy fields and wetlands from being converted to non-agricultural uses. Land Acquisition Act allows the government to acquire land for public purposes while ensuring that the landowners are compensated.

The developmental paradigm peculiar to Kerala is such a hybrid formation, as both state-led and market-led systems are combined. Urban-rural continuum (RUC) is central to the discourse of planning, being a highly heterogeneous system of settlement, having a scattered spatial configuration. One of the major evidence of the strong desire towards decentralized governance has been the delegation of powers to the local self-governments (LSGs) thus endowing them with improved institutional capabilities of participatory planning. The engagement of citizens is made via Gram Sabhas where there are institutionalized means to social engagement on the process of policy-making. As a corollary to this municipal system, the state has established regional planning policies which harmonize the objectives of the city and rural planning (Firoz et al., 2024).

Kerala development discourse has put its main focus on sustainable development and that is where it suggests to incorporate environmental conservation with rationalized economic growth strategies. The long-term strategy was developed over Kerala Perspective 2030, which acts as a law of development. The four major sectors namely agriculture, industry, services and infrastructure have been issued with specific consideration in the document to design the balanced and inclusive economic environment. According to the regulatory field, the Kerala Land Reform Act is the main tool of land-use change instrumentalization. This statute was enacted in the context of re-division of ancient commensality in property, and of the abolition of what is generally termed a feudal system of landholding. The Kerala Conservation of Paddy Land and Wetland Act on the other hand aims to protect paddy land and wet lands against conversion to non-agriculture use. Simultaneously, there is the Land Acquisition Act that gives the government the authority to acquire land in the cause of the public, under the condition that the loss to the owner would pay much (Kerala State Planning Board, 2014).

Special Economic Zones (SEZ) in Kerala focus on promoting exports and attracting investments through a range of initiatives. Greater Cochin Development Area (GCDA) is another innovative planning model for Cochin emphasizing connectivity among various local self-governments through infrastructure development (Firoz et al., 2020).

Even though the influence of the market forces on the economic fabric of the state of **Tamil Nadu** is tangible, the form of a largely state-led framework dominates the developmental path of the state. Here, the major determinants of the economic setting are the government initiatives, the policy and the investment. It is notable that the government of Tamil Nadu operates as a major investor which

makes an investment of about 52 percent of the total investment in the state. This ratio highlights the high level of state involvement in driving economic development as well as in undertaking infrastructure development that is all paramount to creation of an investor friendly climate and by maintaining a social inclusivity (Jagasheth,2024).

Tamil Nadu manages to be governed by a formal institutional structure: it has a State-Level Steering Committee, which has a mandate to formulate and review a State Spatial Strategy Plan, to coordinate relations between the sectors, to develop plans of planning areas, and to evaluate and approve regional plans along with monitoring and revising them. At the same time, the Directorate of Town and Country Planning designs the Local Planning Authorities in order to prepare, implement, and control local-area plans, thus securing the compatibility of the higher-level and the lower-level spatial development strategies. Over the past few years the state of Tamil Nadu has experienced a significant change participating with urbanization, regional development and sustainable land use. The government has also embarked on establishing a region planning authority that would produce maps of land use as well as building use map in an area of 1.36 lakh square kilometers, covering 12 regions. This initiative will help achieve more effective land utilization and infrastructural construction because it will deal directly with huge spatial units but not with separate cities or towns. The regional plans will be focused on the inter-settlements matters and the master plans will address issues within a settlement, such as water supply, drainages, and slum resettlement (Shivakumar, 2022).

A State Level Steering Committee is established to prepare and to consider the State Spatial Strategy Plan, to co-ordinate inter-sectoral communications, to define planning areas to consider, evaluate, approve, monitor and review of regional plans. The entire duties of the Directorate of town and country planning (DTCP) are to prepare, implementing and monitoring of the regional and sub- regional plans, inter-sector coordination, and settlement level plan evaluation, approval, monitoring and review. DTCP also sets up Local Planning Authorities to prepare, put in effect and follow up local area plans (Shivakumar, 2022).

An institutional framework in Tamil Nadu has been developed in terms of hierarchical planning, appreciable vertical coordination, and decentralization of powers to local governments. The scale of state planning includes various stages; the State Planning Commission (SPC) is considered to be one of the central interface among the state government, the Department of Planning and

Development, and NITI Aayog, thus, allowing to coordinate policies and plans of diverse industries, such as agriculture, industries, power, transport, land use, education, employment, and rural development. In addition, it is seen that the state is pursuing a normative, systematic and consistent spatial planning of a state through programs like the Indo German Partnership in collaboration with GIZ via the project titled, linking a Land Use Planning and Management Project (LUP-M) (Sundararagavan et al., 2022).

Tamil Nadu has put in use several planning tools that shall enable it to ensure effective spatial planning and development within the state. The latest formulation and review of the State Spatial Strategy Plan is done by the State Level Steering Committee to guide the spatial development process of the state. Regional plans prepared by Directorate of Town and Country Planning (DTCP) is meant to coordinate sectoral, spatial and economic goals and geographical approaches of developments within an area via zoning of spatial and sectoral development, draw a connection between broad goals of the nation and state and general aspirations of an area and set the order of settlements. Decentralized planning has been practiced in the state by assigning state-owned tax revenue (SOTR) funds to the rural and the urban local bodies. Though the state of Tamil Nadu has decentralized planning and community involvement in some of its activities with land-use administration being the most prominent, there is not any obvious direct involvement of the people in the formulation of decisions (Sundararagavan et al., 2022).

Tamil Nadu has initiated unique measures in territorial governance and spatial planning. The most eminent one is the discovery of Rurban clusters under the Shyama Prasad Mukherji Rurban Mission (SPMRM) where limited developmental potential villages, which are geographically adjacent, are identified where concentration needs to take place. Then spatial plans are prepared with respect to each cluster after incorporating the different variables like agro-climatic zone, eco-sensitive areas, ground water patterns, green cover, bio-diversity and pollution to be used in the making of developmental decisions (Ministry of Rural Development, 2019).

Governance design of **Telangana** incorporates both the state-led and market-led systems of governance whereby almost in every policy area, the state plays a significant role in influencing governance. At the same time, the growth of e-commerce and the parallel renewal of local retailing business indicates the extent to which market forces are shifting consumer attitudes as well as economic opportunities in the state. Telangana state government follows the parliamentary

5.2 Union Territories

system; the actions of the state are taken care of by the Governor who is the constitutional head, but the executive power is wielded by the Chief Minister. Administration divisions, the state is subdivided into 33 districts and further subdivided into revenue divisions and mandals thus helping in decentralized administration at local levels. The Panchayati Raj in rural areas is run as per a three-tier system whereas in urban areas (ULB: urban local body) it is run as per two tiers. The most apparent goal of such an institutional design is to empower local governance by using the election process; the independence and effectiveness of such structures remain to be bound to the centralized system that is located on the state level (Municipal Administration and Urban Development Department, 2020).

One of the most important policy tools is the SEAMF Social and Environmental Assessment Management Framework (SEAMF) which is a formal tool used to assess urban investment sub-projects before they are potentially financed. The SEAMF aims at ensuring that every sub-project will be in conformity with the national and state legal and regulatory frameworks as well as World Bank safeguards in the project cycle. This structure is to enable the inclusion of all the municipal sub-projects, their sectoral or sub-sectoral sub-projects among others (World Bank, 2004).

Telangana Land-use rights and transformation mechanisms In Telangana, land-use rights and transformation mechanisms present an assortment of procedures and rules that govern the transformation of agricultural land to a non-agricultural purpose. Officially, this state has a policy of Transferable Development Rights, which allows the unused development rights to be transferred between zoning lots with specific parameters. The policy aims at developing real-estate industry and also promotes issuance and use of TDRs. At least one stage of policy development process is required to open to public consultation but the substantive contribution of these consultations to the end result depends on a variety of factors, in particular the reason behind consultation, the particular method by which it was to be administered and the relative motivation of the parties concerned as well as the quantifiable effect which consultation can have on the resulting policy (Propiinn, 2024).

5.2 Union Territories

In India, union territories (UTs) are administrative bodies that operate either fully or partially under the direct control of the central government. The States Reorganization Act, 1956, introduced the concept and the Constitution (Seventh

Amendment) Act, 1956. Articles 239 to 241 legalized the framework of Union Territories. Geographical, strategical or economic significance of the regions shaped the UTs. Delhi, Puducherry, and Jammu & Kashmir, enjoys partial statehood with elected legislatures but limited powers compared to states while the others are directly controlled by the Central Government. The Union territories are also studied and analyzed similar to the states.

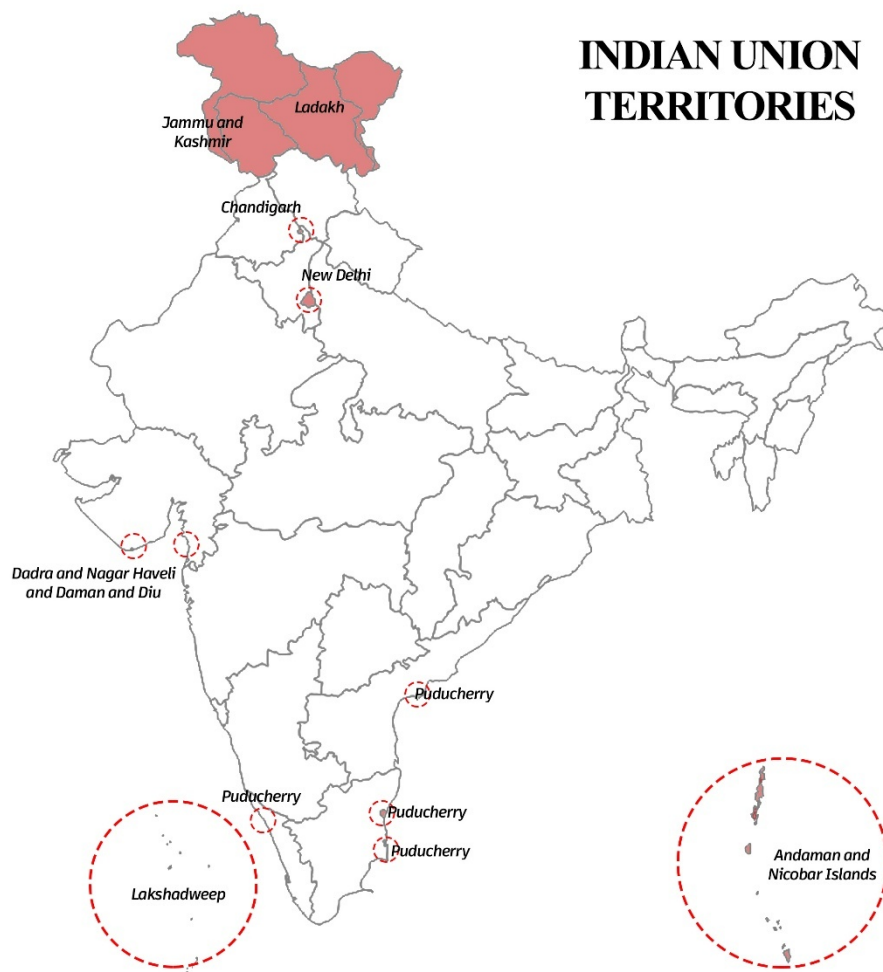


Figure 25: Indian Union Territories © Authors

Andaman and Nicobar Islands have a mixed economic system that takes into consideration both the market mechanism and the state interventions in promoting sustainable development goals. The planners develop an island-based planning model that aims at finding a balance between economic growth, environmental

5.2 Union Territories

management, and cultural preservation. The administrative structure of governance is in the form of three administrative districts namely, North and Middle Andaman, South Andaman and Nicobar and the structure is supported by three tier Panchayat Raj structure. The Andaman and Nicobar Islands Action Plan on Climate Change (ANIAPCC) is a key policy tool; it guides the process of mainstreaming climate change considerations in the development planning process through mainstreaming of climate resilience in all policies and programs (Ganj D.,2021).

The Great Nicobar Island Development Project, launched in 2021, aims to transform the island into a significant economic hub focused on sustainable development. Being a Union Territory, the Andaman and Nicobar Islands have a single vertical arrangement of coordination and division of powers in administration and governance. It is directly regulated by the central government, and the Lieutenant Governor is considered the chief executive officer and the vertical coordination with the central government is very strong. Various organized sub-structures which serve the islands are the Agricultural, Civil Supplies, Police and Public Works Departments, under secretariats and directorates. All land in the Andaman and Nicobar Islands remains in absolute title to the Government, and the Government is only willing to permitting the ownership of land in form of conveyance or grants made by the state. In order to increase the involvement in other areas like tourism, the territory has embraced public-private partnerships.

All Andaman and Nicobar Islands land is vested absolutely in the Government, and private ownership is allowed only through government-issued conveyances or grants. The government has also established public-private partnerships to boost people participation in various sectors like tourism. The Andaman Nicobar basin is an archetypal arc system that is a result of tectonic movements, a topography that has been educative in terms of spatial planning by accommodating peculiar environmental conditions. Some of the unique issues the Islands are faced with are the preservation of Jarawa Tribal Reserve; various rules have been enacted to preserve the Jarawa tribe and to stop commercialization of the buffer zone. Another program that the Government has started to implement is settlement and population policy, which is aimed at resettling the islands with mainland settlers.

Chandigarh has a governance system controlled by the central government with localized implementation through the Chandigarh Administration. They primarily have a state led system with some market driven elements and is characterized by a multi-scaled and multifaceted framework. The Punjab Capital (Development and Regulation) Act, 1952 legalizes the spatial planning along with

The Punjab Capital (Development and Regulation) Building Rules, 1952 and The Chandigarh (Sale of Sites) Rules, 1960.

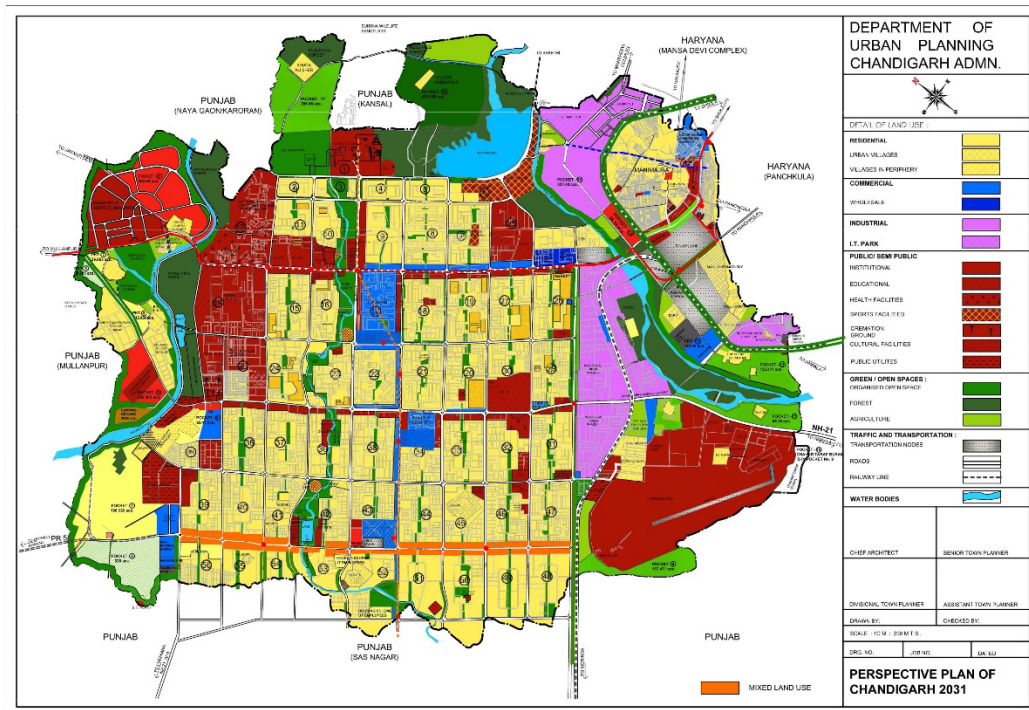


Figure 26: Master Plan 2031: Chandigarh, India © Asseyogi

Chandigarh has multi-scaled and multi-faceted institutional structure. The multi-scaled structure involves national level, Union Territory level (Chandigarh Administration) and local level (Municipal Corporation Chandigarh (MCC)) institutions while the multi-faceted structure involves master plans, architectural and zoning regulations. The Chandigarh Administration is responsible for the zoning regulations, architectural controls, and master plans and the MCC affects the planning through infrastructure implementation and management. The Chandigarh Master Plan – 2031 imparts the long terms visions and strategies for the region inline with the national level regulations and policies. It is a development strategy outlining the land use, Infrastructure Development, Sustainability and designed in accord with the population dynamics, proposing re-densification of some areas ensuring equitable distribution of amenities. The sectorial layout and 7Vs road network are indispensable elements of the urban plan designed by Le Corbusier. Each sectors, measures about 800mX1200m, acts as self sufficient "city within a city" sectors with residential, health, shopping, schools etc. And the "7Vs"

road hierarchy ensures the segregation of different types of movements (V1: Fast roads connecting Chandigarh to other towns, V2: Arterial roads, V3: Sector dividing roads, V4: Meandering shopping streets, V5: Sector circulation roads, V6: Access roads to houses, and V7: Footpaths and cycle tracks through green belts). Zoning plans regulates the land use patterns within the region ensuring that it aligns with the original design principles of Le Corbusier, issued at the sectoral scale. Sector-Specific Architectural controls ensures that the buildings cohere to regulations that conserves consonant urban landscape with different sectors having unique architectural requirements according to the functions (Chandigarh master plan 2031, n.d.).

Main discourse along with the sectoral layouts, includes the Master Plan Principles used in the urban planning. The CIAM (Congress Internationaux d'Architecture Moderne) Theories defines four major functions living, working, care of body and spirit and circulation while the Human Body Analogy conceived the master plan to a human body with Head (Capitol Complex), Heart (City Centre), Lungs (Leisure Valley & Open Spaces), Intellect (Cultural & Educational Institutions), Circulatory System (TVs Road Network) and Viscera (Industrial Area). Along with the identified special economic zone, Integration of Informal Settlements into the master plan can be considered as a special case. The periphery regions face challenges of unauthorized constructions and informal settlements which can subvert and negotiate with the existing spatial plans for better amenities. These areas are then integrated into formal planning regions.

Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Daman and Diu has a governance system controlled by the central government with localized implementation through the Dadra and Nagar Haveli Planning and Development Authority (DNHPDA) with a state led approach. They are characterized by a multi-scaled and multifaceted framework and legalized through Dadra and Nagar Haveli Town and Country Planning Act, 1974 (Town and Country Planning: UT of Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Daman and Diu., n.d.).

With the DNHPDA as the primary authority, the Multi-Scaled Institutional Structure includes various departments and local governance structures like the municipal councils and panchayat raj institutions. The multi-faceted system incorporates the General Development Rules 2023, Outline Development Plans (ODP) and the enforcement and public participation mechanisms. The General Development Rules 2023 formed under the planning act of 1974, outlines the land use, construction standards, and zoning regulations for the union territory which are

enforced by the local authorities. The wider framework of GDR contains the Outline Development Plans (ODP) which establishes land use policies, infrastructure development standards and zoning regulations for specific planning areas within the UT. And within the ODPs, Zonal Plans focuses on specific areas which requires particular types of development. These are enforced enforcement and public participation mechanisms. The enforcement mechanisms includes regulatory compliances, judicial mechanisms and monitoring systems while the public participation mechanisms comprises public consultations, workshops, participatory budgeting and facilitating public participation through local governance bodies (Town and Country Planning: UT of Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Daman and Diu., n.d.).

