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ACCESS THE ROLE THAT GEOGRAPHERS HAVE PLAYED IN POST WAR PUBLIC POLICY MAKING IN THE UNITED KINGDOM.

SIMON BATTERBURY.

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REFERENCES.
1. Introduction.

"But one might say, geographers yes, geography no..."
Harre 1974.

The role of geography in public policy making is not well defined. Its contribution has varied in the post-war period both in relation to its development as a discipline, but also to its changing concern with relevance and its level of interaction with the processes of the state. It is argued that, given the history of contributions to public policy and their relative success or failure, it is individuals rather than the discipline as a whole who have had the most to contribute; if not in terms of theory, then purely in terms of action and deeds. Before moving to a discussion of actual contributions which geographers have made, it is important to outline both the general relationship between science and public policy, and also to try to define public policy itself.

2 Public Policy

"Public policy is the way a controlling majority or a controlling minority thinks before group action takes place."
Achermann 1962.

Public policy relates to the provision and planning of public goods and services. Much of the money spent by local government is channelled into services for the community. Services have a spatial aspect; in most cases distance from a service facility reduces the benefit received from that service. The range of public services offered by local authorities is wide; perhaps the classification of most use to geographers is that of Massam working in 1975 (see Bardon 1981); his typology embraces not only everyday services, but also the planning function, an area in which geography has arguably had the greatest impact as a discipline in post-war years. Aymy (1969) argues that the still expanding range of functions being assigned to local authorities provides a rationale for the use of analytical techniques, and academic methods in the field. Bardon (1981) points to perhaps the two major considerations for a public policy; it needs to be (i) adequate - in terms of territorial coverage, and (ii) needs of the
A Division of Services (Massam 1975)

- Services with flows from many to few destinations. E.g. hospitals, schools.
- Flows from few origins to many destinations. Each journey involves a central point. E.g. police stations, fire stations.
- Services with flows from few origins to many destinations and in which each journey involves many destinations. E.g. refuse collection, mail delivery.
- Where a few central points provide areaally based services. E.g. planning districts, pollution control districts.

Community, and (2) Effective - is its desired input or effect actually achieved? Monitoring therefore is of importance.

Given this, then, that public policy encompasses a wide range of functions and affects the community through the actions of government, how should academic or theoretical knowledge be applied to the real world to aid the study of policy?

3. SCIENCE AND PUBLIC POLICY

"If you want knowledge you must take part in the practice of changing reality. If you want to know the taste of a pear you must change the pear by eating it yourself."

Chairman Mao

The 'relevance debate' is a common one in academic disciplines. It is felt by many that work based purely on theory and abstract notions achieves little; without reference to reality and real-world problems.

"I know from past experience that it is easy to fill one's time in an office by delving deeper and deeper into fascinating problems which have..."
Less and less application to the functions of the department for which one works.

Professor W.A. Holford 1950 (In green 1950)

Carter (1975) balances two important viewpoints: a discipline with no record to real-world situations is value free, and as such is of no real relevance. Yet the existence of value-dependent social science implies that academic learning, as such, disappears and only 'propaganda' remains. In the case of Britain, relevant social research could rarely be described purely as propaganda in the literal sense of the word; rarely does it approach problems from an overtly political or radical viewpoint (yet of course exceptions do exist). Carter forwards two fields in which social science can make valid contributions to public policy: firstly to attack what is termed 'injustice', and secondly to create a demand for the elimination of exploitation—a step towards some millenial state, 'whether it be in another world in the New Jerusalem, or on Earth in the City of Marx'! Indeed, moving on to the views of Marxists, we see another approach to the complex relationship between science and policy for a Marxist society must be viewed and analysed as a totality—in effect this means no aspect of public policy should be ignored by the practitioners. In Weberian sociology (Sorens 1982) we see the state likened to a political market place in which the supply of policies comes to reflect the pattern of expressed effective demand from different consumers. Obviously, these policies need careful co-ordination, which is when social scientists may have a part to play.