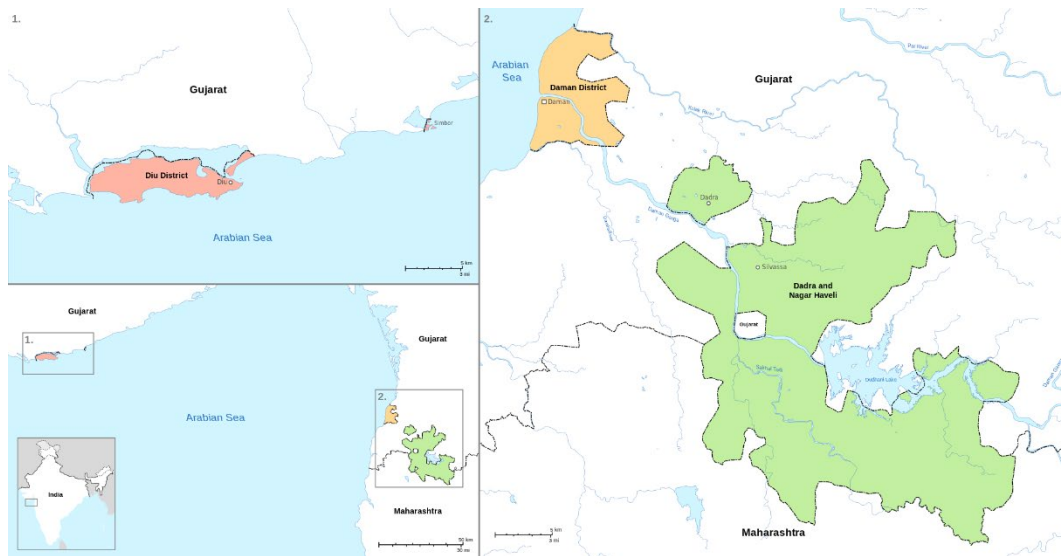


Figure 27: Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Daman and Diu © Fenn-O-maniC - Data via OpenStreetMap, CC BY-SA 2.0

The discourses that structure the spatial planning revolves around the urban-rural integration and the tourism of the region. The urban-rural integration ensures balanced development for urban and rural infrastructure developments, social opportunities and sustainable developments through out the region in order to tackle rapid urbanization.

The Government of National Capital Territory of **Delhi** (GNCTD) primarily follows a state led approach with some market led elements in spatial development. The Delhi Development Authority (DDA) plays a key role in the formulation and implementation of the Master Plan of Delhi being done in line with the provisions

of the Delhi Development Act, 1957. Under this institutional arrangement, the government regulators, i.e. the DDA, enable the participation of the private sector through joint ventures and other measures of attracting investment in a specific way, thus enabling the market forces to enter the strategic decision-making process (Delhi Development Authority, 2014).

The institutional structure for spatial planning in Delhi is multi-scaled, involving various agencies at different levels of governance. This structure includes the Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs (MoHUA) and NITI Aayog at the national level, National Capital Region Planning Board (NCRPB) at the regional level, Delhi Development Authority (DDA) at the UT level and the Municipal Corporation of Delhi (MCD) and the local self-governing Urban Local Bodies at the local levels. The spatial planning in Delhi is mainly structured under the Delhi Development Act, 1957 and the Delhi Town and Country Planning Act. The DDA, under the powers delegated to it by the 74th Amendment Act, 1992, is also supposed to develop the Master Plan of Delhi (MPD). The MPD acts as the overarching policy document, which guides the urban development by allocating land-use, infrastructure programming and drafting transport policy (Dewal, S. & Centre for Civil Society., 2022). The Zonal Plans in the MPD details out policies at specific zones within cities for the effective management of land. These plans are used to govern land use by specification of small-scale policies that target specific areas. In addition to the zonal concept, the MCD constructs and implements Local Area Plans (LAPs) at the neighborhood levels to reconcile locally specific building policies with the expressed demands of the local populace (Yadav. S.,2020).

Along with the DDA, the National Capital Region Planning Board (NCRPB) established under the NCRPB Act, 1985, plays a pivotal role in ensuring coordinated development across the National Capital Region. The NCRPB prepares the regional and functional plans to guide the development in the whole region, and also, to coordinate the sub-regional interventions with the broad plans through continuous cooperation between the states (Haryana, Rajasthan, Uttar Pradesh) and Delhi (NCRPB., n.d.).

The major challenge of spatial planning in Delhi is the presence of unauthorized colonies and informal settlements that have further been aggravated by the high rate of urbanization and migration in the city. Regularization schemes like the "Pradhan Mantri – Unauthorized Colonies in Delhi Awas Yojana" (PM-UDAY) aim to bring these areas under formal planning by providing legal recognition and basic amenities (Yadav. S.,2020). The Master Plan for Delhi 2021 highlights the need to

adopt redevelopment strategies that embrace informal neighbourhoods as an extension of a wider agenda of a more inclusive urban development.



Figure 28: National Capital Region © NCRPB

Jammu and Kashmir, being a region with highly geopolitical situations, governance aligns to central policies and local administrative bodies are responsible for spatial planning with the overview of central government. Housing and Urban Development Department (H&UDD), Jammu Development Authority (JDA) and Srinagar Development Authority (SDA) are the key bodies around which the spatial planning of J&K is structured. Jammu & Kashmir Town Planning Act, 1963 and Jammu & Kashmir Development Act, 1970 legalizes spatial planning in J&K.

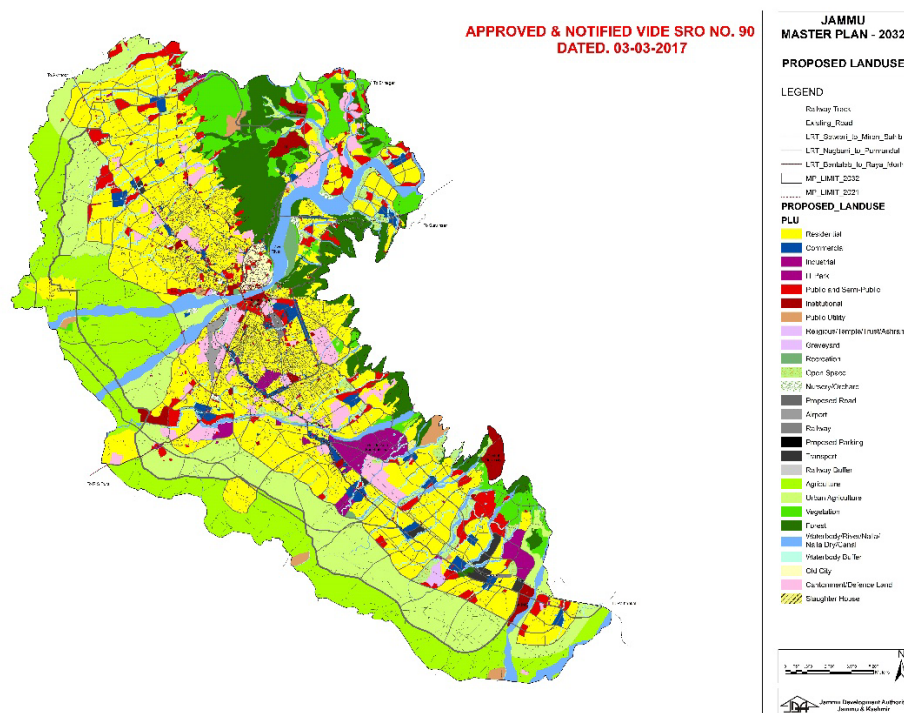


Figure 29: Land use plan - J&K Master Plan 2032 © JDA

J&K has a multi-scaled and multi-faceted structure in which spatial planning bodies like H&UDD and Town planning Organization (TPO Jammu and TPO Kashmir) at different level along with the planning tools forms the institutional structure. Srinagar Master Plan-2035 and Jammu Master Plan-2032 serves as the pivotal tools for the spatial planning of J&K providing guidelines regarding the land use, Infrastructure and sustainable development. Zonal plans follows the master plans to provide land use policies, infrastructure development standards and zoning regulations for specific planning areas. Further detailed Town Planning Schemes (TPS) and village development plans are provided if required. Along with these tools the Development Code of J&K govern the spatial planning and development standards. Along with the acts of 1970 and 1963, Metropolitan Region Development Authorities Act, 2018, Unified Building Bye-Laws, 2021 and Draft Building Code 2020 mainly defines the development code (NITI Aayog, 2021).

The urban planning policies and the Environmental Impact Assessments (EIA) are the main discourses of spatial planning in J&K. The Land Pooling Policy (LPP), facilitates planned urban development through combining land with different landowners, Transfer of Development Rights (TDR) Policy, facilitates infrastructure development providing compensation to the land owners and Transit-

Oriented Development (TOD) Policy, aims at integrating land use with transportation planning to provide connectivity, are the key urban planning policies.

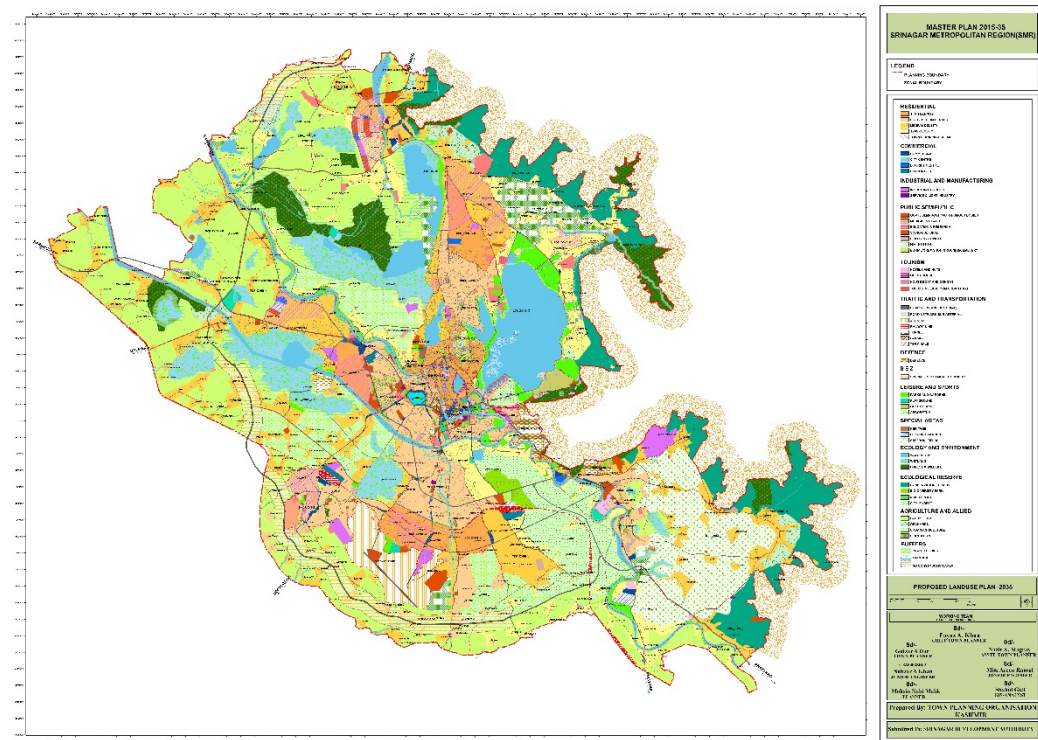


Figure 30: Land use plan - Srinagar Master Plan-2035 © SDA

The geopolitical dynamics and environmental and cultural challenges can be considered as special cases in J&K (T.C.P.O, 2015). The cultural and historical significance and the regions topography, making it environmentally fragile, demands attention during the spatial planning process.

Ladakh has a governance system controlled by the central government with localized implementation through the Housing and Urban Development Department (H&UDD) and the Planning Development & Monitoring Department. The Unified Ladakh Building Bye-Laws, 2022 and Ladakh Autonomous Hill Development Council Act, 1997 are primary laws that structures the spatial planning (Administration of Union Territory of Ladakh., n.d.). Ladakh has a multi-scaled and multi-faceted institutional structure with the H&UDD and the planning development & monitoring department at the UT level and District Statistics & Evaluation Offices, block Planning/Statistical Units and Autonomous Hill Development Councils (LAHDC) at respective local levels.

5.2 Union Territories

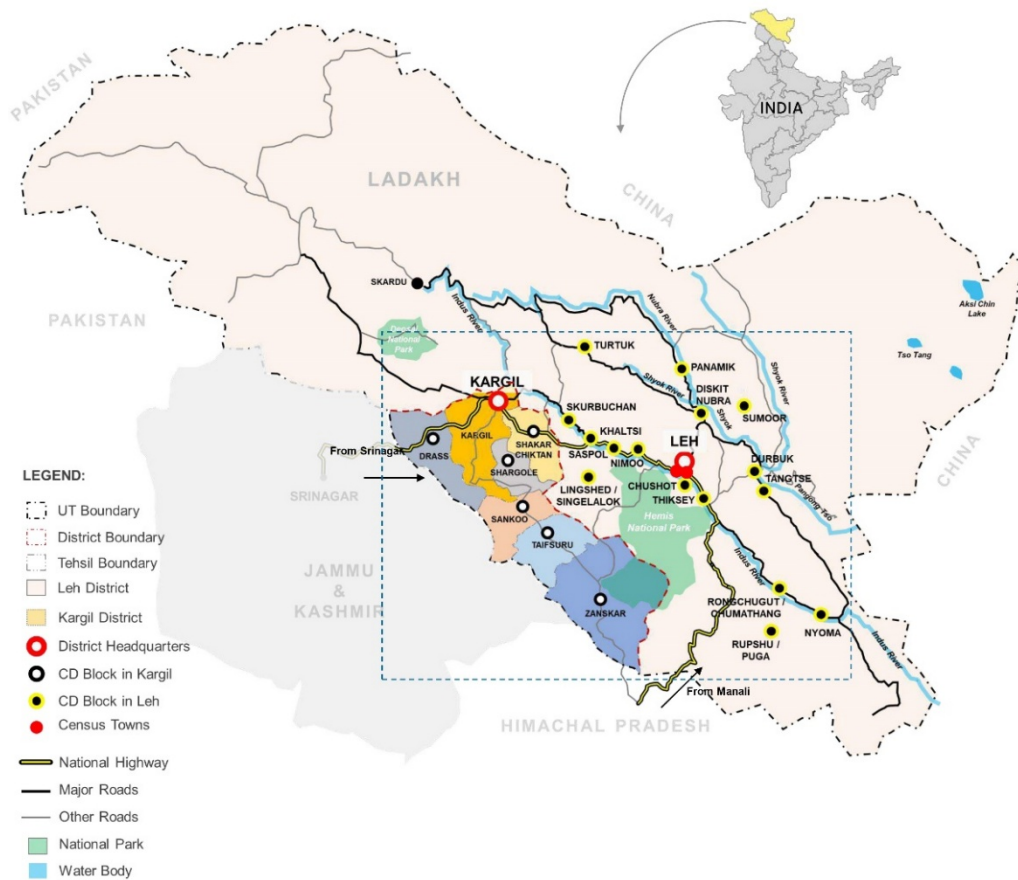


Figure 31: Existing Spatial Planning Division Plan - Ladakh © Vision 2050 for UT of Ladakh, Administration of Union Territory of Ladakh

Spatial planning in Ladakh operates through the Ladakh Vision Document 2025 and Leh Vision Document 2030 as its main instruments. The vision documents provide long-term visions and strategies for the region inline with the national level regulations and policies. Master Plans are prepared following the guidelines of vision documents systematizing infrastructure, sustainability and cultural conservation. Master plans are prepared for different urban centers in the territory. Ladakh also has Destination Master Plans which outline strategies for sustainable tourism promoting low-impact tourism benefiting the local communities (Voyants in consortium with IDECK, (2023)). The Leh Climate Action Plan (CAP) aims at guiding Leh with mitigation and adaptation strategies addressing climate change challenges of the region. The Ladakh Autonomous Hill Development Councils (LAHDC) is established to promote local self-governance and development of the region. The LAHDC are responsible for development planning, land management, governance and budgeting and cultural promotion of

the region. The geopolitical dynamics and the Environmental Adaptation Strategies in the spatial planning are the special cases of the territory.

The case of **Lakshadweep** is one of a combination of the market-driven approaches and state interventions. It provides a special ecosystem and it is necessary to be kept sustainable. The primary ocean policy initiative includes Marine Spatial Planning that targets to strike the balance between economic development and protection of ocean resources and the coastal environment. Norway and India have come together to use MSP in Lakshadweep with the view to sustainably manage the oceans (India and Norway to conduct marine spatial planning in Lakshadweep, Puducherry, 2021).

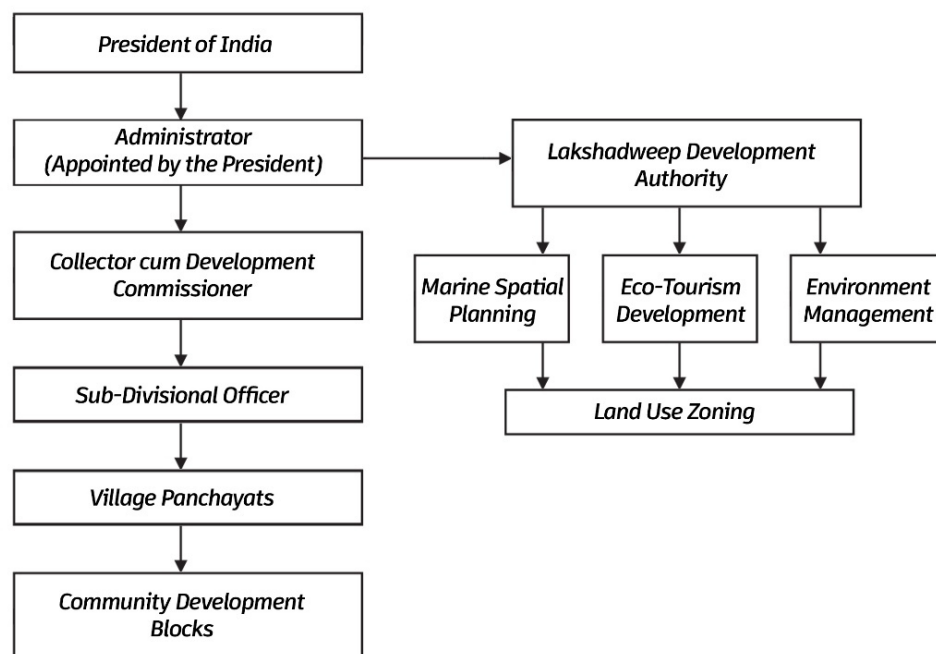


Figure 32: Structure of Lakshadweep Spatial Planning and Governance ©
Authors based on data from Administration of UT of Lakshadweep

The purpose of the Integrated Island Management Plans (IIMPs) is taking control and safeguarding the Lakshadweep environment and, established sustainable development and spatial zoning on development, conservation and establishment zones. Coastal Regulation Zones (CRZ) Norms to safeguard the coastal regions against any uncontrolled developments so that whatever is developed is in keeping with the environmental norms (Administration of UT of Lakshadweep, 2018).

5.2 Union Territories

Swadesh Dharna Schemes look forward to develop responsible tourism by incorporating destination focusing planning to enhance tourism. The action plan on climate change in Lakshadweep involves addressing the issues of migration and environmental management with policies to tackle such problems as entry permits and laws on land (Ministry of Environment, Forest and Climate Change, 2015).

The multi-scaled planning approach in Lakshadweep holds together the national writing, regional plans, and local plans in its effort to control the ecological and cultural specifications that have to be taken care of. The Exclusive Economic Zones of Lakshadweep totaling 400000 sq km presents good opportunities of management and development of marine resources and economic growth. Although Lakshadweep does not have SEZ, its peculiar governance and spatial planning strategies are aimed at sustainable spatial, economic development and environmental conservation which determines ecological and cultural heritage of such islands (Ministry of Environment, Forest and Climate Change, 2015).