The final argument for intervention in public policy is illustrated by Dear and Clark (1978). They feel a reappraisal of policy is needed for three main reasons:

1. The continual growth of the public sector means the state has an ever increasing impact on local neighbourhoods.
   (This has to be offset, in Britain at least, against the attacks in local and central Government services imposed in recent years.)

2. Little systematic understanding of the functions of the state exist. State intervention in a given area is seen as a neglected field.
3. Actual assumptions about state processes may be invalid and need reviewing. (see diagram 2)

**THE ROLE OF THE STATE (O'Carroll 1978)**

**5 ALTERNATIVE VIEWS**

1. Supplier of public or social goods
2. Regulator and facilitator of market-place operations
3. Social engineer – intervening in the economy to obtain its own policy objectives
4. Arbitrator between competing groups and classes
5. Agent in society – the economy on behalf of some ruling elite

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**4. THE NEED FOR GEOGRAPHY IN PUBLIC POLICY**

"To geographers and social scientists, any observed spatial configuration, be it in the hills and valleys of an area, a river, a shoreline, a grid of land uses, a set of urban plans, a flow of vehicles, a scatter of migrants or a combination of such features, has always been considered as a phenomenon worthy of explanation."

Høyerstrand 1970.

"The time for self-indulgent theorizing is past – it is time we got our hands dirty."

Sanders 1982.

As White (1962) points out, the contributions which geographic thought can make to the advancement of society are "relatively few, simple and powerful". The range of disagreement among authors outlining suitable topics for geographical analysis is shown in Appendix One. The material
contained here is by no means comprehensive, and is liable
to misinterpretation due to its general nature; yet two points
emerge from the analysis. Firstly, disagreement is fairly great
among authors - this is self-evident. Secondly, changes in
attitudes can be identified over time - a general concern to
better society, shown by white, Ackermann, and Hall has
given way to concern with more specific issues - Smith and
welfare geography, broken and planning.

Having identified the academic contribution to the
analysis of public policy and related issues, it is important to
draw some conclusions from this work. My view is as
follows.

Bearing in mind the 'paradigm shift' syndrome which
bypasses the discipline of geography, with its move to quantification
in the sixties, and the way this is gradually being replaced
by concern with the environment and its protection, it
appears to me that the only way geography as a whole can
be of consistent, relevant and lasting benefit to policy problems
is by confining itself to specific issues and problems. Hence
we return again to the concept of geographers yes, geography
no. Consistently, since the 1930s and before, it has
been individuals; whether inside or outside the main
stream of geographical thought at the time; who have
had the most valid contributions to make to decision
making in the field. Generalised discussions of the current
academic work being performed, or of the state and its
effect on individuals and neighbourhoods can be seen
as purely academic in a literal sense. If one accepts the
idea that relevance should be the prime concern of
geographers, then it follows that relevance can only be
achieved by reference to specific case studies and
methodologies for attacking problems. This viewpoint
conflicts with that of Sewell and Foster (1970) in particular;
they identify a need for analysis of multiple rather
than single facts or situations, general policy rather than
that dedicated to case studies. It is telling that
they conclude that

"geographers have attempted to solve problems
that have had, and still do have, social significance.
It is also true however, that in most countries little
of their work has resulted in changes in public
policy."

Many others have felt that geographer’s training in spatial
systems and analysis is beneficial. Yet on a general scale
only, as Sewell and Fosse point out, does not back this up. Geography is not alone in analysing spatial systems, anyway. The Institute of British Geographers 1974 debate on public policy supports this to some extent; much is made of the geographer's role in society and public policy making by the contributors, but little evidence is given that this contribution has been (a) successful, or even applied, and (b) has any more been minimal use for the examination of specific issues.

To continue, then, the general theme of 'geographer yes, geography no' is next related to the study of public policy in 3 ways. Firstly, exciting important contributions of geography to public policy are examined, hopefully showing how the useful contributions have come from individuals within the field. Secondly, the case of planning is examined, perhaps the major aspect of public policy to receive the attention of academics; thirdly, possible but as yet unrealized contributions are discussed.

5. THE CONTRIBUTION OF GEOGRAPHY AND GEOGRAPHERS TO PUBLIC POLICY IN THE POST-WAR PERIOD IN BRITAIN.

"Geographers are always asking about the meaning of things... " Hall 1970.