Puducherry offers a special spatial development culture comprising the characteristics of the state-led and market-oriented systems. Being a Union Territory with a strong economy of diverse character and geographical dispersions, it is a hybrid system in the respect that it integrates aspects of state-led planning along with the market-oriented policies. The government is trying to strike a balance in regard to local autonomy and central control to its urban development and economic planning policy.

The Territorial governance and spatial planning in Puducherry finds its peculiarities due to the history of the region as a former French colony and its present position as one of the Union Territories of India. Its system of governance is a mixture between local administration and federal control to suit the unique cultural and geographical diversity of the region. The governance of Puducherry has vertical coordination between the local state and the central state. The Lieutenant Governor who is the representative of the central government is appointed by the President of India and directs the administration in the Raj Nivas, the old palace of French governor. In the governance of Puducherry, the locus of power lies with both, the local administration, and the central government. The council of ministers and the elected legislative assembly are in control of local issues and the Lieutenant Governor and central government are the deciders of the financial aspects and the policy making process. Such a system of dual power may cause some conflicts or failure to execute decisions in some situations because the local administration may oversee different priorities and approaches compared to

the central government. Effective coordination or consensus-building between the two levels of governance in Puducherry is important towards proper governance and development (Ministry of Home Affairs, (n.d.)). There are a number of tools of strategic planning that are used in Puducherry to plan its growth and governance especially through programs such as the Smart Cities Mission and urban development schemes. The important features of these strategic planning instruments are the City Development Plan of Puducherry aimed at the planning strategies in the context of the urban infrastructure, service delivery and the socio-economic development.

Evaluate existing conditions: Evaluation of current infrastructure, demography and economy to rank needs and priority.

Action Plans: Creation of special projects to enhance critical services, housing, transport and environmental sustainability. The Smart City Strategy is another tool, as per the Smart Cities Mission, Puducherry has also devised a strategy that confronts Area-Based Development Initiatives like retrofitting of existing urban areas, rejuvenation of the urban spaces, and creation of new places using innovative technologies (Smart Cities Mission, n.d.).

Integrated Urban Planning: Using technology and conjoining it to urban planning in order to streamline delivery of services and participation by the citizens. Sustainability Goals: The focus on green spaces, the use of energy efficiency, and transportation systems focused on sustainability. and lastly Marine Spatial Planning (MSP) MSP framework of Puducherry is an innovative and pathbreaking strategy in India, which gives a lot of weight into the management of ecosystems. Equalizing the marine resource exploitation and conservation activities to achieve sustainable economic activities such as fishing and tourism (Ministry of Home Affairs, (n.d.)).

The specificities of the territorial government and spatial planning of Puducherry is a challenging and an opportunity since the government of Puducherry is a former French colony and Union Territory of India. The following are some of the exceptional cases, which are evidences of this: The four geographically disparate Tamils are Puducherry, Karaikal, Mahé and Yanam, which comprise Puducherry. This division is a hindrance to a unified economic growth and city planning; the individual divisions are quite diverse and are enclosed by the borders of other states, viz. Tamil Nadu, Kerala, and Andhra Pradesh. Development is also thwarted by the fact that there is no form of a unified economy in the various districts making each district to portray features of the surrounding states (Planning

5.3 Data synthesis of the States and Union territories

Commission,2012). Puducherry has adopted participatory planning strategies to improve living conditions in low-income settlements. This approach engages local communities in planning to ensure that their needs and preferences in housing and urban development policies are met. The participatory framework encourages the formulation of policies that are responsive to the socio-economic realities of different communities within Puducherry, fostering inclusivity and equity in urban development (Planning Commission, 2012).

Puducherry has already introduced the Indian first Marine Spatial Planning framework enabling a balanced growth process and management of ocean resources. It is a joint initiative with the Norwegians that encourages the idea of having an ecosystem-based approach to managing marine resources and to use this as a governing tool to enable emergence of a so-called blue economy, which means sustainable and equitable management of ocean resources (Government of India,2023). The Constitution of India gives Puducherry a special authority making it enjoy the right to an elected legislative assembly and a council of ministers, a right which not all Union Territories enjoy. Through this system, the autonomy of local government is enjoyed to some extent although it is under the polity of the central government. Nonetheless, the core government exercises a lot of control in the financial issues, which may have an impact on the economic planning and improvement efforts of the territory (Government of India, 1962).

5.3 Data synthesis of the States and Union territories

After collecting valuable data on every state and union territory, a table is synthesized that lets us compare each and every state and union territory. The tables provide a detailed comparison of how different states and union territories approach spatial planning, showing the complicated multi-layered governance system that characterizes India's territorial development framework. The tables document the regional typology, geographical zones, and the vertical coordination mechanisms between different levels of government in the spatial planning processes. The tables capture the main elements of spatial planning discourse in each SGPS, including stakeholder consultations, public participation mechanisms, and specialized governance arrangements, while also identifying unique characteristics like the special economic zones and cultural heritage integration. The above table reveals the diversity of approaches to territorial governance, from state-led with market driven elements to the state-led systems with varying levels of decentralized government.

	Name	Regional Typology	Geographical Zone	Vertical Coordination and the Locus of Power in Spatial Planning	Planning Framework	Key Planning Tools	Main Elements of the Spatial Planning Discourse	Special cases	Type of system State/Market
INDIAN STATES									
25	Tripura	State	NES	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled approach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Development Plans Master Plans City Development Plans (CDPs) Town Planning Schemes Participatory Planning Mechanisms 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Stakeholder Consultations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cultural Heritage Integration 	State-led Approach
26	Uttar Pradesh	State	CS	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled approach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Master Plans and Zonal Development Plans Decentralized Planning Framework Public Participation Mechanisms Integrated Development Plans 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Master Planning Framework Public Participation mechanism Decentralized Governance Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) Regional Planning Initiatives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Special Economic Zone Involvement of National Capital Region Planning Board (NCRPB) 	State-led approach with market-driven elements
27	Uttarakhand	State	CS	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> State Spatial Data Infrastructure (SSDI) Master Plans Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) Localization Framework Participatory Planning Approaches Forest Resources Management Tools 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Integrated Planning Framework Master Plans and Zoning Regulations Disaster Risk Reduction Community Participation Policy Framework and Governance Initiatives Tourism Development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Uttarakhand Special Provisions for Urban Bodies Act 	Primarily State-led with some elements of Market-led approach
28	West Bengal	State	ES	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled Planning Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Land Use and Development Control Plans (LUDCP) Microplanning National Rural Development Management System (NRDMS) Integrated Urban Development Projects 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> City Development Plans Draft Development Plans Participatory Planning Processes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Special Economic Zone 	State-led approach with market-driven elements
INDIAN UNION TERRITORIES									
1	Andaman and Nicobar Islands	Union Territory	SS	Centralized decision-making with localized implementation	Multi-Scaled Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Master Plan for Port Blair Planning Area (2030) Land Use Planning Tools Island Coastal Regulation Zone (ICRZ) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ecological Sensitivity Protected Areas Management Indigenous Rights 	-	A combination of Market-led and State-led Approaches
2	Chandigarh	Union Territory	NS	Centralized decision-making with localized implementation	Multi-Scaled and Multi-Faceted Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Chandigarh Master Plan – 2031 Zoning plans and Architectural Controls Sectorial Layout and 7Vs Road Network 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Master Plan Principles (i) CIAM Theories (ii) Human Body Analogy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Special Economic Zone Integration of Informal Settlements 	Primarily State-led with very little elements of Market influence
3	Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Daman and Diu	Union Territory	WS	Centralized decision-making with localized implementation through DNHPDA	Multi-Scaled and Multi-Faceted Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> General Development Rules 2023 Outline Development Plans (ODP) Enforcement Mechanisms Public Participation Mechanisms 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Urban-Rural integration Tourism Development 	-	State-led approach
4	Delhi	Union Territory	CS	Elected U.T government with significant central oversight but slightly less direct control	Multi-Scaled Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> NCRPB Regional Plans Master Plan of Delhi (MPD) Zonal Plans Local Area Plans 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Inclusive Urbanism Integrated Long-Term Planning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Special Area Regulations Involvement of National Capital Region Planning Board (NCRPB) Unauthorized Colonies (UACs) 	State-led approach with market-driven elements
5	Jammu and Kashmir	Union Territory	NS	Elected U.T government with significant central oversight but slightly less direct control	Multi-Scaled and Multi-Faceted Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Master Plans Zonal Plans Development Codes Town Planning Schemes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Urban Planning Policies (i) Land Pooling Policy (LPP) (ii) Transfer of Development Rights (TDR) Policy (iii) Transit-Oriented Development (TOD) Policy Environmental Impact Assessments (EIA) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Geopolitical Dynamics Cultural Heritage Preservation Environmental Fragility 	State-led approach
6	Ladakh	Union Territory	NS	Centralized decision-making with local government influence	Multi-Scaled and Multi-Faceted Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Vision Documents Master Plans Destination Master Plans Leh Climate Action Plan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cultural and Architectural Heritage 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Geopolitical Dynamics Environmental Adaptation Strategies 	State-led approach with market-driven elements
7	Lakshadweep	Union Territory	SS	Centralized decision-making with localized implementation	Multi-Scaled Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Marine Spatial Planning (MSP) Integrated Island Management Plans (IIMP) Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Ecosystem-Based Development Control Regulations Land Use Zoning Cultural Landscape Preservation 	-	A combination of Market-led and State-led Approaches
8	Puducherry	Union Territory	SS	Elected U.T government with significant central oversight but slightly less direct control	Multi-Scaled Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> City Development Plan (CDP) Marine Spatial Planning (MSP) Tourism Master Plan Area-Based Development (ABD) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Heritage Preservation Sustainable Urban Design Principles 	-	A combination of Market-led and State-led Approaches

Table 4: Data synthesis of the States and Union territories - I © Authors

	Name	Regional Typology	Geographical Zone	Vertical Coordination and the Locus of Power in Spatial Planning	Planning Framework	Key Planning Tools	Main Elements of the Spatial Planning Discourse	Special cases	Type of system State/Market
INDIAN STATES									
14	Maharashtra	State	WS	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-tiered Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Regional Plans Metropolitan Plans and Development Plans <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Town Planning Schemes Local Area Plans (LAPs) Vision Documents 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Spatial Environmental Planning Program 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Special Economic Zone 	Strong market involvement under State-led approach
15	Manipur	State	NES	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Master Plans at different levels Development Control Regulations (DCR) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Three-Tiered Committee Vision Documents 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Public Consultation Mechanisms Environmental Impact Assessments (EIA) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Indigenous Peoples Planning Framework (IPPF) 	State-led approach
16	Meghalaya	State	NES	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled and Multi-Faceted Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Master Plans at different levels Sector-Specific Plans Community-Based Land Use Plans <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Village Resource Mapping 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Integration of Traditional Knowledge and Practices 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Autonomous District Councils (ADCs) Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) 	State-led approach with market-driven elements
17	Mizoram	State	NES	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Master Plans at different levels Sectoral Development plans Rural Development Plans Participatory Planning Approaches 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> New Land Use Policy (NLUP) Cultural Preservation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Autonomous District Councils (ADCs) 	State-led approach
18	Nagaland	State	NES	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Nagaland State Spatial Data Infrastructure (NSSDI) District Development Plans <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Urban Master Plans Village Resource Mapping 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Participatory Land Use Planning (PLUP) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cross-Sectoral Integration 	State-led approach
19	Orrisa	State	ES	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled and Multi-Faceted Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Comprehensive Development Plan (CDP) Master Plans at different levels Zonal Development Plans 5T framework 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Master Plans and Zonal Development Plans Land Transfer and Development Policies <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Public-Private Partnerships (PPP) Focus on Sustainable Urbanization Community Participation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Special Economic Zone 	State-led approach with market-driven elements
20	Punjab	State	NS	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled and Multi-Faceted Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Planning Guidelines/Policies Regional Plans Master Plans and Development Plans Panchayat Development Plans Sectoral Plans 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Public Participation and Community Engagement 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Special Economic Zone Special Area/New Town Planning Authorities 	State-led approach
21	Rajasthan	State	NS	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled and Multi-Faceted Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Rajasthan Master Plan 2031 Sub-Regional Plans City Master Plans Zonal Development Plans Village Development Plans Urban Improvement Trusts (UITs) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Policies (i) Slum Rehabilitation and Affordable Housing Policy (ii) Transferable Development Rights (TDR) Policy (iii) Rajasthan Urban Development Policy Water Management Strategies 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Special Economic Zone Heritage Conservation Plans Involvement of National Capital Region Planning Board (NCRPB) 	Primarily State-led with very little market-driven elements
22	Sikkim	State	NES	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled and Multi-Faceted Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sustainable Forest Management (SFM) Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) Urban Development & Housing Department Sikkim Integrated Urban Development Project Local Biodiversity Strategy and Action Plan (LBSAP) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Integration of Multiple Dimensions Decentralized Governance and Public Participation The Sikkim Integrated Urban Development Project Land Use Planning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Cultural Heritage Preservation 	State-led approach
23	Tamil Nadu	State	SS	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> State Planning Commission (SPC) Low Emissions Analysis Platform (LEAP) Tamil Nadu Combined Development and Building Rules (TNCDBR) Land Use Information System (LUIS) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Regional Planning Framework Zoning Regulations Tamil Nadu Town and Country Planning Act <ul style="list-style-type: none"> Decentralized Planning State Planning Commission (SPC) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Special Economic Zone 	State-led approach
24	Telangana	State	SS	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Telangana State Development Planning Society (TSDPS) Telangana Remote Sensing Applications Centre (TGRAC) Telangana Integrated Land Records Management System (TILRMS) Town Planning Act 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Master Planning and Urban Design Public Participation Mechanisms Policy Frameworks and Legislative Support <ul style="list-style-type: none"> TDR policies Empowering Panchayat Raj Institutions Spatially (EPRIS) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Special Economic Zone 	A combination of Market-led and State-led Approaches

Table 5: Data synthesis of the States and Union territories - 2 © Authors

	Name	Regional Typology	Geographical Zone	Vertical Coordination and the Locus of Power in Spatial Planning	Planning Framework	Key Planning Tools	Main Elements of the Spatial Planning Discourse	Special cases	Type of system State/Market
INDIAN STATES									
25	Tripura	State	NES	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled approach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Development Plans • Master Plans • City Development Plans (CDPs) • Town Planning Schemes • Participatory Planning Mechanisms 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stakeholder Consultations 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural Heritage Integration 	State-led Approach
26	Uttar Pradesh	State	CS	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled approach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Master Plans and Zonal Development Plans • Decentralized Planning Framework • Public Participation Mechanisms • Integrated Development Plans 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Master Planning Framework • Public Participation mechanism • Decentralized Governance • Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) • Regional Planning Initiatives 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Special Economic Zone • Involvement of National Capital Region Planning Board (NCRPB) 	State-led approach with market-driven elements
27	Uttarakhand	State	CS	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • State Spatial Data Infrastructure (SSDI) • Master Plans • Sustainable Development Goals (SDG) Localization Framework • Participatory Planning Approaches • Forest Resources Management Tools 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Integrated Planning Framework • Master Plans and Zoning Regulations • Disaster Risk Reduction • Community Participation • Policy Framework and Governance Initiatives • Tourism Development 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Uttarakhand Special Provisions for Urban Bodies Act 	Primarily State-led with some elements of Market-led approach
28	West Bengal	State	ES	Shared but primarily centered around State Government	Multi-Scaled Planning Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Land Use and Development Control Plans (LUDCP) • Microplanning • National Rural Development Management System (NRDMS) • Integrated Urban Development Projects 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • City Development Plans • Draft Development Plans • Participatory Planning Processes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Special Economic Zone 	State-led approach with market-driven elements
INDIAN UNION TERRITORIES									
1	Andaman and Nicobar Islands	Union Territory	SS	Centralized decision-making with localized implementation	Multi-Scaled Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Master Plan for Port Blair Planning Area (2030) • Land Use Planning Tools • Island Coastal Regulation Zone (ICRZ) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ecological Sensitivity • Protected Areas Management • Indigenous Rights 	-	A combination of Market-led and State-led Approaches
2	Chandigarh	Union Territory	NS	Centralized decision-making with localized implementation	Multi-Scaled and Multi-Faceted Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chandigarh Master Plan – 2031 • Zoning plans and Architectural Controls • Sectorial Layout and 7Vs Road Network 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Master Plan Principles (i) CIAM Theories (ii) Human Body Analogy 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Special Economic Zone • Integration of Informal Settlements 	Primarily State-led with very little elements of Market influence
3	Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Daman and Diu	Union Territory	WS	Centralized decision-making with localized implementation through DNHPDA	Multi-Scaled and Multi-Faceted Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • General Development Rules 2023 • Outline Development Plans (ODP) • Enforcement Mechanisms • Public Participation Mechanisms 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Urban-Rural integration • Tourism Development 	-	State-led approach
4	Delhi	Union Territory	CS	Elected U.T government with significant central oversight but slightly less direct control	Multi-Scaled Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • NCRPB Regional Plans • Master Plan of Delhi (MPD) • Zonal Plans • Local Area Plans 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Inclusive Urbanism • Integrated Long-Term Planning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Special Area Regulations • Involvement of National Capital Region Planning Board (NCRPB) • Unauthorized Colonies (UACs) 	State-led approach with market-driven elements
5	Jammu and Kashmir	Union Territory	NS	Elected U.T government with significant central oversight but slightly less direct control	Multi-Scaled and Multi-Faceted Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Master Plans • Zonal Plans • Development Codes • Town Planning Schemes 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Urban Planning Policies (i) Land Pooling Policy (LPP) (ii) Transfer of Development Rights (TDR) Policy (iii) Transit-Oriented Development (TOD) Policy • Environmental Impact Assessments (EIA) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Geopolitical Dynamics • Cultural Heritage Preservation • Environmental Fragility 	State-led approach
6	Ladakh	Union Territory	NS	Centralized decision-making with local government influence	Multi-Scaled and Multi-Faceted Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Vision Documents • Master Plans • Destination Master Plans • Leh Climate Action Plan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Cultural and Architectural Heritage 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Geopolitical Dynamics • Environmental Adaptation Strategies 	State-led approach with market-driven elements
7	Lakshadweep	Union Territory	SS	Centralized decision-making with localized implementation	Multi-Scaled Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Marine Spatial Planning (MSP) • Integrated Island Management Plans (IIMP) • Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ecosystem-Based Development Control Regulations • Land Use Zoning • Cultural Landscape Preservation 	-	A combination of Market-led and State-led Approaches
8	Puducherry	Union Territory	SS	Elected U.T government with significant central oversight but slightly less direct control	Multi-Scaled Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • City Development Plan (CDP) • Marine Spatial Planning (MSP) • Tourism Master Plan • Area-Based Development (ABD) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Heritage Preservation • Sustainable Urban Design Principles 	-	A combination of Market-led and State-led Approaches

Table 6: Data synthesis of the States and Union territories - 3 © Authors

Chapter 6

An Indian typology of spatial governance and planning systems

This chapter presents a comprehensive analysis of different planning approaches of Indian states and Union territories studied in the previous chapters. The ‘institutional technologies’ (Janin Rivolin, 2012) of Indian states and Union territories studied are compared in this chapter using some identified characteristics in order to group them and define some typologies.

Primarily based on the work of Berisha et al. (2021), it proposes a European typology of SGPSs, focusing on their capacity for public control over spatial development (Berisha, et al., 2021), an Indian typology of SGPSs is prepared and proposed in relation to their capacity for public control of spatial development. And also, as a secondary objective, using comparative analysis methodologies, public participation mechanisms in spatial planning among the Indian states are identified and grouped which could be used for purpose of future research and the policy implications proposals.

All the findings throughout the research are consolidated to define distinct typologies of SGPSs in India. With this, the chapter intends to provide a sense of how SGPSs function throughout India and provide a perspective for future territorial development that is more integrated and balanced.

6.1 Indian Systems with respect to the models of planning and of spatial development

The spatial planning and territorial governance in India follow a structured framework where government authorities regulate the land use and development through an organized system of planning and development tools. Following the key

principles, the specific instruments and procedures used across different states varies in each state reflecting India's diversity. Currently there are no major planning models across the country to reduce complexities of planning by streamlining planning processes and regulations even though there are attempts by individual states to reform the planning system for the same cause.

The contribution of "Spatial governance and planning systems in the public control of spatial development: a European typology" (Berisha, et al., 2021), provided the reference to this framework to analyze Indian states and Union territories with respect to the models of planning and of spatial development. The research on all the state and the union territories of India, supported by observation and evidences collected, throughout the previous chapters, provided a quantitative perception of the specimens with the comparative methodology.

In the framework of this section, the states and union territories studied were analyzed and compared carefully in order to attribute every system in the country a score according to the table 7 for the models of planning (X-Axis). The minimum score (1) and the maximum score (10) corresponds to the extreme ideal types of the conformative and performative models of spatial governance and planning which are explained in chapter 2. The analysis on the states and union territories, enabled to score and group the Indian SGPS to eight progressive degrees of relevance, which were further grouped into four progressive degrees between the ideal models of spatial planning. In the first progressive group (2-3), which is closer to the ideal conformative model of planning, the public authorities typically allocate land use and development rights through statutory master plans and development control regulations. In the second progressive group (4-5), public authorities allocate land use and development rights through binding master plans, while mechanisms for plan modifications, such as amendments or revisions, are commonly employed, (with sub group of 5 having more frequency in revisions compared to group of 4). In the third group (6-7), the public authorities allocate land use rights through statutory master plans and confer spatial development rights via detailed, binding development plans. The last group (8-9), which is closest to the performative model of planning, public authorities allocate land use and development rights through individualized, case-specific decisions, with a background of binding development plans.

The scores the SGPSs for the model of spatial development (Y-Axis), were attributed according to the table 8. The models of spatial development consists of three ideal benchmarks, an ideal state led model, where state has the control over

the spatial development decisions (3), an ideal market led model, where the market has control over the spatial development decisions (-3), and a model that has an ideal balance between the both (0).

X-Score	Description
1	<i>Ideal conformative model</i> (general binding plans decide any detailed transformation)
2 - 3	Public authorities typically allocate land use and development rights through statutory master plans and development control regulations
4 - 5	Public authorities allocate land use and development rights through binding master plans, while mechanisms for plan modifications, such as amendments or revisions, are commonly employed
6 - 7	Public authorities allocate land use rights through statutory master plans and confer spatial development rights via detailed, binding development plans along with mechanisms for plan modifications
8 - 9	In certain instances, public authorities allocate land use and development rights through individualized, case-specific decisions
10	<i>Ideal performative model</i> (plans are non-binding and transformations are decided case-by-case)

Table 7: Scores attributed to SGPSs according to respective positions between conformative / performative models of planning © Authors

Y-Score	Description
3	<i>Ideal state-led spatial development</i>
2	Spatial development is guided primarily by the state with very little elements of market
1	Spatial development is guided by the state with market driven elements
0	<i>Ideal balance between state-led and market-led spatial development</i>
-1	Spatial development is guided by the state and the market, with a prevalence of the market
-2	Spatial development is strongly guided by the market
-3	<i>Ideal market-led spatial development</i>

Table 8: Scores attributed to SGPSs according to respective positions between state-led / market-led models of spatial development © Authors

So similar to the X axis scores, the analysis on the states and union territories, enabled to score and group the Indian SGPSs into four progressive degrees between the ideal models of spatial development. The first group (2), has a system where the spatial development is guided primarily by the state with very little elements of market (with a further degree of 2.5, which is between the first group and the ideal state led model). The second group (1), belongs to a spatial development system which is guided primarily by the state with market driven elements, getting closer to an ideal balance between market and state. The third group (-1), has a system in which the spatial development is guided by the state and the market, with a

prevalence of the market. And the last group (-2), the spatial development is strongly guided by the market but with the presence of state. Nevertheless, because of the wide range of data analyzed and the difficulty to score them, intermediate scores (0.5) were also considered.

On the X axis of the graph, the spatial planning model, the minimum score of 1 which is the ideal conformance model and is not attributed to any of the Indian SGPSs. The SGPSs of 7 states consisting 4 southern states (Andhra Pradesh, Karnataka, Tamil Nadu and Telangana), 2 western states (Gujarat and Maharashtra), and 1 northern state (Haryana) along with 2 union territories one each from the northern (Chandigarh) and central (Delhi) regions have been attributed with the first group. They have the characteristics which are closer to a conformance model where the land use and development rights are allocated by the public authorities and there is an existence of strict development control regulations. There are several factors shaping up the SGPSs depending needs of the state. For example, these states include India's major urban regions (Mumbai, Delhi NCR, Hyderabad, Bangalore, Chennai, Ahmedabad etc.) that are rapidly urbanizing and demanding intense development and efficient management of land use which requires stricter spatial planning regulations. In case of southern states of Telangana, Andhra Pradesh and Tamil Nadu, there are binding regulations to safeguard ecological areas and river banks to protect them and also to prevent flood inundation. There are also binding regulations to protect agricultural lands which are one of the primary revenue streams of these states. In states of Gujarat, Maharashtra and Haryana, the authorities consider land as a finite resource and show a political interest to control the land markets and to find a balance in the private rights and public infrastructure needs through stricter binding plans. The second group includes 8 states, consisting of 3 central states (Madhya Pradesh, Chhattisgarh and Uttar Pradesh), 2 eastern states (Odisha and West Bengal), 2 northern states (Punjab and Rajasthan) and a southern state (Kerala) along with 2 union territories one each from the northern (Jammu and Kashmir) and southern (Puducherry) regions. In these SGPSs the governments and planning agencies prepare official master plans that legally define how land can be used and developed in a given area. Even though these plans are binding and the development must conform to them, they include formal procedures for amendments or revisions to accommodate changing requirements. For example, in the state of Kerala, the Kerala Town and Country Planning Act, 2016, defines the Master Plans and Detailed Town Planning Schemes as statutory and binding. Simultaneously, section 50 of the Act provides the opportunity for review, revision, variation, and

revocation of these plans by municipal bodies or government. Another example can be the Transferable Development Rights (TDR) of Madhya Pradesh. It facilitates the development of infrastructure projects by allowing landowners to sell their development rights from a particular parcel and use them elsewhere within the defined zones of the city (Manual, TDR). And in case of the states of Odisha and West Bengal, the tribal land rights challenge the binding spatial regulations.

The third group consists of 5 states containing one central state (Uttarakhand), 2 eastern states (Bihar and Jharkhand), one northern state (Himachal Pradesh) and a southern state (Goa) along with one union territory each from the northern (Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Daman and Diu) and southern (Andaman and Nicobar Islands) regions. Public authorities in these states and union territories allocate land use rights through statutory master plans and allow spatial development via binding detailed development plans. These plans are added with established procedures for updating and modifying them with requirements in certain cases. For example, similar to Madhya Pradesh, Uttarakhand Transferable Development Rights (TDR) Policy allow the transfer of development rights to a wider identified zone. In the state of Jharkhand, the Jharkhand Municipal Act, 2011, implemented reforms to devolve powers to Urban Local Bodies (ULBs) giving them the power to review and revise the building bye-laws and developments plans reflecting detailed development rights conferred through statutory plans. Another example in case of the union territory of Andaman and Nicobar Islands, ICRZ plans serve as binding development framework, allowing adaptive review and modification mechanisms of the development plans (ICRZ and IIMP) based on local inputs and evolving environmental conditions. Finally, the fourth group which is closest to the performative model of planning system, consists of 10 Indian SGPSs. The SGPSs of all of the 8 north eastern states (Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim and Tripura) and 2 union territories one each from the northern (Ladakh) and southern (Lakshadweep) regions have been attributed in this group. The northeastern states, the land is controlled by customary laws depending on the community or tribal ownership rather than individual private property rights. These Customary Land Tenure and Community Ownership varies significantly from tribe to tribe, requiring individualized decisions rather than uniform planning rules. Based on the traditional governance structures, land is allocated and development rights are given by village councils, chiefs or clan heads, not by statutory plans. For example, the tribes of Meghalaya, the Khasi and Jaintia tribes (land controlled by the syiem (chief)), and the Garo clan (nokma (village

head)) follows this customary laws. Similar are the case of Ao Nagas of Nagaland and the Kuki-Chin tribes of Manipur follows the jhum cultivation where the village chief owns all land and allots for agriculture. In Tripura also the land is classified into categories (jhum, nal, lunga, chora, bhati, and bastu) with rights managed by village authorities and traditional leaders. But in case of the union territories of Ladakh and Lakshadweep it is mainly due to the difficult terrain, scattered settlements, and sparse population density, the land use decisions are often made on a case-by-case basis, considering environmental sensitivity and local needs rather than standardized zoning.

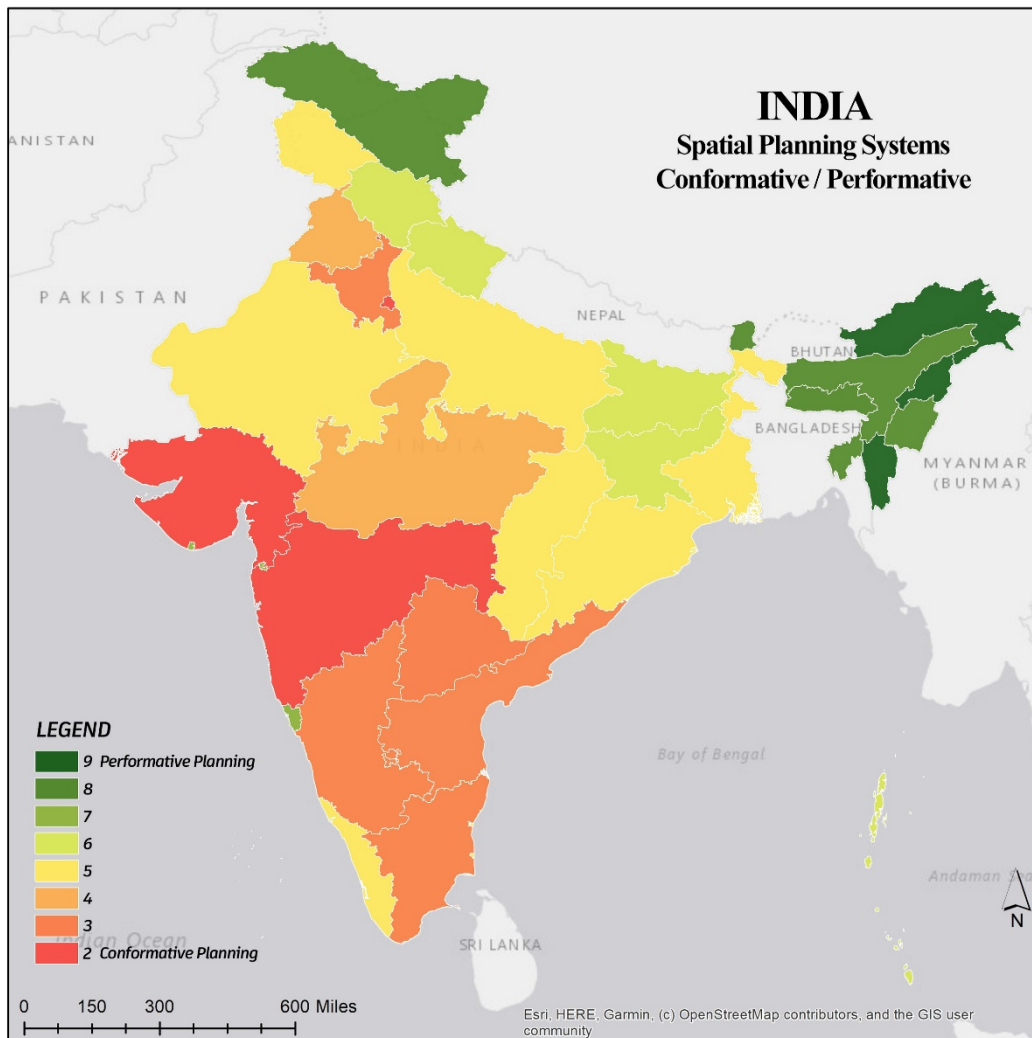


Figure 33: Map of Indian SGPSs with respect to the models of spatial planning (based on: Knieling, Janin Rivolin, Seixas, & Vladova, 2016) © Authors

The maximum score of 10, which is an ideal performative model is not attributed to any of the SGPSs. Figure 33 shows the attributes given to each SGPSs with respect to the models of spatial planning (Knieling, Janin Rivolin, Seixas, & Vladova, 2016) based on the above explained criteria.

On the Y axis of the graph, the spatial development model, the minimum score of -3 which is an ideal market-led spatial development is not attributed to any of the Indian SGPSs. Most of the Indian SGPSs are predominantly state-led rather than market-led. There is only one state, that was attributed with the first group, Gujarat, a western state. The SGPS of Gujarat stands out in India due to its strategic government policies and institutional innovations prioritizing private sector participation and market dynamics. The government's vision for port-led city development integrating economic objectives encouraged a market-led development in the state. The second group, states with spatial development that is guided by the state and the market, with a prevalence of the market, consists of 3 states, two from the southern (Goa and Telangana) and one from the western (Maharashtra) regions. These states ease land-use regulations through exemptions and public-private partnerships (PPP) encouraging private developers to invest in underutilized land parcels. Transfer of Development Rights (TDR) and Floor Space Index (FSI) bonuses of Maharashtra enable private developers to increase built-up areas in premium zones. The state of Telangana formed in 2014, aligns to market led development encouraging investments in industrial and IT sectors. All the three states have both a market led and a state led system, but the developments demand the control of the market above the state. In all the three states, there are parts where the market guides and parts where the state guides, but the trend now shows that the market has more control over the spatial development.

Contrastingly in the third group, where the spatial development is guided by the state with market driven elements, there are parts where the market guides and parts where the state guides the spatial development but the state has more control over the spatial development. In 15 Indian SGPSs across central (Chhattisgarh, Delhi, Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh), eastern (Bihar, Jharkhand, Odisha and West Bengal), north eastern (Meghalaya), northern (Haryana) and southern (Karnataka, Tamil Nadu, Andaman and Nicobar Islands, Puducherry, and Lakshadweep) regions of India spatial development seems to be driven by a certain prevalence of the state over the market.

All these states have a strong state led development approach but rapid urbanization and infrastructure deficits demanded strong market coordination to ensure equitable provision of services. Most of these states implemented market-friendly tools such as Transfer of Development Rights (TDR), Floor Space Index (FSI) incentives, Public-Private Partnerships (PPP), and land value capture mechanisms. The states of Tamil Nadu and Karnataka have been aggressively promoting industrial clusters, SEZs, and infrastructure development through a mix of state-led planning with market incorporation. The Union territories of Puducherry and Andaman and Nicobar Islands depend on state-led master plans supplemented by selective private sector involvement. The public authorities provide rules and regulations to make development fair and orderly, while at the same time welcoming investments and using private sector to boost efficiency and growth. This hybrid model reflects pragmatic governance balancing public welfare with economic development imperatives.

The last group which is closest to the ideal state-led spatial development, follows a spatial development in which the SGPSs are predominantly directed and regulated by the state, with a minimal involvement of market-driven forces. 17 SGPSs were attributed with this group, the highest in this categorization based on the models of spatial development (Berisha, et al., 2021). 7 out of 8 SGPSs from northeast (Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Manipur, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim and Tripura), 6 out of 7 northern (Chandigarh, Himachal Pradesh, Jammu and Kashmir, Ladakh, Punjab and Rajasthan), a central (Uttarakhand), 2 southern (Andhra Pradesh and Kerala) and a western (Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Daman and Diu) SGPSs follows this trend. These SGPSs heavily rely on state-led mechanisms for urbanization and development with the state acting as the primary actor to prevent unplanned growth and ensure equitable development. Depending on the region, the reason for this approach differs, from Socio-Political and Environmental Considerations to Land tenure systems of the north eastern state. Some of the notable examples are the following. Land pooling and land readjustment schemes of states of Rajasthan and Punjab, but are used in many of the states in this trend, where landowners surrender land to the government and receive developed plots in return, with the state using the remaining land for public infrastructure. Another one, the Land tenure systems based on customary or community ownership of the north eastern states limits the role of market forces in land development. These states also have lower urbanization pressures which in turn contributes to this trend. In case of Union territories in this group, they conform their development to planned land use, infrastructure standards, and environmental safeguards, leaving

little room for market-driven deviations. Some of these states, have fragile ecosystems, hilly terrains, or sensitive social structures that demands the state to have control over the development to balance the growth with environmental considerations and social equity. The states of Kerala and Uttarakhand, tends to limit unchecked market-led expansion and regulate land use tightly through state-led planning frameworks focusing on climate resilience and inclusive urbanization. So, in this group, the state's regulatory and planning role ensures orderly, equitable, and sustainable development with minimal reliance on market forces.

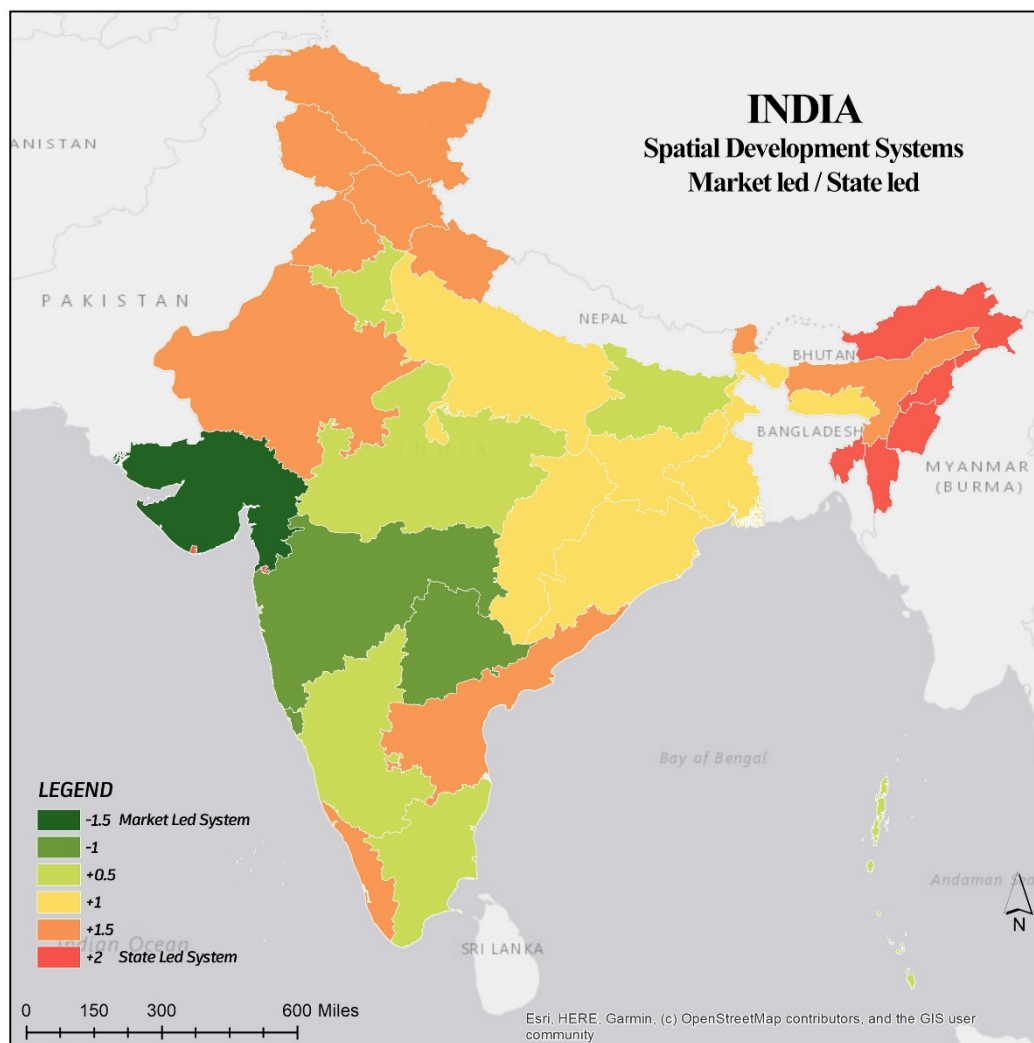


Figure 34: Map of Indian SGPSs with respect to the models of spatial development (based on: Berisha, et al., 2021) © Authors

The maximum score of 3, which is an ideal state led development is not attributed to any of the SGPSs. Figure 34 shows the attributes given to each SGPSs with respect to the models of spatial development (Berisha, et al., 2021) based on the above explained criteria.