"As in all social time scale models of intellectual activity there will, at any one time, be some students ahead of their time while others persevere themes which were more central at an earlier date."

Thorpe 1978.

Attempts to put public policy on a more scientific footing have been a central concern of government for the last thirty years (Batty 1978). Ignoring the field of planning for the present, a variety of individual contributions to the field of public policy are worthy of discussion. The broad changes in geographical thought which have occurred over the period, namely the shift from quantitative to qualitative analysis, the search for relevance and the move towards present day environmental concern, has had but a minimal effect on policy analysis. Of course, the quantitative revolution was accompanied by a renewed interest in real world
problems and their solutions (yet coupled perhaps with a willingness to generalize). Welfare geography in particular owes much to the new techniques developed during this period, but was perhaps more influenced by the recessional environment of the 1970s. Yet in general terms, applied geography does not now follow in any major way, the current fields of research in the discipline; by its very nature it deals to the problems thrown up by individual situations in a variety of ways.

Public policy came under scrutiny from some geographers, albeit indirectly, before World War II. Stamp's Land Utilisation Survey (1938) showed for the first time the extent of land use in Britain, the loss of agricultural land resulting from urban spread, and put some value on agricultural land in the country. This had inspiration, if indirect ones, on policy. In addition, the work of Mackinder pioneered the establishment of geography as a respectable academic discipline, and introduced the idea of "geography as an aid to statecraft" (Parker 1982). He saw geography as being important on a local, national and international level; he pioneered the concept of 'geopolitics', he was keen to advance the teaching of geography and he was himself a Member of Parliament.

Much of the early contributions in geography came in the sphere of planning, and these are discussed in more detail in section 6. Smiles (1944) (1947) relates retailing to other processes in the urban environment, using it as an indicator to define the 'urban field'. Cammock (1962) gained an insight into the central role of special town centres in order to contribute to thinking about local government reorganisation. Green (1950) mapped accessibility and urban hinterlands. Green worked within local government himself. Powell (1960) gave a clear analysis of London's growth pattern, population and employment changes. He accesses the future needs of cities as well as cataloguing existing problems, in a method which was a conscious step away from the earlier work of the Parkin Commission and the geography of the immediate post-war period.

The fluctuations in the fortunes of Great Britain prompted increased emphasis on the problems of social well-being and its relationship with existing or proposed public policy. Until the 1950s, Smith (1977) feels geography
was "no more than science" - facts being established without careful analysis and formal use of hypotheses. Some of the work of individuals such as Smiles or May provide evidence to the contrary, but in general it is true. Quantitative methods pioneered during the 1960s, by Garrison and his graduates at Washington University, initially served purely to extend the available range of statistical techniques which could be employed; it took time for such ideas to be applied to public policy. Appendix two summarises the applications and important individual contributions of geography to public policy over the period; hopefully to simplify a fuller discussion of the important contributors, or lack of them, which geographers have made.

Firstly, then, the need for a geography of social well-being, welfare geography, has been proposed by a number of writers. Quantification of spatial variates of wellbeing helps to aid public policy dealing with social problems. Smith (1974) identified the study as one of "who gets what, where and how" - introducing a spatial variable into a wider question. The measurement of such variables as housing quality, education levels, recreational provision and general socio-economic wellbeing has been undertaken in some studies, often applied to specific areas and related to local authority or city boundary. Holtzman in 1975 produced an index of multiple deprivation based on percentages of overcrowding, inadequate provision of household facilities, and male unemployment in enumeration districts in London, Brighton, Bournemouth, and Southampton (see Coales, Hin, Johnson 1977). Lewis published in 1968 a more comprehensive list of indicators to apply at the area level; Smith, has produced similar schemes (1971). Richard Webster working at CEF used Census data to develop socio-economic classifications based on local areas; this idea was subsequently applied at the national scale. The general conclusion of all this work has been that inequality in whatever form, is a product of both social and economic structures (Coates et al. 1977). The work in this field has gone to prove that certain policies may or may not be desirable, whether based in the long or short term, or based on local areas or the national scale. In the areas of planning and local government reform there is some evidence to show that changes have been made in response to such academic work, but it is easy to confuse these with political
factors and the desire to attract sections of the population by proposing policies which will seemingly lead to a betterment of living or employment conditions.