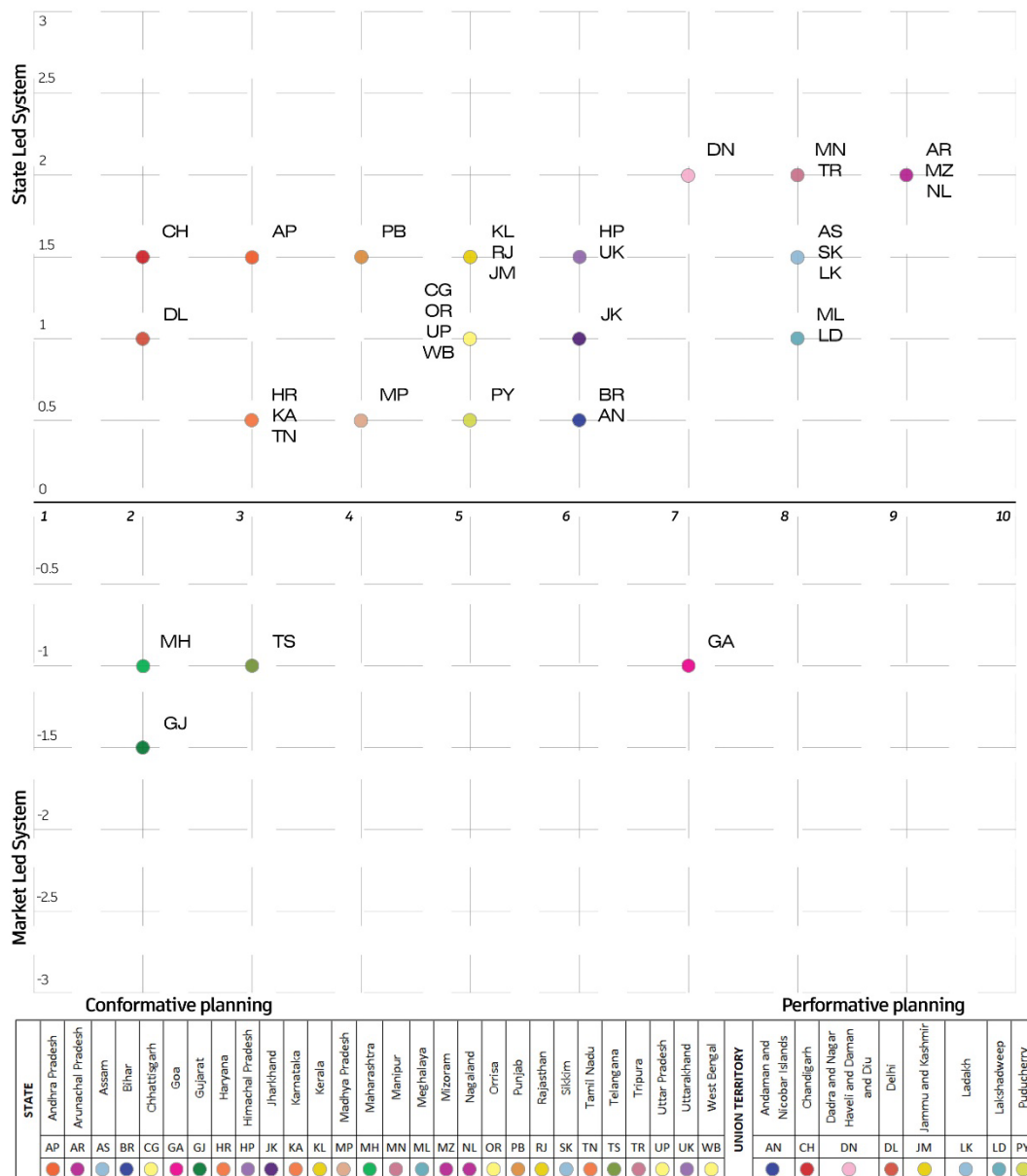


Figure 35: Positions of Indian SGPSs with respect to the models (X) of spatial planning and (Y) of spatial development © Authors

So, in accordance with the framework explained, the 36 Indian SGPSs which were studied, were positioned in an X-Y diagram as shown in figure 35.

6.2 An Indian Typology of spatial governance and planning systems

The framework presented in the previous sections, resulted in the identification of 7 types of SGPSs in India, with reference to the capacity for public control of spatial development explained in the main reference “Spatial governance and planning systems in the public control of spatial development: a European typology” (Berisha, et al., 2021). While acknowledging the unavoidable margins of uncertainty that come with such complex interpretation, a typology was developed in the form of clusters possessing similar traits in terms of their capacity for public control of spatial development. Figure 36 represents the typological clusters identified and designated as the final products of the respective models of spatial planning and development. And figure 37 shows these typologies mapped in the Indian national territory.

The identified typologies are as follows, out of which, two of the typologies where the characteristics of the SGPS were similar to the European typology were borrowed from the reference (Berisha, et al., 2021).

- i. **Type A** : Dirigiste Planning System (AP,CH,DL)
- ii. **Type B** : Conformative Market Influenced Planning System (HR,KA,TN)
- iii. **Type C** : Transitional State-Led Conformative-Neo Performative Planning System (CG,KL,MP,OR,PB,RJ,JM,PY,UP,WB)
- iv. **Type D** : Transitional State-Led Neo Performative-Performative Planning System (BR,HP,JK,UK,AN,DN)
- v. **Type E** : State-Led Performative Planning System (AR,AS,MN,ML,MZ,NL,SK,TR,LD,LK)
- vi. **Type F** : Proto Conformative Planning System (GJ,MH,TS) (Berisha, et al., 2021)
- vii. **Type G** : Market-Led Neo Performative Planning System (GA) (Berisha, et al., 2021)

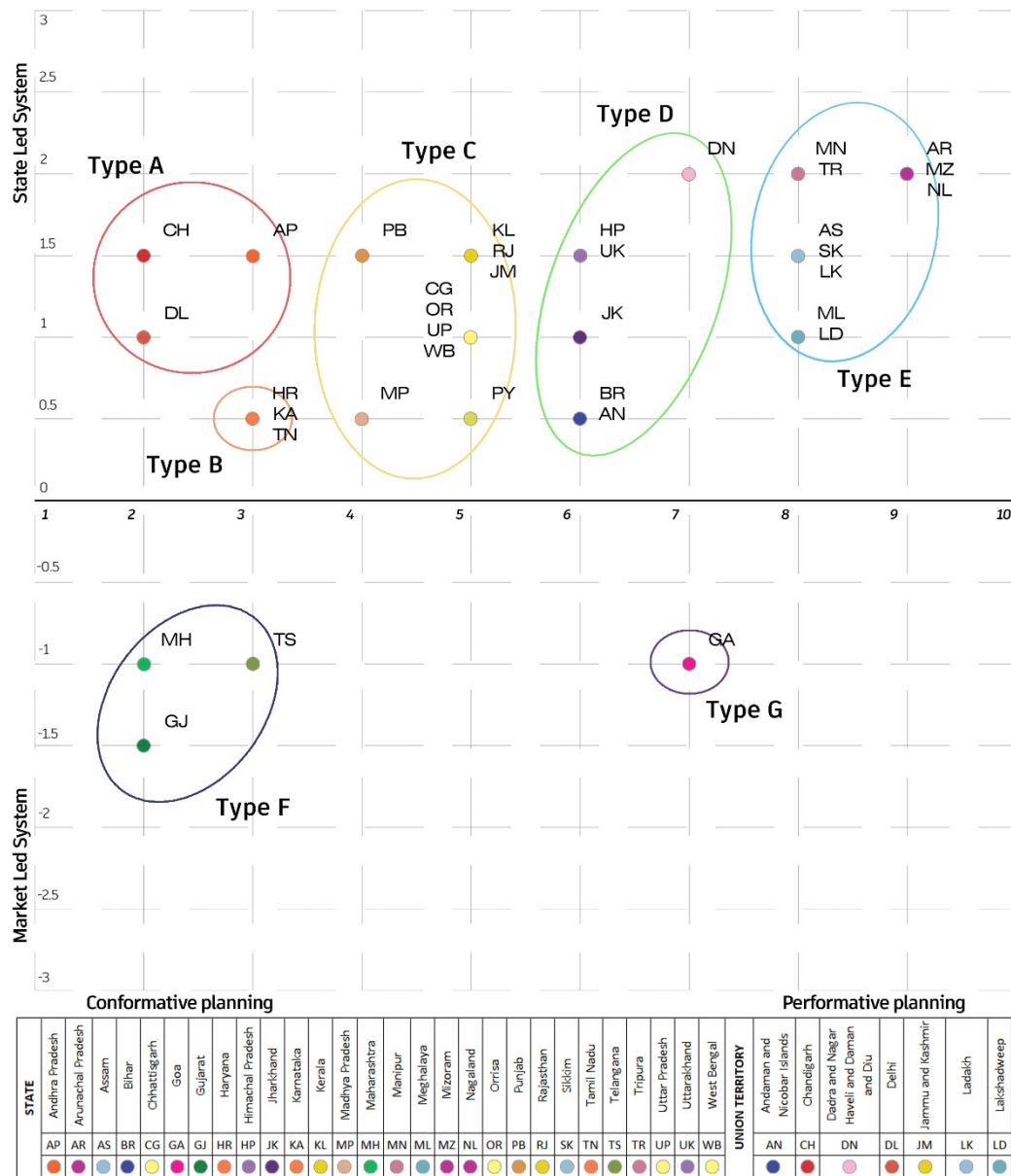
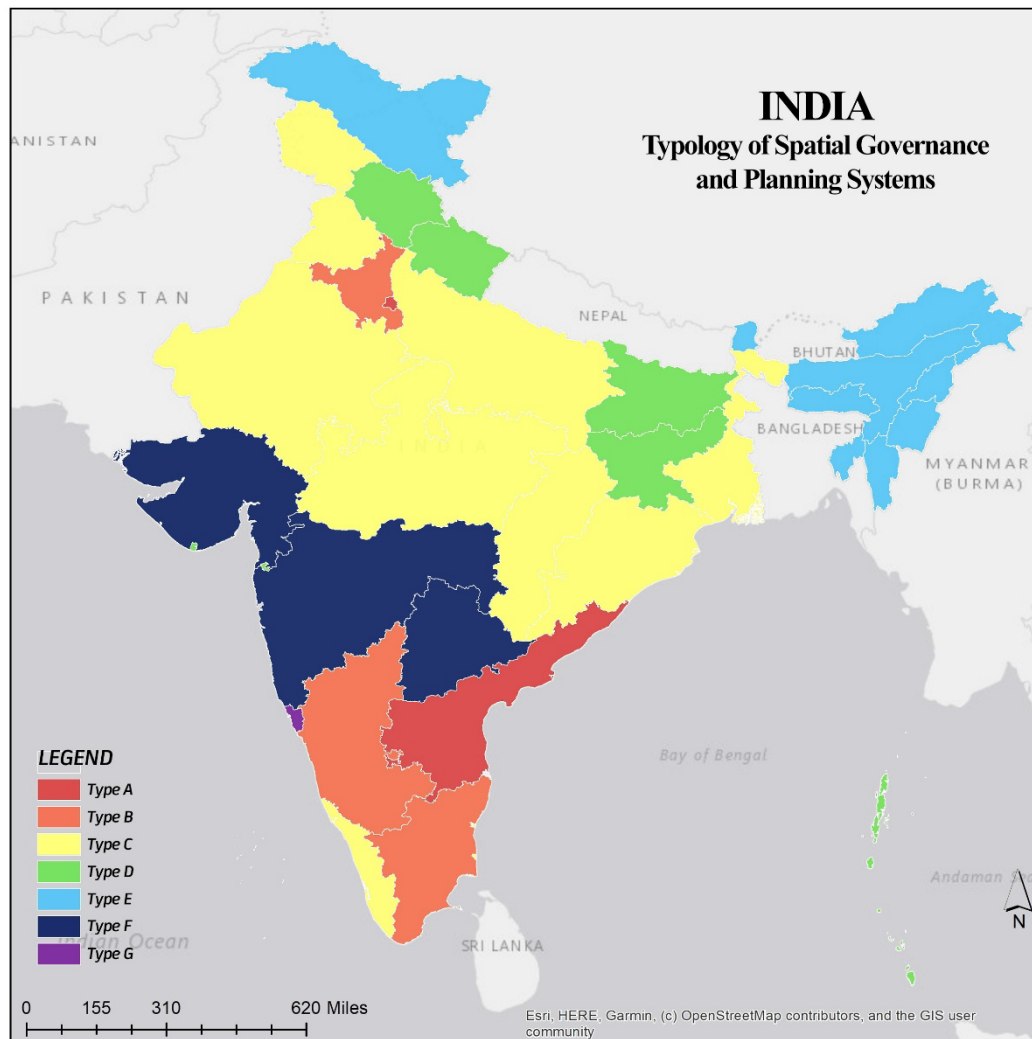


Figure 36: Typology of Indian SGPSs with respect to the capacity for public control of spatial development © Authors

The type A, which is defined as the **Dirigiste Planning System**, consists of three Indian SGPSs in which two are union territories (Chandigarh and Delhi) and one of the states (Andhra Pradesh). In all the three systems, the SGPSs follows a conformative system with the development mainly driven by the state even though there are very little market elements. The national capital region demands this

system to tackle its complex urban challenges and rapid population growth along with the necessity to control the region due its geographical and political importance.



Type A : Dirigiste Planning System (AP,CH,DL)
 Type B : Conformative Market Influenced Planning System (HR,KA,TN,UP,WB)
 Type C : Transitional State-Led Conformative-Neo Performative Planning System (CG,KL,MP,OR,PB,RJ,JM,PY)
 Type D : Transitional State-Led Neo Performative-Performative Planning System (BR,HP,JK,UK,AN,DN)
 Type E : State-Led Performative Planning System (AR,AS,MN,ML,MZ,NL,SK,TR,LD,LK)
 Type F : Proto Conformative Planning System (GJ,MH,TS)
 Type G : Market-Led Neo Performative Planning System (GA)

Figure 37: Map of Indian SGPSs with respect to the capacity for public control of spatial development © Authors

Meanwhile, Chandigarh, the modernist, planned city, requires this system to preserve its original vision of the city and prevent developments that could undermine the city's spatial coherence and heritage. In case of Andhra Pradesh, it currently needs a state leadership after the separation from Telangana and the loss of the capital city. It is required to rebuild its economy, a new capital (Amaravati) and a structured urban and infrastructure development.

Type B, the ***Conformative Market Influenced Planning System***, consists of 3 Indian SGPSs of Haryana, Karnataka and Tamil Nadu. These SGPSs has a conformative system with a spatial development is guided by the state with market driven elements. As mentioned during the analysis the states of Tamil Nadu and Karnataka have been aggressively promoting industrial clusters, SEZs, and infrastructure development, but these are done in control of the state and the rights are transferred through binding tools making the system close to the conformative model. And in case of Haryana, the authorities consider land as a finite resource and show a political interest to control the land markets and to find a balance in the private rights and public infrastructure needs through stricter binding plans. So, these systems being conformative and having a development under the state tends to encourage some markets forces to act under its control.

Type C, which is identified as the ***Transitional State-Led Conformative-Neo Performative Planning System***, consists of 10 SGPSs, the most along with type E, where the systems spatial development is mainly driven by the state, with different degrees of market's influence and the allocation of land use and development rights are through binding master plans, while mechanisms for plan modifications are commonly employed which is a characteristics of a system close to the neo performative models of spatial planning. 8 states from southern (Kerala), central (Chhattisgarh, Madhya Pradesh and Uttar Pradesh), northern (Odisha, Punjab and Rajasthan) and eastern (West Bengal) regions and the 2 union territories from the northern (Jammu and Kashmir) and southern (Puducherry) regions comes under this typology. The SGPSs of Pondicherry and Madhya Pradesh has the most influence of market led elements compared to the other SGPSs of the type. It is notable that the only state from the south to fall under this category is Kerala, where the conformative plans have shown limitations to the dynamic urban growth with dispersed settlements, pushing it towards a neo-performative approach allowing the state to adapt to local conditions and stakeholder inputs.

Type D, the ***Transitional State-Led Neo Performative-Performative Planning System***, which can be considered close to type C. This typology is also close to the

neo performative models of spatial planning but on the performative half of the graph rather than the conformative half in case of type C. This typology consists of 6 Indian SGPSs, where the spatial development is mainly driven by the state, with different degrees of market's influence and the public authorities in these states and union territories allocate land use rights through statutory master plans and allow spatial development via binding detailed development plans that are added with established procedures for updating and modifying them with requirements in certain cases. The states of Bihar, Himachal Pradesh, Jharkhand and Uttarakhand and the Union territories of Andaman and Nicobar Islands and Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Daman and Diu were clustered in this typology. The characteristics of these SGPSs were already discussed in the previous section which clearly defines the positioning of these systems in this typology. These systems tend to have more case of individualized allocation of land uses compared to the previous typologies making it a hybrid neo performative-performative model of spatial planning.

Type E, the *State-Led Performative Planning System*, includes all the 8 northeastern (Arunachal Pradesh, Assam, Manipur, Meghalaya, Mizoram, Nagaland, Sikkim and Tripura) states along 2 union territories (Lakshadweep and Ladakh). These SGPSs spatial development is guided primarily by the state with very little elements of market and they tend to allocate land use and development rights through individualized, case-specific decisions. The reason for this spatial planning approach in the northeast is the Customary Land Tenure and Community Ownership rules of the local communities and tribes. These systems heavily rely on state-led mechanisms for urbanization and development with the state acting as the primary actor to prevent unplanned growth and ensure equitable development.

The last two typologies, falling on the market led half of the X axis, consists of 4 Indian SGPSs, having characteristics similar to two European typologies from the “Spatial governance and planning systems in the public control of spatial development: a European typology” (Berisha, et al., 2021). They are:

Type F, the *Proto Conformative Planning System* (Berisha, et al., 2021), consisting of the states of Gujarat, Maharashtra and Telangana, has a system where the spatial development is guided by the state and the market, with a prevalence of the market in varying degrees and the spatial planning has characteristics which are closer to a conformative model where the land use and development rights are allocated by the public authorities and there is an existence of strict development control regulations. These system harnesses private sector dynamism through

instruments like TDR and land pooling within the conformance framework. This allows for both strong government oversight and market freedom enabling the maximum use of these economic powerhouses.

Type G, the *Market-Led Neo Performative Planning System*, where the spatial development is guided by the state and the market, with a prevalence of the latter and are 'neo-performative' in terms of allocating spatial development rights (i.e. the public authorities allocate land use rights through statutory master plans and confer spatial development rights via detailed, binding development plans along with mechanisms for plan modifications). Only one Indian SGPS, the state of Goa falls in this typology. In Goa, along with the binding general plans that pre-allocate land use rights, it responds to changing market demands and local condition. The market dominance in spatial development can be related to the tourism economy of the state welcoming private investment and partnerships. The neo-performative, market-led system provides the flexibility in challenging the state's unique development demands.

So, the typologies of spatial planning systems in India reflects a diverse and evolving landscape shaped by rapid urbanization and socio-economic complexities. Indian spatial planning often features strong state-led frameworks varying from conformance to performative systems that accommodates degrees of market influences and demands. The following chapter will discuss how Indian and European approaches to spatial planning are similar or different from each other using a comparative dimension. The comparison could offer interdisciplinary insight to help reform policies and the evolution of SGPSs in both regions.

6.3 Positioning Indian systems with respect to public participation in spatial development

The public participation in spatial planning in India involves an evolving legalized framework and authorities with diverse engagement tools, and a focus on empowering local stakeholder. The process has progressed from the limited, formalized objections and suggestions at town planning's early stages to having a structured engagement with multiple groups in current national and state policies. The public involvement mechanisms are a combination of statutory requirements, local institutions (committees, panchayat etc.) and identified participatory tools such as public hearings and consultations. Even though these mechanisms have evolved, the actual citizen participation is mostly limited to consultation rather than

shared decision-making in most of the Indian SGPSs. This section aims to attribute the Indian SGPSs based on the public participation mechanisms on a scale of 10 and use it for an analysis involving the identified typologies of Indian SGPSs with respect to the capacity for public control of spatial development. This attribution was carried out based on the existence, continuity, and efficiency of public participation mechanisms in spatial planning for Indian SGPSs.

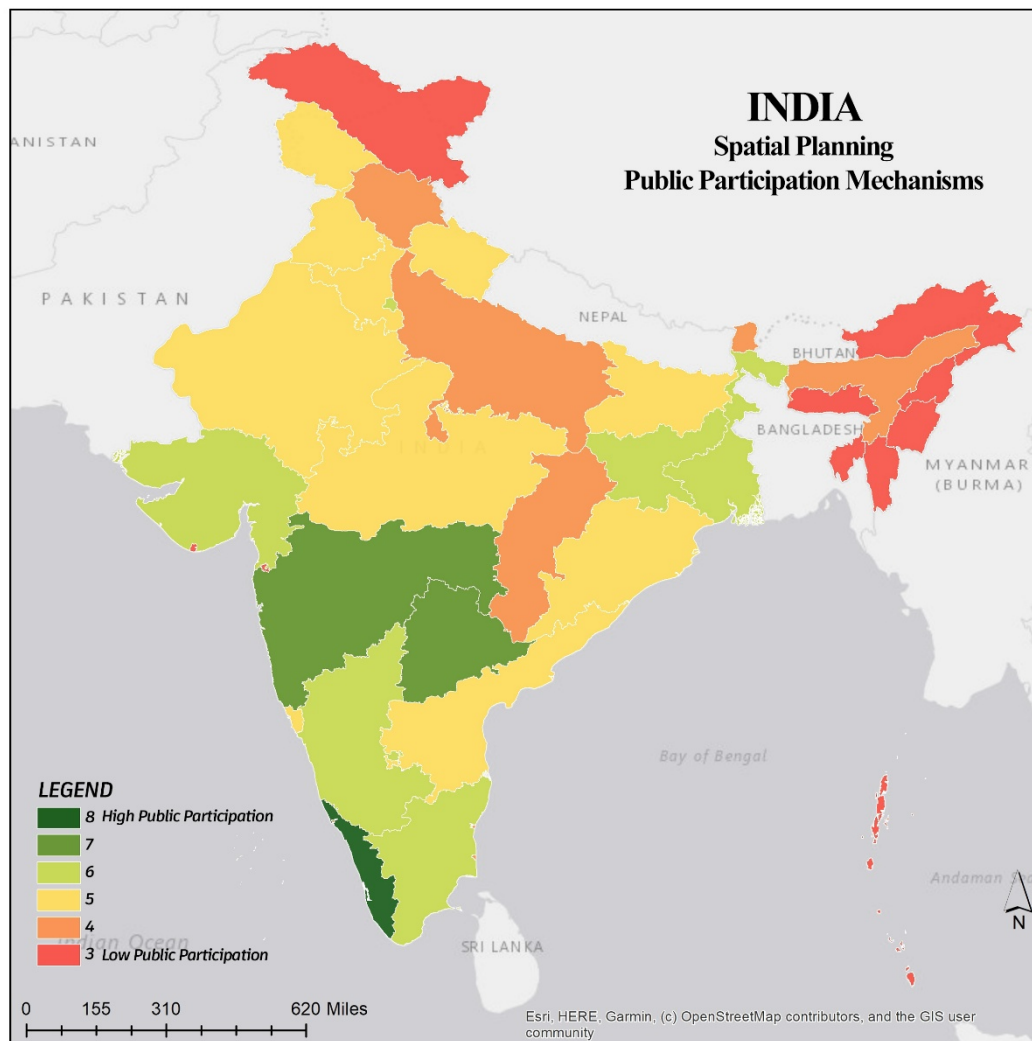


Figure 38: Map of Indian SGPSs with respect to Public Participation Mechanisms © Authors

The analysis of the Indian SGPSs performed in the previous chapters, along with some available data from the Praja Foundation’s Spatial Planning Index 2024,

by the Urban Design Research Institute (UDRI) (UDRI, 2024), and some broader policy and case study assessments enabled to attribute the systems with its public participation capabilities. These attributes are derived from comparative framework among the systems as of 2024, and should be revisited as the systems update these public engagement practices. The maximum score of 10 corresponds to a system that have incorporated an ideal model of public participation mechanisms where the citizens are involved in every spatial planning decisions. While the minimum score of 1, corresponds to a system where there are no public participation mechanisms to involve citizens in spatial planning decisions. The other scores very categorised as low (2,3&4), medium (5&6), and high (7,8&9) public participation mechanisms.

The figure 38, shows the scores of these system according to the above explained criteria. The analysis and attribution of the systems facilitated some insights of the Indian systems regarding the public participation in spatial planning. The south Indian state of Kerala leads the scoring having the most powerful and continuous, institutionalized, public participation mechanisms involving local organizations and NGOs. Kerala is recognized as the national leader in the process, the People's Plan Campaign, launched in 1996, explained in section 4.5.1 Kerala, India: "Kerala Model Development", institutionalized an approach that involves direct community engagement through open forums and deliberative processes, allowing local governments to create and carry out their own policies. Patricia Justino notes that Kerala's development program has generally provided "traditionally vulnerable groups, such as the lower castes, the women and the workers in the unorganised sector, with better capacity to access social entitlements and the mechanisms of power" (P. Justino, 2019). Kerala is followed by Maharashtra and Telangana, having structured institutionalized frameworks falling behind on the inclusive processes involving stakeholder. Delhi, Gujarat, Karnataka, Jharkhand, Tamil Nadu, and West Bengal have moderately strong frameworks but lacks proper decentralization and continuous engagement mechanisms for the community participations. The other systems of the country have very limited mechanisms, frequently limited to formalities and statutory notices, with minimal indicators of inclusive or active public involvement (UDRI, 2024).

The attributes were then used to compare it with the typologies of Indian SGPSs with respect to the capacity for public control of spatial development developed in the previous section to identify if there are any co relation between these typologies and the public participation mechanisms of the system. The figure 39 was prepared with the public participation mechanism scores on the Y axis and the typologies on

the X axis. Each typology was analyzed, to understand the trend of public participation mechanisms in each SGPSs in the respective typology.

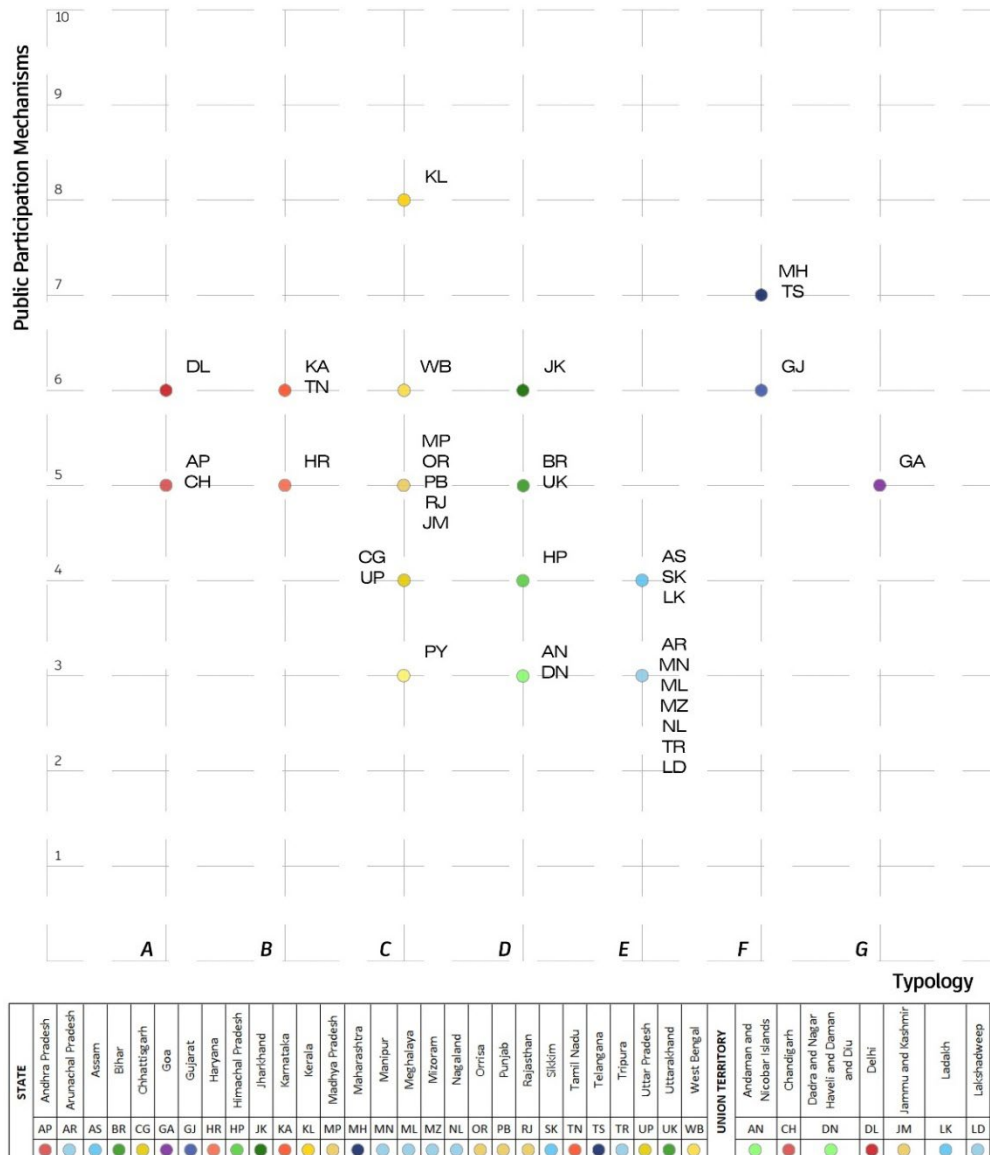


Figure 39: Positions of Indian SGPSs with respect to public participation mechanisms of the systems in Indian typologies of capacity for public control of spatial development © Authors

From the graph, **Type A: Dirigiste Planning System**, the SGPSs have medium public participation mechanisms, which can be related to the characteristics of the

typology which is a conformative system with the development mainly driven by the state even though there are very little market elements. The systems addresses the needs of the communities through mainly consultations but the public are not directly involved in the final decisions. The SGPSs in **Type B: Conformative Market Influenced Planning System** also follows a similar direction for the public participation mechanisms. It also falls under the medium category where the needs of the communities are addressed through consultations but are not directly involved in the decision-making process. The **Type C: Transitional State-Led Conformative-Neo Performative Planning System**, have SGPSs mostly having low and medium public participation mechanisms along with Kerala, the Indian SGPS, that has highest degree of public participation mechanisms. This system, along with the characteristics explained in the previous section, has varied degree of public participation mechanisms. The **Type D: Transitional State-Led Neo Performative-Performative Planning System** also follow a similar trend to type C, but without the presence of a system from the high degree of public participation mechanisms. This system also has a varied degrees of public participation mechanisms in their spatial planning.

Contrastingly, **Type E: State-Led Performative Planning System** have characteristics of having very limited or low public participation mechanisms in their systems. The north eastern states show these characteristics due to the Customary Land Tenure and Community Ownership rules of the local communities and tribes where the spatial planning decision are made mostly by the head of the communities and tribes. The **Type F: Proto Conformative Planning System** (Berisha, et al., 2021), which includes three systems (Maharashtra, Telangana and Gujarat) having high (MH and TS) and medium (GJ) degrees of public participation mechanisms. These SGPSs where the spatial planning has characteristics which are closer to a conformative model and the spatial development is guided by the state and the market, with a prevalence of the market in varying degrees tends to have a structured strong framework for public participation, but the inclusive processes involving stakeholders are still evolving. And the last typology **Type G: Market-Led Neo Performative Planning System** (Berisha, et al., 2021), with only one SGPS (Goa), was attributed with medium degree of public participation mechanisms.

This analysis showed that there are no strong relations between the typologies of Indian SGPSs with respect to the capacity for public control of spatial development and the public participation mechanisms. But these public participation mechanisms are still evolving and should be revisited as they update these public engagement practices.

Chapter 7

Conclusion and Future Research Perspectives

India is characterized by a variegated and heterogeneous spatial governance and planning landscape, featuring diverse institutional and administrative structures, regional priorities, challenges etc. This chapter intends to summarize the study carried out throughout this research, discussing mainly the results, limitations, conclusion and the future research perspectives.

7.1 Results

The study on the spatial planning systems of India, presented a comprehensive typology of existing Indian SGPSs. The research was carried out by analyzing and assessing the characteristics of each system according to some identified criteria. The analysis demonstrated a high degree of heterogeneity in spatial planning strategies because of varied geographic, socio-economic, cultural, and historical backgrounds of different areas of the country. The 74th Constitutional Amendment Act, 1992, was the landmark legislation that empowered the local bodies with the devolutions of spatial planning powers. This legislation played the key role in the formation of diverse planning systems inside the country shaped depending on the regional or local contexts. The study validated the coexistence of multiple planning paradigms within India's federal structure, influenced by the territorial priorities, the capacity of government body, the settlement patterns etc. It revealed most of the systems are in transitional phases where it keeps evolving addressing the emerging spatial patterns. The study categorizes the Indian spatial planning models into some typologies based on their characteristics of spatial development and spatial planning. The spatial planning characteristics of the systems range from systems that follow formal regulatory control to some systems experimenting with the community-driven spatial strategies. While the spatial development characteristics of the systems were categorized according to the degree of involvement of market

driven elements in the system. This classification is supported by empirical evidences collected during the analysis phase of each SGPS. The typology not only maps the current landscape it also suggests the possibility of transfer of approaches within the typology. The study also analyzed the public participatory mechanisms in spatial planning of each system to co-relate it with the proposed typologies. The study validated the presence of these mechanisms but the actual citizen participation is mostly limited to consultation rather than shared decision-making in most of the Indian SGPSs. The study suggested the requirement of tailored approaches in many Indian SGPSs with reforms to strengthen participatory planning approaches.

With the results, the proposed Indian typology of SGPSs with respect to the capacity for public control of spatial development can be compared with the existing European typology. Figure 40 shows the positions and typology of Indian and European SGPSs with respect to the capacity for public control of spatial development (Berisha, et al., 2021). It can be observed from the graphs that in case of spatial planning both Europe and India ranges from conformative to performative planning. In the case of Europe, this range is captured by different countries while India has this diversity within the country. The typological pattern, the European clusters exhibit relatively homogenous regional groupings compared to the Indian systems that exhibit heterogeneity on similar geographic areas. The orientations of the systems with respect to spatial development, most of the European countries clusters in the market led half with mainly systems close to balanced state-market approaches. In the Indian context the clusters are formed on the upper half of the graph with the systems ranging from strong state led approaches to a balanced state-market approaches. There are only very limited systems oriented towards a market led approach. The concentration of northeastern states of India in type D, with state led performative approach can be considered as a unique system that can't be observed in the European classification. It could be due to the special constitutional status, tribal governance systems, and the adaptive mechanisms adopted to address the ethnic diversity of the northeastern states.

The European typology consisting of 39 different countries shows more clustering consistency than the Indian typologies within a single federal system. It is mainly due to India's linguistic, cultural, economic, administrative etc. diversity. Most of the European planning models emphasize sustainability and quality of life demonstrating institutional stability whereas the Indian models are subjected to rapid urbanization and shortages of infrastructures demonstrating adaptive models based on the territorial challenges. Comparing with Europe, planning systems in

India are evolving and in transition, which is a projection of reforms, urbanization and regional aspirations.

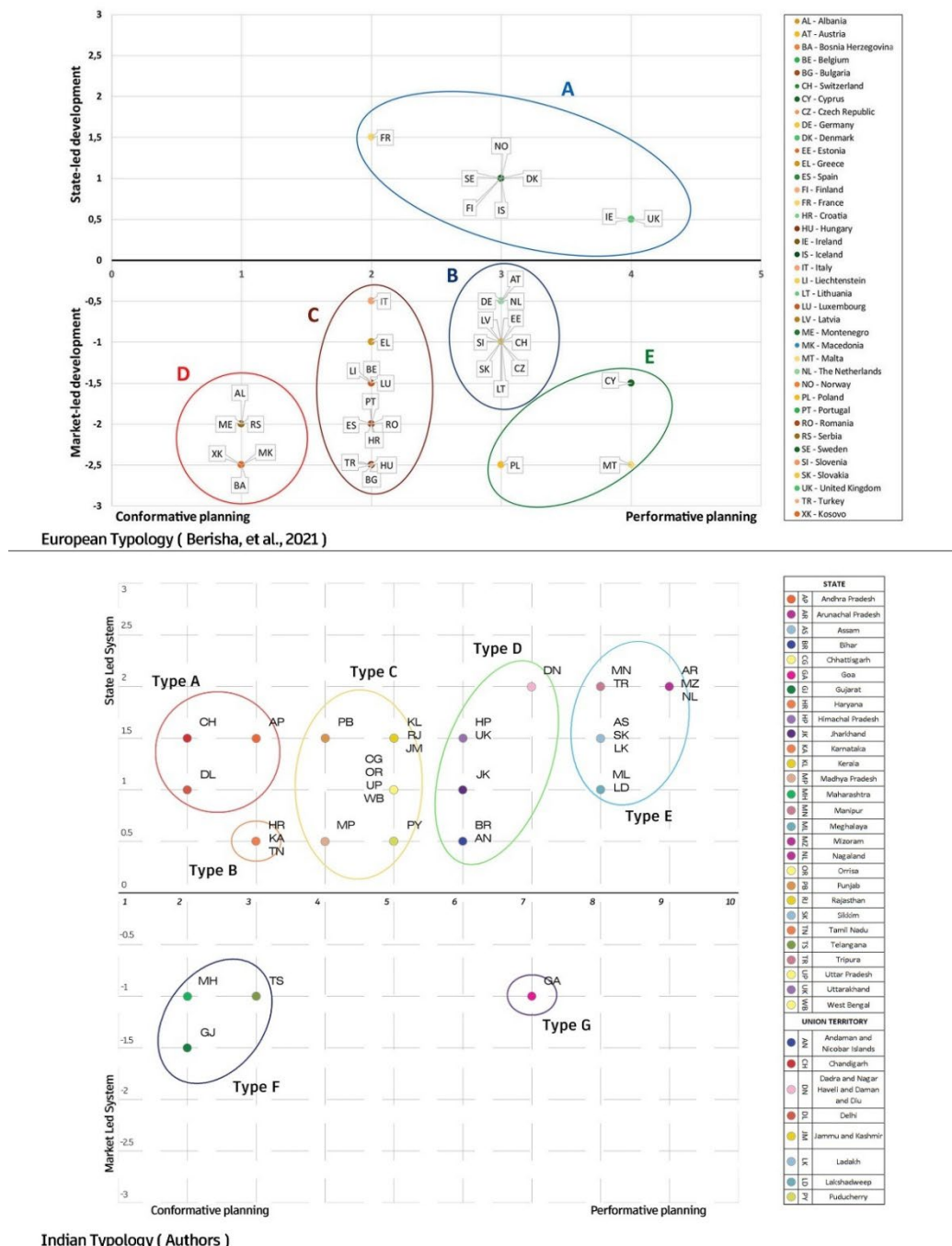


Figure 40: Typology of Indian and European SGPSs with respect to the capacity for public control of spatial development

7.2 Limitations

Before going to the conclusion and future perspectives, it is essential to provide the transparency about the study's scope and constraints, by identifying and acknowledging the limitations. This section aims to identify the potential weaknesses related to the research, helping to sum up the study and realistically frame its result and scope. The study is prone to a few limitations which are inherent to the fact that it is based on secondary desk data rather than primary fieldwork or interviews. The large territorial scale of India and the spatial planning complexity, as well as the informal or unplanned Indian spatial planning models, are some of the factors that restrict the level of analysis and research accuracy. The identified below are the main limitations that may affect the accuracy and comparability of the proposed typology of Indian SGPSs and the public participation mechanisms of the systems.