Welfare geography as a general discipline is closely related to the study of regional problems. Regional policy has been analyzed in depth by those seeking both to evaluate its worth and improve its benefit to the regions it is designed to aid. In this field, a clear distinction must be drawn; geographers' methods have been concerned with general evaluation of regional policy as well as with formulating policies for its improvement. Examples of the former approach are numerous; Rotweil (1962) relates post-war changes in manufacturing to the state of the world economy; the need for regional innovation policies is foregrounded. Hudgin et al. (1979) discuss the role of manufacturing firms in employment creation. Moore and Rhodri's work also provides an in-depth and often critical evaluation of regional policy in the 1950s to the 1970s. Yet despite geographers' interest in regional problems little concrete has been achieved. As Bochenski and Hall (1983) point out,

"Regional policy was a popular cause in the 1960s when the question was how to allocate growth. Nowadays, with no growth to allocate, it has plenty of potential enemies - and only a few enthusiastic friends."

The drastic cuts in regional policy in 1979, and again last week, reflect this attitude. Here is an aspect of public policy where political considerations have been judged more important than the existing patterns of inequality identified by the welfare geographers as well as by politicians and sociologists.

Associated with work on regional policy has been that relating more to industry and its changes which have taken place in the pattern of employment opportunities. Hall (1983) analyzes this work, by Pottergill and Hudgin, Weede, Massey and Meegan and others and concludes although Britain is unique in the depth of analysis employed, its application to public policy is perhaps limited and somewhat indirect.
"The only problem, perhaps, is the question: in what sense is it applied geography?"

Hall 1971.

Conclusions are indeed hard to draw from analyses such as Keeble which analyse regional employment change over an extended period. Given the unwillingness at present to extend, or even consider, regional aid and incentives, its contribution to public policy making is perhaps slight. For a more relevant approach, the studies involving local areas, applying techniques developed by those such as Keeble, Dannison and Soto et al, are more use; in part, this means a return to the concept of welfare geography once again. The approaches used by Webber (socio-economic analysis) and Smith (analysis of wellbeing), Lloyd and Mason (1978) apply a general study of the manufacturing industry to the specific example of Greater Manchester, showing how small firms have accounted for most closures in recent years. It is this type of analysis which is likely to influence public policy on such issues to the greatest extent.

The study of elections is an interesting example of political geography turning into an applied subject, and therefore making a contribution to the study of a topic of general concern. The spatial dimensions of British political affairs did not come under scrutiny until the 1960s; Breed (1975) analyses the contribution geography can make:

"geography is particularly important in that it can add an entirely new dimension to its study of elections. The geographer brings a characteristic emphasis on spatial location, distribution and spatial interrelationships to the study of electoral behaviour, an aspect not normally considered by other disciplines."

Electoral analysis is related to public policy in that a voting system exists on the national and local levels. Any study which increases knowledge about voting behavior is likely to influence policy makers in terms of boundary changes or changes in the procedures adopted at elections. Indeed, constructing fair electoral boundaries is an application of the geographer's traditional interest in regions. Equal electorates or populations..."
and the spatial contiguity of electoral regions are central to geographical study.

The study of elections (Boudon 1978)

1. Behavioral approach
   - Why do observed patterns occur?
     - Decisions made by individuals
     - Perceived view of the parties
     - Neighborhood effect of a party

2. Area-structural approach
   - Spatial patterns and structures of voting choice evidenced by election results.

3. Area ecological approach
   - Stability regions of electoral systems where changes are underway.
   - Spatial relationships between voting and socio-economic patterns.
   - Cartographic overlays with other data
   - Spatial implications for public policy.

1979 use geographic viewpoints to propose bias within the electoral system that propose proportionality as a viable alternative to the First Past the Post system. It is likely that a liberal government would be needed before this particular idea would be incorporated into public policy.

Electoral Bias - Judge & Taylor (1979)
In the field of transport planning, geographical techniques have been proved to be of benefit for planning and design of networks. Public agencies are usually responsible for critical decisions about the development of the transport infrastructure (Hall 1983), and therefore the advice of specialists can be of use. Traffic management schemes have been developed in several towns around the country. Using conventional geographical techniques the relationship between transport patterns and land use can be assessed. Hall himself finds examples hard to find; “because of the limitations ... it is not easy to find good examples of the successful integration of land use and transport planning.”

However, some useful work is contained in the VSC Report “Transport and Public Policy” (Ed. Williams 1977), including considerations of the national motorway network by van Rest and Heard (1977). They conclude that the

“political direction on environmental matters, and the weighting they should receive has been vague to the point of obscurity,”

— in reference to motorway policy.

Retailing and public policy shows an often neglected area where geographers have had a profound influence on public policy, by their incorporation into local authority planning teams, and through their more recent involvement with commercial developers — providing qualitative analysis for the feasibility studies of new stores. Thorpe (1978) summarizes geographical participation in retailing most effectively and in the most depth: He concludes that

“The geographer can make a distinct contribution to the knowledge in general by his analysis of the retail system and its environment.”

The use of location modelling also discussed by Buttle (1978) in depth is an allied field—he feels

* See my dissertation.
but the modelling is an example of a topic with a close
Urban and regional planning has suffered major cutbacks
in recent years. Two points first need to be made
6. CASE STUDY: PLANNING
before moving on to attempt a chronology of geography's

Firstly, geography graduates have in the past formed a
usefulness or otherwise.

large proportion of the intake into the planning profession,
and thus must exert some influence over policy in
that fashion. However the actual number of places available is
less important than their individual contribution to a
given field. Secondly, the decline of planning can be seen
in the light of both the policy and the 'economy drive'
of government, seeking to reduce administration and
public expenditure.

It is worthwhile to examine brands of planning
in more detail. Planning is a field closely related to
geography and public policy alike. As Willatts (1971) points out,
here was

"Little in pre-war planning to interest a
geographer"
only when public concern over regional disparities and urban growth grew was the 1937 Barlow Commission appointed to investigate the problems of an industrial population. The Royal Statistical Society was involved with the Commission, but only in a limited way - they were asked to produce a memorandum on the development of the 'axis belt' of opportunity stretching from London to Bristol. This was one of geography's first, if minor, involvements with public policy. The history of planning from this point is fairly well known. Geographers' more important contributions to the methodology are highlighted by NH Perry (1969): he paid to the gradual filtering through of Christaller's work, with its application by Smiler, Owen and others as already discussed. Throughout the 1960s and 1970s, geographers were employed by planning authorities, especially after the important 1967 Town and Country Planning Act. As Wells says, "applied geography had become something very real". Geographers aided the development of New Towns in the 1960s, and the Local Government Commission for England, set up in 1958, was staffed mainly by then-important advice was given on the restructuring of public boundaries (see Salome 1972 for recent work on public service boundaries). Geographers contributed directly to policy in relation to specific projects, the siting of power stations, and especially the siting of nuclear power stations in coastal locations. Powell's work on London (1960) was a step away from the by then somewhat outdated aims of the Barlow Commission.

By 1970 regional planning had become of increasing importance - concern was voiced about disparities and the growth of the South East in particular. Peter Damesick (1980) identifies the gradual movement away from the ideas forwarded by the Barlow people. He asks what an alternative methodology is sought. The idea that the key to solving the problem of inter-regional disparity is the promotion of inter-regional transfers of labour is clearly unsatisfactory today. The designation of Assisted Areas in the 1960s was not a solution in terms of scale or scope. After 1970, economic conditions deteriorated; and a realisation that policy based purely on maintaining employment was ineffective led to the need for a more realistic approach. The planning of New Towns, and the clustering of heavy industry and heavy jobs in the South of England, and especially along the M25 corridor, is a factor which produces nationwide insecurity;
and it has been the subject of much research. Yet in a general discussion of this sort it is important not to stray too far from the central question of public policy; indeed, the growth of high technology industry can hardly be related to any concrete policy by central government; in a recession period a tendency exists to encourage any new development, anywhere in the country. Hence there is a reluctance to turn away companies wishing to locate in an area of relative prosperity.