7.2.1 Scale and Complexity

The scale and complexity of India's spatial planning landscape, can be considered as one of the biggest limitations of this research. The research conducted on the spatial planning models of India, required the analysis of 36 distinct jurisdictions (states/UTs) with diverse spatial planning patterns from densely populated urban spaces to rural dominant regions of India. These patterns are shaped to be very heterogeneous by the diverse settlement hierarchies, land-use priorities, and institutional structure of each system in Indian spatial planning. From the participatory model of Kerala and the hybrid system (Public-Private) of Gujarat to the systems of the northeastern states that lacks strong binding plans shows the scale and complexity of Indian spatial planning systems. The systems follow distinct planning approaches, due to the uneven implementation of the 74th Constitutional Amendment act, resulting in complexity in comparisons among the systems. The spatial planning powers are distributed among various agencies existing at state, regional, and ULB levels, making the devolution of planning powers inconsistent across the Indian SGPSs. The absence of a centralized, accessible spatial planning data, and the mentioned inconsistencies in the devolution of spatial planning power in the systems, makes the data collection and analysis of the Indian SGPSs more complicated. These may result in inaccuracies in the analysis of each system which assisted in the proposed Indian typology of SGPSs.

7.2.2 Theoretical Ideals vs Practical Realities

Another major limitation of the research is due to the differences between the theoretical ideals and practical realities. The research primarily relies on secondary desk data more than primary fieldwork and interviews. This includes pre-existing data from various sources (government reports, academic journals, books, websites, or databases), that were researched and evaluated to get insights on the planning frameworks and institutional frameworks of the SGPSs. However, these captures the desired or ideal conceptions of spatial planning and not reflect on the implementation challenges that arise in practice or reality. The theoretical models and the available documents focus on formal planning institutions and frameworks of spatial planning. However, spatial planning and development in India are often shaped by informal settlements and many adaptations which are not documented in official data. Along with this, even though there were semi-structured interviews (including urban planners, policymakers, local government officials, and community representatives) on general spatial planning in India, the research lacks the understanding on how spatial planning instruments are interpreted, adapted, or resisted in practice for each SGPS. In case of the extent of coordination between different departments and levels of governments, the theoretical ideals often present an idealized, systematic approach, while the practical realities expose the gaps, inconsistencies, and fragmented coordination and implementation of these approaches. As a result, there is a risk that the study will formalize the structures of the theoretical ideals and overlook the practical problems and the informal adaptations that form spatial planning in India. Consequently, the typology developed might end up reflecting the intended models than the practical realities of spatial planning models of India. This outlines the need for future research that incorporates fieldwork and the views of the stakeholders to reduce this gap between the theoretical ideals and practical realities.

7.2.3 Overdependence on Desk Research Methodology

The limitations due the overdependence on desk research can be co-related to other limitations of the study. The authors cannot control the original data collection and management process of the desk research sources which could directly contribute to the accuracy of the results. This limitation contributes directly to the other limitations of the study, i.e. depending on the degree of dependency on desk research and incorporation of primary research methodologies, will provide to the degree of other limitations. The risk of potential biasness towards well-documented

systems because of the excessive reliance on desk research cannot be disregarded. India's vast territorial scale has diverse spatial planning systems that includes state systems with robust well documented planning frameworks, like state of Maharashtra and Kerala, and rural-dominated state systems without proper documented planning frameworks, like Bihar or Jharkhand, can prompt a bias towards the well-documented states. The states that have better institutional capacity on spatial planning are able to provide more standardized and complete datasets than the other states. This could force the researcher to rely on existing outdated sources leading to a biased comparison of SGPSs resulting in inaccuracy of the typologies.

The documented top-down planning frameworks fails to capture informal settlements and other informal spatial development practices which are significant in many Indian contexts. There are only very few existing studies conducted on these informal settlements. One important working paper by Mathew Idiculla "Urban Planning and Informal Livelihoods in India: An Analysis of Urban Planning Laws and Processes in Delhi and Bangalore" (Idiculla, M. 2022) describes these informal settlements and some other community-driven adaptations practiced in Delhi and Bangalore. These informal practices which are significant in many Indian contexts are rarely recorded. Along with this, there are some emerging models of spatial development which are not yet captured in the data. So, these hybrid and experimental approaches can be short reforms implemented in many Indian spatial contexts, are yet to be systematized in the documents data. This unavailability of some existing practices, results in inaccuracies in the analysis of each system. The dependence on documented policies and plans may limit the research and the proposed typology, to models, that reflects idealized overly formal models disregarding the practical informal nature of spatial planning in India.

Acknowledging the desk research, that enabled the broad coverage and comparative analysis of all the states and UTs in the study, it limits the depth and accuracy of the analysis and the proposed typology due to the above-mentioned limitations. By acknowledging the research limitations, it increases the transparency of the proposed typology, by accepting the scope and boundaries of the research. Meanwhile providing recommendation for any future research to perfect these typologies incorporating primary desk research methodologies along with desk research.

7.3 Conclusion

"There is a need for an integrated spatial and territorial planning that keeps the urban and rural areas at the regional level in focus. India's urban-rural regions are shaped by extreme disparities in development and are deprived of adequate basic services and housing. This underlines the need for a strong urban economy that supports the regional balance of the city and the country. Such a paradigm shift requires a systematic and consistent planning approach on all scales" (Matthaei, E., 2018)

The statement from "The Rurban Concept Spatial Planning Beyond Boundaries: The case of the GIZ Land Use Planning and Management Project in India" (Matthaei, E., 2018) explains the scenario of spatial planning in India. This defines the importance of the research that studied the existing model of Indian spatial planning and proposed a typology of spatial planning models by assessing the territorial governance and spatial planning structures across different states and union territories. The research identified different patterns, characteristics, and variations in spatial planning and governance approaches of different spatial planning models of India. By a combination of desk research, semi-structured interviews, and comparative frameworks, the researched aimed to answer a few identified questions from the initial phases of the research. Acknowledging the limitations from the previous section, the research was able to analyze the existing spatial planning models in the states and union territories of India. The analysis phase also answered the initial question on the impact of the 74th Constitutional Amendment Act and other decentralization actions on the Indian spatial planning models. The decentralization through the 74th amendment shaped the current spatial planning paradigm of India with the state and union territory model. The decentralization also resulted in smaller model of spatial planning and development at urban and rural scales. These models should further research in the future, for further detailed analyzes of the spatial planning model of India. The developed typology categorizes the models of spatial planning in India interpreting public control of spatial development of each system, helping in further researches related to the spatial planning domain of India.

Further, the research analyzed another important aspect in the spatial planning discipline, the public participation in the spatial planning processes of these models. Analyzing the existing models revealed the existence of these mechanism without a framework for the implementation in many systems with the mechanisms limited

to consultations. The research failed to establish a direct co relation of proposed typologies with these mechanisms.

The European and Indian typologies were compared to analyze any similarities and possibilities of cross learning. The European typologies appeared to be more clustered and the models exhibited a regional consistency while Indian model showed broader diversity in the planning and development approaches. This typological distinctiveness indicates that policy transfer or the cross learning between Europe and India needs to be context sensitive.

7.4 Future Research Perspective

The spatial planning in India is at crossroads where, researches and studies are necessities in view of the fast changing urbanization process along with its evolving governance systems and increasing rural-urban connectivity. The research conducted on existing Indian SGPSs to study and propose a typology and to analyze the public participation mechanisms of the systems, provides a foundation for understanding the heterogeneity of Indian spatial planning paradigm. The study highlights the significance of emerging questions in the under researched field of Indian spatial planning. There is an absolute necessity of researches to advance both in academic understanding and policy effectiveness in Indian spatial discipline. This section concludes this research outlining key areas for future research connected to the topics highlighted in this study and also the possible directions to overcome current fragmentation and inefficiencies across the country.

The research proposed an Indian typology of spatial planning models, referring to the European typology proposed by Berisha, et al., 2021, focusing on their capacity for public control over spatial development. The previous section 7.2 discussed the limitations of the research, and the proposed typologies. Studies that aim to reduce these limitations in the future can help to improve the study of Indian SGPSs, as well as the typology offered. Future researches on Indian spatial planning must focus on a mixed-approach methodologies in order to capture the emerging realities in spatial planning throughout India. The Indian spatial landscape is defined by high levels of heterogeneity at multiple scales (regional, state, urban-rural, etc.) with diverse social, cultural and economic factors. Improving the typologies will give a better framework to recognize, contrast, and explain the different SGPSs of federal India. This enables the understanding of the differences and complementarities at different level among the Indian models. The typologies can also be used as an analytical tool for inter-system policy and data transfers. The

typologies should be validated and perfected through primary research methodologies along with practical comparative case studies.

The future researches should explore the traditional rural-urban divide and assert integrated "rurban" (Matthaei, E., 2018) approaches across the country. The National Rurban Mission offers a rich comparative case studies within which the management of clusters of villages and peri-urban spaces in various states can be studied and the methods leading to balanced regional development can be evaluated and transferred across regions. (Matthaei, E., 2018). The significant variation in planning models across states and UTs demands the need of detailed analysis of each Indian SGPSs focusing on the system-specific planning laws and approaches, institutional frameworks, and implementation mechanisms. The effectiveness of practical adaptation of these approaches, frameworks and mechanisms should carefully analyzed and recorded, to enhance more inclusive and effective spatial planning. The devolution of spatial planning power to the local self-governing bodies creates local models of spatial planning addressing spatial inequalities and requirements at different scales. These models include urban-centric models, rural models, peri urban models and other models based on the settlement patterns of the local contexts. It is important to consider these models to understand the spatial dynamics of India. The proposed typologies can be further perfected analyzing these aspects of the Indian SGPSs. The interdisciplinary studies, through researches, are needed to provide the context sensitive and innovative solutions to the spatial planning challenges in India. These approaches promote the need to develop evidence-based policies to address the dynamic and multi-dimensional spatial planning scenarios in India. The lack of adoption of SDG goals within the local levels of the spatial planning in India is highly evident. The interdisciplinary approaches enable a better integration of the SDG indicators for a unified spatial planning framework.

The study and comparison of the existing public participatory mechanisms of each Indian spatial planning systems outlined the key directions for future researches within the evolving spatial dynamics of India. Indian systems consist of wide range of public participatory mechanisms like the constitutionally mandated Gram Sabhas in rural contexts and stakeholder consultations in the urban India. The future researches should focus on the effectiveness of these mechanisms as it varies widely. From the extents of influence of these mechanisms in the spatial planning decisions to inter system comparative studies with system having strong

participatory approaches indicates potential research areas in Indian spatial planning.

This research provided a classification of spatial planning and spatial development models of India, carefully analyzing of the existing spatial planning systems of Indian states and Union territories. The typology reflected the variation in the legal practices, institutional abilities and implementation methods of every system. The study of public participatory mechanisms of these systems showed the uneven and limited community involvement in practical realities of spatial planning in India. The approaches are often limited to public consultations rather than community involvement in decision making. The results have shown that adoption of participatory planning practices would have significant enhancements on the effectiveness and inclusivity of the spatial development in the country. Ultimately, the research suggests that the identified typologies can be used to further understand the SGPSs of India, incorporating primary research methodologies and also use them to analyze the possibilities of knowledge transfers within the typology.

The paper is concluded by drawing two citations highlighting the importance of this research.

"India's approach to spatial planning and development has undergone a significant transformation since the early 1990s, moving away from the Nehruvian, state-centered model toward a more complex interplay of democratic and market-oriented impulses that shape both existing and emergent settlements across the country" (Vidyarthi S., et al., 2017)

"Spatial planning in India is increasingly characterized by the tensions and negotiations between democratic aspirations for inclusivity and the pressures of market-driven development, resulting in a dynamic but often contested landscape of planning and governance" (Vidyarthi S., et al., 2017)

References

Chapters 1,2 and 3

Berisha, E., Cotella G., Janin Rivolin, U., Solly A. (2021) ‘Spatial Governance and Planning Systems in the Public Control of Spatial Development: A European Typology’

Berisha, E., Cotella, G., Janin Rivolin, U., & Solly, A. (2024). Spatial governance and planning systems vis-à-vis land consumption in Europe. *European Planning Studies*, 32(3), 553-568.

Commission of the European Communities – CEC. (1997): The EU Compendium of Spatial Planning Systems and Policies. Regional Development Studies. Luxembourg: Office for Official Publications of the European Communities.

Hossu, Constantina & da Silva Oliveira, Eduardo & Niță, Andreea. (2022). Streamline democratic values in planning systems: A study of participatory practices in European strategic spatial planning. *Habitat International*. 129C. 10.1016/j.habitatint.2022.102675.

Janin Rivolin U. (2012) ‘Planning Systems as Institutional Technologies: A Proposed Conceptualization and the Implications for Comparison’

Knieling, J., Janin Rivolin, U., Seixas, J., & Vladova, G. (2016). Crisis and urban change. Reflections, strategies, and approaches. In J. Knieling & F. Othengrafen (Eds.) *Cities in crisis. Socio-spatial impacts of the economic crisis in Southern European cities* (pp. 48–70). London: Routledge.

Nadin, V. & Stead, D. (2008a) European spatial planning systems, social models and learning, *disP*, 172(1), pp. 35–47.

Nadin, V. & Stead, D. (2008b) Characterising European spatial planning systems: review of approaches. Paper presented at the ARL Comparative Spatial Planning Research Meeting, November 13–15, Delft, The Netherlands.

Nadin, V. & Stead, D. (2009) Planning cultures between models of society and planning systems, in: J. Knieling & F. Othengrafen (Eds) *Planning Cultures in Europe: Decoding Cultural Phenomena in Urban and Regional Planning*, pp. 283–300 (Farnham, Surrey: Ashgate).

Chapter 4

Chetan Vaidya (2019) *Reforming Urban Governance in India: Issues and Way Forward*.

Civil Society Report. (2020), Spotlight on Sustainable development, Decentralised Governance – Kerala state, India Box 1.2, Dawn.

Department of Local Self-Government. LSGD Kerala. (n.d.). <https://lsgkerala.gov.in/ml>

Govindan Parayil. (1996), The 'Kerala model' of development: development and sustainability in the third World, *Third World Quarterly*, Vol 17, No 5, p 941-957

Janelle Plummer & Sean de Cleene (1999, November), Working paper no. 106, Community Learning Information and Communication: Case Study Kerala People's Planning Campaign Trivandrum, GHK Research and Training.

Kerala Institute of Local Administration (KILA). Kerala Institute of Local Administration (KILA) | Local Self Government Department. (n.d.). <https://lsgkerala.gov.in/en/kerala-institute-of-local-administration-kila->

Kham Khan Suan Hausing, March 2021, Autonomy and the territorial management of ethnic conflicts in Northeast India, p 120-143

Local Governance: 4. Local Planning, 2016, Kerala Institute of Local Administration (K.I.L.A), Thrissur, Kerala

R., Anju & Sadanandan, Resmi & Vijayakumar, K. & Kutty, V. & Soman, Biju & Ravindran, R. & Varma, R. (2023). Decentralisation, health and Sustainable Development Goal 3. *Public Health Action*. 13. 51-56. 10.5588/pha.22.0034.

Richard W. Franke, 2008, *The Kerala Experiment in Democratic Decentralization: An Overview for Bolivarian Activists*

The Kerala Public Health Act, 2023 (2023, November). Government Of Kerala, Law (Legislation-H) Department. https://prsindia.org/files/bills_acts/acts_states/kerala/2023/actno.28of2023kerala.pdf

Véron, R., 2001, Decentralized corruption or corrupt decentralization? Community monitoring of poverty-alleviation schemes in Eastern India. *World Development*, 29(4),p 601-617

Chapter 5

Act No.3, The Arunachal Pradesh Urban and Country Planning Act, 2007, The Arunachal Pradesh Extraordinary Gazette, No. 18, Vol. XV, Naharlagun, Friday, March 14, 2008

Administration of Union Territory of Ladakh. (n.d.). Housing and Urban Development: The Administration of Union Territory of Ladakh: India. The Administration of Union Territory of Ladakh | India. <https://ladakh.gov.in/housing-and-urban-development/>

Administration of UT of Lakshadweep. (2018). Integrated Island Management Plan. National Informatics Centre. <https://lakshadweep.gov.in/document/integrated-island-management-plan/>

AIILSG, All India Institute of Local Self Government, Formulation of GIS based master plan of Tawang town, Arunachal Pradesh Inception Report, January, 2019

Asher, Mukul. (2016). Public- Private Partnership (PPP) For Upliftment of Village Economy*.

Asian Infrastructure Investment Bank. (2021). Andhra Pradesh Rural Roads Connectivity Project: Environmental and Social Management Framework. <https://www.aiib.org/en/projects/details/2021/approved/India-Andhra-Pradesh-Rural-Roads-Connectivity-Project.html>

Bhubaneswar Development Authority. (n.d.). Comprehensive Development Plan (CDP) and Master Plan. Government of Odisha. <https://www.bda.gov.in/bda/departments/planning-department>

Bhuyan, M., Deka, N., & Saikia, A. (2024). Micro-spatial flood risk assessment in Nagaon district, Assam (India) using GIS-based multi-criteria decision analysis (MCDA) and analytical hierarchy process (AHP). *Risk Analysis*, 44, 817–832.

Bihar, G. O. I. (n.d.). Bihar Urban Local Body. Indian kanoon. <https://indiankanoon.org/doc/146574651/>

Centre for Policy Research. (2021). Urban governance and slum development in Karnataka. <https://cprindia.org/research/reports/urban-governance-and-slum-development-karnataka>

Chandigarh master plan 2031 (n.d.). Chandigarh, The official website of the Chandigarh Administration. <https://chandigarh.gov.in/chandigarh-master-plan-2031>

Chapter-18 of Development Plan for Manali planning area, Town And Country Planning Department Himachal Pradesh No. /HIM/TP/PJT/AZR/Manali/2011/Vol-I/6801-7000

Delhi Development Authority (2014) Ministry of urban Development, GOI Draft Master Plan for Delhi 2021 [online] http://www.dda.org.in/planning/draft_master_plans.htm

Department of Planning & Development (D.P.D), Jharkhand (n.d.). <https://www.jharkhand.gov.in/planning>

Desai & Roy. *Critical Asian Studies* (2016) Vol. 48, Issue 1, pp. 1-26. doi: 10.1080/14672715.2015.1120402

Dewal, S. & Centre for Civil Society. (October,2022). Master Plan for Delhi: 2021 A Critical analysis. In CCS Working Paper No. 160. <https://ccs.in/sites/default/files/2022-10/Master%20Plan%20of%20Delhi%2C%202021%20A%20critical%20analysis.pdf>

Firoz C, D. M. (2020). A Systemic Approach To Spatial Planning Of Local Self-Government Institutions. *Local Democracy and Spatial Planning in Kerala*.