The case of Enterprise Zones, however, must surely represent one of the major contributions to public policy offered by a geographer in recent years. Enterprise Zones were first forwarded by Professor Peter Hall in 1977, his argument being that the attraction of inward investment depends on production costs and overheads being kept sufficiently low to ensure profitability. Enterprise Zones were in response to this need, the first zones being set up in 1981. The lack of success in relative terms of these zones owes much to their 'time' application of Hall's original ideas adopted by the British (and American) government. Perhaps an experiment, but nevertheless an important one and a major plank of government policy in recent years.

In addition, quantitative analysis came to play a part in the planning process. The Centre for Environmental Studies was founded in 1967; required problem was increasingly subjected to new forms of research analysis; Hagerstrand (1970) reviews these.

Applied geography also has played a part in major planning decisions; the siting of the third London airport being a prime example. Of course, the growing disinterest and dissatisfaction with the whole field of planning, identified by Birkby and Hall (1984), has reduced its importance and impact as an instrument of central and local government. Birkby and Hall point to the growing dissatisfaction with planning, and required planning in particular, and point to its differences with the position in the 1960s and 1970s - when academics supported an articulated style of strategic planning, as shown above. The likelihood of them to practice has now become broken; theorists show little or no interest in practical planning matters, while practitioners, such as individual local authorities, decide policy as they please. The conflicting aims and attitudes to large scale developments, highlighted by URP, among others, show the lack

Elements of planning (Brechey 1983)

- Control Element
  - Rooted in (RUL
  - TCP Act
  - Little chance!
- Policy Element
  - Appropriate methodology
  - Source of information
  - Situation (present day)

Control
  - Amalgamation
  - Help governments make and implement decisions

Policy
  - Solution (future)

In general, geographers have been to provide academic contributions to work with local authorities in a variety of ways. Their effectiveness has come from working in this way from inside the administrative framework.

7 POSSIBLE CONTRIBUTIONS OF GEOGRAPHY TO PUBLIC POLICY AND NEGLECTED AREAS.

The contributions of geographers to public policy have been great, but some areas can be ordered where more, or better, use could be made of their skills. Brechey (1984) finds it surprising that, given the severity of current urban problems, no systematic methodology is employed in Britain to study these problems; he goes on to propose an extension of the American system of Urban Impact Analysis to the British case. This is proposed in the light of the fact that...
However, the adoption of new procedural ideas may be difficult against this background; the government and civil service are reluctant to accept new theories and practices; not so local government, but here even planning has declined as a aid to decision making and to introduce new ideas would not really tackle the heart of the problem. Urban Impact Analysis is an extension of well-developed impact analysis techniques, developed mainly in America, to assess the potential impact of a new development on the environment and the community, before it is started. In this way it is linked perhaps with the idea of land use modelling; these models originated in America too, and gained limited use in Britain as new Struthe plans were developed, in the 1960s. Models were applied in Manchester, Bedford and Cambridge in 1967. Yet the reaction against modelling, and later in planning in general, has limited their use (Batty 1978) — the future may hold a return to this type of approach that should change again.

Kilby et al (1983) have a different viewpoint; that geography and planning should, in the future, confine themselves to a consideration of public policy as only the broadest base — the 'solving' of problems is regarded as much depending on all we can do is monitor and aid where possible. This is a rather nebulous agenda for an academic discipline.

Given the present state of the economy, the planning profession, and local government, I would suggest a different course. Geography is developing, and so, therefore, should applied geography. The addressing of new problems into new analyses, such as those proposed above, should happen. It is also likely that closer co-operation with local government is a necessity; at present, as Hall and Bronars say, theorists and practitioners are digressing. Geographers cannot work better from within the system they are studying, rather than from outside it — this may give them a degree of objectivity, but not a degree of practicality.