Firoz, M., Cyriac, S., & Krishnan, S. (2024). Sustainable spatial planning for the rural–urban continuum settlements of Kerala, India. In *Sustainable Spatial*

Planning for the Rural–Urban Continuum Settlements of Kerala, India. Taylor & Francis.

Forest and Environment Department, (n.d.). Secretary, Forest and Environment Department Government of Sikkim. Forest and Environment Department | Government of Sikkim. <http://sikkimforest.gov.in/>

Ganj, D. (2021). State Action Plan on Climate Change. Andaman and Nicobar Islands.

Government of Andhra Pradesh, Municipal Administration and Urban Development Department. (2017). G.O.Ms.No.119, Dt. 28-03-2017: Andhra Pradesh Building Rules, 2017 [Government Order]. <https://crda.ap.gov.in/apcrdacommuni/media/apcrdadocs/developmentpromotion/Andhra%20Pradesh%20G.O.Ms.No.119,Dt.28-03-2017-AP%20Building%20Rules-2017.pdf>

Government of Andhra Pradesh. (2020). Andhra Pradesh Decentralisation and Inclusive Development of All Regions Act, 2020 (Act No. 14 of 2020). Retrieved June 23, 2025, from <https://aplegislature.org/documents/acts/2020/Act%20No.%2014%20of%202020.pdf>

Government of Bihar. (n.d.). <https://state.bihar.gov.in/planning/CitizenHome.html>

Government of India. (1962). The Constitution (Fourteenth Amendment) Act, 1962. <https://www.india.gov.in/my-government/constitution-india/amendments/constitution-india-fourteenth-amendment-act-1962>

Government of Karnataka (2020). Karnataka Land Reforms (Amendment) Ordinance, 2020. Karnataka Gazette. <https://karnataka.gov.in/gazette>

Government of Odisha Legislative Assembly. (n.d.). Council of Ministers. <https://odishaassembly.nic.in/flip.aspx>

Government of Odisha. (2025, June 20). Odisha Vision 2036 & 2047: Executive Summary [PDF]. https://vision.odisha.gov.in/website/pdf/Odisha_Vision_Document_Excutive_Summary_English.pdf

Govt. of Bihar. (2013, April 12). Bihar Urban Local Body (Community Participation) Rules, 2013. State of Bihar - Act. <https://indiankanoon.org/doc/146574651/>

Gowd, Kiran. (2020). Network governance, food security, and public service delivery: Functioning of Chhattisgarh's Centralized Online Real-time Electronic Public Distribution System (CORE-PDS). Journal of Public Affairs. 22. 10.1002/pa.25495.1.4

Gupta, N. D. (2002). Local Governance Institutions in Two District of Madhya Pradesh, India. Natural Resource Institute.

GUPTA, R. G. (2010). Policy Planning and Governance of Bihar. <https://www.rgplan.com/bihar/Bihar-explore.pdf>

GUPTA, R. G. (2021). Urban Development Policy and Strategies for Sikkim. <https://rgplan.com/presentation/SIKKIM.pdf>

H.S. Sancheti, Policy of Transferable Development Rights in Rajasthan, Institute of Town Planners, India Journal 8 - 2, 45 - 52, April - June 2011

India and Norway to conduct marine spatial planning in Lakshadweep, Puducherry. (2021, March 3). News vibes of India. <https://newsvibesofindia.com/india-norway-to-conduct-marine-spatial-planning-in-lakshadweep-puducherry/>

Indigenous Peoples Planning Framework (IPPF) for Manipur Urban Road, Drainage And Asset Management Improvement Project (MURDAMIP)

Institute for Transportation and Development Policy (ITDP). (2025, March 18). Jharkhand's Vision 2026 set to embrace transit-oriented development. ITDP India. <https://itdp.in/jharkhands-vision-2026-set-to-embrace-transit-oriented-development/>

Jagasheth, U. ((2024, February 10). Tamil Nadu Unveiling Economic Dynamism and Future Potential [Conference Presentation]. Credai TN).

Jamatia, K. (2024, August 1). Tipra Motha supremo Bubagra Pradyot Kishore Debbarma calls for clarity and self-reliance in Sixth Schedule Councils. AGULI. <https://aguli.in/index.php/2024/07/31/tipra-motha-supremo-bubagra-pradyot-kishore-debbarma-calls-for-clarity-and-self-reliance-in-sixth-schedule-councils/>

Jharkhand State Team, (2022). Land Governance Assessment Framework, Jharkhand (2nd ed.). National University of Study and Research in Law.

Kapoor, N.; Bansal, Vijay Kr. (2021) : Spatial suitability assessment for planning infrastructure facilities at site level in hill areas, Journal of Urban Management, ISSN 2226-5856, Elsevier, Amsterdam, Vol. 10, Iss. 1, pp. 27-45

Kerala State Planning Board. (2014). Kerala Perspective Plan 2030. Government of Kerala. Retrieved from <https://spb.kerala.gov.in/economic-review/ER2015/Chapter9/chapter09.html>

Koshy, M. (2020). Handling Compounded Uncertainty in Spatial Planning and Humanitarian Action in Unexpected Floods in Wayanad, Kerala: Towards a Contextualized Contingency Planning Approach.

Krishnankutty, M. (2021). Regional Plan for Goa 2021. Indian Council for Research on International Economic Relations. https://icrier.org/pdf/malini_krishnankutty.pdf

Krishne, G. (2018). Urban Governance and Master Plan of Bangalore City. Institute of Town Planners, India Journal

Manipur vision 2030, Leaving no-one behind: achieving inclusive growth and the sustainable development goals, Planning Department Government Of Manipur, 2019

Manual, LAP, Manual for Preparation of Local Area Plans, Gujarat Real Estate Regulatory Authority, Government of Gujarat, February 2022

Manual, TDR, Transferable Development Rights, Guidelines For Implementation of TDR Tool for Achieving Urban Infrastructure Transition in India, NITI Aayog, Govt. Of India, September, 2020

Meghalaya, A Report on Five Decades of Development, The Institute for Human Development New Delhi, for the Government of Meghalaya Shillong 2023

Ministry of Earth Sciences, Government of India. (2023, February). Puducherry launches India's first Marine Spatial Planning framework under Indo-Norway Integrated Ocean Initiative [Press release]. National Centre for Coastal Research. <https://www.nccr.gov.in/sites/default/files/th14feb23.pdf>

Ministry of Environment, Forest and Climate Change, Government of India. (2015). Integrated Island Management Plan (IIMP) of Lakshadweep Island [Government notification]. https://environmentclearance.nic.in/writereaddata/CRZ_Notifications/CZMP/18.pdf

Ministry of Home Affairs, Government of India. (n.d.). Union Territories. https://mha.gov.in/division_of_union_territories

Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs, Government of India. (n.d.). Puducherry Smart City. Smart Cities Mission. <https://smartcities.gov.in/content/innerpage/puducherry.php>

Ministry of Rural Development, Government of India. (2019). Good practices in Rurban clusters in Tamil Nadu [PDF]

Mishra A. K. Urban master plans in Rajasthan, India: the case of Alwar management research and practice vol. 4 issue 1 (2012) pp: 31-44

Misra, J. P. (2011). Evaluation of the Community Health Volunteer (Mitani) Programme. Raipur, European Union State Partnership programme, Chhattisgarh

Mitra, Saptarshi & Santra, Abhijit. (2020). Monitoring Urban Expansion and Land Use/Land Cover Changes of Agartala City, Tripura, India. Journal of Regional Science. 52. 123-136.

Municipal Administration and Urban Development Department, D. (2020, August 12). Telangana Municipal Development Project [Conference].

Narwal, Karam & Ahlawat, Ashok & Kumar, Manoj. (2017). Stakeholders' Perception of Performance Indicators (PIs) of Public Private Partnership (PPP) Projects in Haryana. X. 4-11.

National Capital Region Planning Board (NCRPB), (n.d.). <https://ncrpb.nic.in/>

National Institute of Urban Affairs. (2020). Decentralization and urban governance reforms in Karnataka. <https://niua.org/sites/default/files/2020-12/Urban-Governance-Karnataka.pdf>

NITI Aayog. (2021, September). *Reforms in urban planning capacity in India*. NITI AAYOG, India. <https://www.niti.gov.in/sites/default/files/2021-09/UrbanPlanningCapacity-in-India-16092021.pdf>

Pattnaik, J. K., & Panda, C. K. (2023). The Materiality of Space: Infrastructuring the Border Space in Arunachal Pradesh. *India Quarterly*, 79(3), 387-404

Perspective Planning Division (PPD) (2021), Department of Planning, Uttar Pradesh. Best Practices, Atmnirbhar, Volume 1. In Govt. Of U.P. Department of Planning, Uttar Pradesh, India. <https://planning.up.nic.in/Go/SDG/English%20BB-.pdf>

PIB Delhi, (2024). Ministry of Finance, Govt. of India, Press release, 2024, Government of India and ADB sign \$200 million loan to upgrade water supply, sanitation, urban mobility, and other urban services in Uttarakhand. <https://www.pib.gov.in/PressReleasePage.aspx?PRID=2071145#:~:text=The%20Government%20of%20India%20and,Livability%20Improvement%20Project%20were%20Ms.>

Pilot on Formulation of Local Area Plan (LAP) & Town Planning Scheme (TPS) For Selected Cities, Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs, Government of India, Govt. Of India, July,2018

Planning Commission, Government of India. (2012). Puducherry development report. https://planningcommission.gov.in/reports/sereport/ser/ser_puducherry.pdf

Poetree Homes. (2024, March 26). Understanding property laws and regulations in Goa. <https://poetreehomes.com/blogs/legal-know-how-understanding-property-laws-and-regulations-in-go>

Pooja Kumari and Ishfaq Hussain Malik, Urban Expansion and its impact on Land Use Land Cover Change-A study of Amritsar, Punjab, *Annals of R.S.C.B.*, ISSN:1583-6258, Vol. 25, Issue 4, 2021, Pages. 12267 – 12275

Prasad, Rohini & Sarkar, Sukanta. (2014). Autonomous District Councils in Mizoram- Needs and Government Initiatives, Autonomous District Council and Tribal Welfare Edition: 1, Dr. Sukanta Sarkar, and Dr. Suman Kalyan Chaudhury Chapter: 17

- Propiinn. (2024, December 21). The Role of Land Conversion Laws in Telangana. <https://propiinn.com/2024/12/21/the-role-of-land-conversion-laws-in-telangana/>
- PRS Legislative Research. (2014). The Andhra Pradesh Reorganisation Bill, 2014 (Telangana). <https://prsindia.org/billtrack/the-andhra-pradesh-reorganisation-bill-2014-telangana>
- Rajagopal, Arvind, 'Special political zone: urban planning, spatial segregation and the infrastructure of violence in Ahmedabad', South Asian History and Culture, Vol. 1, No. 4, p 529-556, 2010
- Ramthanpuia Pachuau, Mizoram Planning Board: Composition, Functions and Challenges, The Mizoram University Journal of Humanities & Social Sciences (MZUJHSS), Vol. VI, Issue 1, June 2020
- Ratnani, D. (2023). Uttar Pradesh, Vikaspedia. Egovernance.vikaspedia.in. <https://egovernance.vikaspedia.in/viewcontent/e-governance/states/uttar-pradesh?lgn=en>
- Roy, Aniruddha & Tripathi, Anil & Dkhar, D.s. (2021). Participatory Rural Appraisal (PRA) - A Tool for Assessment of Location Specific Problems and Possible Solutions
- Roy, U. K., Ganguly, M., & National Town & Country Planners Congress. (2009). Integration of Top down & Bottom-up approach in Urban and Regional Planning: West Bengal Experience of Draft Development Plans (DDP) and beyond. National Town & Country Planners Congress, 1–8. <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/228461846>
- Sandeep Kumar and Ramandeep Kaur, Trends and Problems of Urbanization in Punjab, 2018 JETIR December 2018, Volume 5, Issue 12
- Sanjeev Vidyarthi (2018): Spatial plans in post-liberalization India: Who's making the plans for fast-growing Indian urban regions?, Journal of Urban Affairs, DOI:10.1080/07352166.2018.1527658
- Scheduled Tribes and Other Traditional Forest Dwellers (Recognition of Forest Rights) Act, 2006 and related schemes in Odisha. (n.d.). Scheduled Tribes & Scheduled Castes Development Department, Government of Odisha. Retrieved

June 25, 2025, from <https://stsc.odisha.gov.in/acts-policies-guidelines/scheduled-tribes-and-other-traditional-forest-dwellers>

Shivakumar, C. (2022, January 12). Five decades on, regional planning gets a boost in TN. The Indian Express.

Siddiqui, S., Chohan, S. (2015), Legal Response to Institutionalizing Participatory Land Use Planning in Nagaland, United Nations Development Programme, New Delhi, India.

Smart Cities Mission. (n.d.). Puducherry Smart City. Ministry of Housing and Urban Affairs, Government of India. <https://smartcities.gov.in/content/innerpage/puducherry.php>

Spatial planning: Ministry of Panchayati Raj: India. Ministry Of Panchayati Raj | India. (n.d.). <https://panchayat.gov.in/en/spatial-planning-new/>

State Level Committee. (2010). Final Report RPG 2021 – Release One. Town & Country Planning Department, Government of Goa. Retrieved from <https://tcp.goa.gov.in/wp-content/uploads/2017/Regional-Plan-report-1-2-3/RPG21RELEASE1final.pdf>

Sundararagavan, S., Kumar, V. S., Anirudh, S., & Jairaj, B. (2022). Integration of an energy modeling tool in a state's power Sector Planning Process—A Tamil Nadu case study. World Resource Institute. <https://doi.org/10.46830/wriwp.22.00013>

Swadesh Darshan 2.0 Scheme Destination Master Plan, Strategy and Action Plan Iteration – I For Bundi (Keshoraipatan), Rajasthan July 2023

Thanga, James. (2020). Land Use Policies In The State Of Mizoram, Journal of Economic & Social Development, Vol. - XVI, No. 1 & 2, 2020

The Manipur Town And Country Planning Act, 1975 (Manipur Act Of 1975), State Town And Country Planning Board, Manipur

The Nagaland Town and Country Planning Act, 1966, Amendments appended: 2 of 1975, 1 of 1982, 8 of 2000, Government of Nagaland

The New Indian Express. (2023, March 12). Work begins on master plan for 62 towns across Odisha.

<https://www.newindianexpress.com/states/odisha/2023/Mar/12/work-begins-on-master-plan-for-62-towns-across-odisha-2555340.html>

The Tripura Urban Planning and Development Act, 2018, Government of Tripura

Town and Country Planning Organization (T.C.P.O). (2015, January). Urban And Regional Development Plans Formulation And Implementation (URDPFI) guidelines. Ministry of Urban Development, Government of India. [https://mohua.gov.in/upload/uploadfiles/files/URDPFI%20Guidelines%20IIA-IIB\(3\).pdf](https://mohua.gov.in/upload/uploadfiles/files/URDPFI%20Guidelines%20IIA-IIB(3).pdf)

Town and Country Planning: UT of Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Daman and Diu. (n.d.). India. UT of Dadra and Nagar Haveli and Daman and Diu | India. <https://ddd.gov.in/town-and-country-planning/>

UNDP, United Nations Development Programme, (2024). Support to centre for public policy & good governance in Uttarakhand | united nations development programme. United Nations Development Programme. <https://www.undp.org/india/projects/support-centre-public-policy-good-governance-uttarakhand>

Uttar Pradesh Expressways Industrial Development Authority (UPEIDA) (2020, August). Development of ‘Ganga Expressway’ From Meerut to Prayagraj, an Access Controlled Greenfield Expressway Project. https://upeida.up.gov.in/site/writereaddata/siteContent/Pkg-3_260820.pdf

Voyants in consortium with IDECK. (2023, July). Destination Master Plan, Strategy and Action Plan Leh – Master Plan Iteration 01. Swadesh Darshan 2.0, Ministry of Tourism. <https://sd2.tourism.gov.in/DocumentRepoFiles/MasterPlan/MPa9850c6f-babb-45b0-838a-d65996ecd802.pdf>

World Bank & Centre for Good Governance. (2014). Land Governance Assessment Framework: Andhra Pradesh Final Report. <https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/810521504861092776/pdf/119606-WP-P095390-PUBLIC-7-9-2017-10-3-43-AndraPradeshFinalReport.pdf>

World Bank. (2004). Andhra Pradesh Urban Reforms and Municipal Services Project: Social and Environmental Assessment Management Framework (SEAMF)

(Report No. E1038). World Bank.
<https://documents1.worldbank.org/curated/en/278831468752724904/pdf/e10380v01-01.pdf>

Yadav, S. (2020). DELHI - THE SUFFERING CITY. In Politecnico di Milano, *Politecnico Di Milano* [Thesis].

Chapter 6

Patricia Justino, “Two Faces of Participation: the Story of Kerala,” Poverty Research Unit at Sussex, PRUS Working Paper no. 19 (2003): 6, accessed March 17, 2019,
<https://www.sussex.ac.uk/webteam/gateway/file.php?name=wp19.pdf&site=260>

Sharma, B., Sharma, S., Kumar, A., Kumar, N., & Pipralia, S. (2022). Analysis of Urban Development Plan formulation in India with special reference to public participation. *International Review for Spatial Planning and Sustainable Development*, 10(4), 192–208. https://doi.org/10.14246/irspsd.10.4_192

UDRI (Mumbai, India), (2024), Progressing Urban Development: UDRI’s Spatial Planning Index 2024, (ISBN: 978-93-81444-22-1), Urban Design Research Institute (UDRI), Mumbai, India.
https://praja.org/praja_docs/praja_downloads/UDRIs%20Spatial%20Planning%20Index_2024.pdf

Chapter 7

Directorate of Town Planning & Valuation, Maharashtra State,
<https://dtp.maharashtra.gov.in/en/maharashtra-map>

Gopinath, D. (2010). Emerging spatial planning systems in the global south: case study of India. (Working Paper; No. 2010-001). Town and Regional Planning, School of Social and Environmental Sciences, University of Dundee

Government of Kerala, State Planning board , <http://www.spb.kerala.gov.in/>

Government of Kerala, Local Self-Government Department,
<https://lsgkerala.gov.in/en>

Idiculla, Mathew. 2022. Urban Planning and Informal Livelihoods in India: An Analysis of Urban Planning Laws and Processes in Delhi and Bangalore. WIEGO Working Paper No. 44. Manchester, UK: WIEGO

LUPM. 2017. "Spatial Planning beyond boundaries". Documentation: Dialogue on a Regional Planning approach at the District level. New Delhi, GIZ.

Matthaei, E. (2018) The Rurban Concept Spatial Planning Beyond Boundaries: The case of the GIZ Land Use Planning and Management Project in India, GIZ, Bonn.

Spatial Environmental Planning Program, Maharashtra,
<https://mpcb.gov.in/miscellaneous-topics-information/sepp>

The Planning Department, Govt. of Manipur, India
<https://planningmanipur.gov.in/en/>

Vidyarthi S., Mathur S. & Agrawal S. (2017). Understanding India's New Approach to Spatial Planning and Development: A Salient Shift? , New Delhi: Oxford University Press.