8. Conclusion

This then is the conclusion for the future. The long list
of geographical contributions perhaps speak for themselves. As little as hard one tries, it is hard to disguise the fact that little has been done in the perfect scheme of 'academic/practitioners' partnerships have been made. While geographers have been at real, tangible benefit, they have studied individual problems or areas, and have often come it from within the political and adminstrative framework of the country. I would venture that the most concrete contribution to policy by a geographer is that which led to the formation of the Enterprise Zones. Others may disagree, but certainly in this case cooperation was reached with government bodies, the two were not at odds (this is also a criticism of the part 'Radical' Geography has to play; it fights the system). Thus perhaps to consolidate on the contributions over the years is an aim, but theory cannot be divorced from reality.

A interesting, imaginative way of dealing with the problem. I particularly liked the discussion of the nature of policy as an open. Your appendix is very interesting. One criticism is the text and style generally, occasionally reads like notes rather than prose.

The 'geographer - yes, Geography is more in interesting and was a good one to follow - however, I would doubt that they can be repeated. The lack of references was pleasing my impression.
APPENDIX I

SUITABLE TOPICS FOR GEOGRAPHICAL ANALYSIS: CONFLICTING VIEWPOINTS; EIGHT EXAMPLES.

1. GILBERT F. WHITE 1962.
   - Good applications of geographical skills
   - Transportation and city growth
   - Ways in which patterns of resource use are affected by technology
   - Public regulation
   - Social constraints
   - Water resource development
   - Occupancy of flood plains

2. G. ACKERMANN 1962
   - An obligation to see knowledge of any sort is put to good use
   - Areas seen as relatively untraveled by geography
   - The productive labor and employment crisis
   - International development and assistance
   - The activation of international scientific consortia
   - Regional development
     - Land use
     - Resource management
   - Attitudes of those in geographical space
3. P. Hall 1970

Suitable Topics for Geography

- Examine conflicting demands for space
- Contribute specific insights to the human process
- Involvement in planning systems: concern with the management of economy and society

Involvement with broad-base, widespread planning.

4. Harvey 1974

Geography is irrelevant to public policy making.

Main thrusts in Geography
- Quantification
- Environmental Determinism
- Of no use!
S. D.M. Smith 1974

- **Who gets what where, and how**
  - Applying geography
  - Public policy
  - Involvement in contemporary social issues

  Knowledge put to the benefit of society.

Welfare geography

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D. Coppock 1976

- Challenges/problems for geographers
- Create an urban environment of 'high quality' cities
- Devise a 'fitting' structure of local and regional government
- Meet increasing demands on limited resources in an 'efficient and acceptable' manner
Unwise to confine geographical analysis to a specific collection of topics; HENCE

**Brief relevant topics for consideration in the field of public provision**

- Articulation of the distinction between public and private provision
- The evolution of service distribution
- Evaluate existing theory in geography and relate to wider issues.
- Relationship between political theory to current issues - eg state/local state relationship
- Compare L.B. with other sources
- The repercussions of poor welfare provision

**Bretherton, 1984**

**Fields receiving academic interest in policy making**

- Urban regional planning
- Corporate planning
- Social policy, or social administration

- Breaching of present gulf between practitioners and theorists.
- Local government policy issues
- Welfare policy and its implementation
CONTRIBUTIONS TO POLICY - MAIN HEADINGS

CONTRIBUTIONS OF GEOGRAPHY TO PUBLIC POLICY

WELFARE GEOGRAPHY

Analysis

Smith

Leibler

Sheppard

Social Indicators

Transport Policy

Hall

Medical Geography

Unwin

Election Geography

Analysis - Enfield

Reform - Higginson / Taylor

Planning

Theory - Munnings

Action - Munnings

Regional and Development Problems

Enterprize Zones

MDirect

Regional Inequality Models

Analysis - Munnings

Education

Direct

Analysis - Munnings

Retailing

C A B E Study

Environmental Issues

Winnobins - O'Robbons et al.

Land Use Modelling

C A B E Study

City Council

The Americans!

Some L.A.'s.

SPECIFIC NOT COMPREHENSIVE!
REFERENCE LIST

Applied Geography Essay.

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