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Who Innovates Land Use and Why?

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Executive Summary

This thesis investigates the actors of land use and land development in the national systems of innovation. Specifically, it studies the reasons behind their behaviors and decisions and ranks them based on their influence on spatial planning. The results show that the most prominent actor is government bodies, which shape and guide national systems. Developers are ranked second, followed by the general public, and indigenous and local communities are ranked fourth.

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List of Abbreviations

BZ	Buffer Zone
CBDs	Central Business Districts
CFI	Corporate Finance Institute
CSC	Collective Shareholder Companies
EEA	European Economic Area
FAR	Floor-To-Area Ratio
FOAs	Forest Owner Association
LR	Land Readjustment
LUF	Alberta Land Use Framework
LULCC	Land Use and Land Cover Change
NDOs	Negotiable Development Obligations
N-NDOs	Non-Negotiable Development Obligations
NGOs	Non-profit Organizations
OECD	The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
SLR	Systematic Literature Review
PPGIS	Public Participation Geographic Information System
PRISMA	Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews
REDD+	Research on Reducing Emissions from Degradation and Forest Degradation
R&D	Research and Development
R+P	Rail and Property
TEN-T	Trans-European Transport Network
TLUs	Temporary Land Uses
TOD	Transit-Oriented Developments
WTP	Willingness to Pay

1. Introduction

Across centuries, our planet has seen many different occupations of its territories and spaces, and progress has been developing alongside societies' structure and needs. The evolution and usage of a country's territory for socioeconomic purposes is a phenomenon called land use. Land use has developed based on people's needs. Comber et al. (2008, p.188) define it as "a socioeconomic variable describing how people utilise the land. Urban and agricultural land uses are two of the most commonly recognised high-level classes of use. Residential land, sports grounds, commercial areas, etc. are also all land uses: land use describes socioeconomic activity." Land use impacts economic growth, the environment, public health, wealth distribution, and social outputs. Thus, it is vital to align the interests of public and private entities as there are large-scale effects (OECD, 2017a).

The critical aspect of this study is that land use only happens with people, and as requirements shift, so do the usage of national and international territories. Therefore, analyzing which are the concerned parties is the bottom line to fully understanding the motives behind such progress (Lundvall, 2016).
However, the present status of the research does not provide an overview of the actors that innovate land use and their reasons. For example, who is deciding what to build and why? Who is planning the future use of our lands, and how? Currently, it is possible to study the innovation of the utilization of our territories, but there is not a comprehensive view of who the stakeholders are. Therefore, this thesis analyzed how actors innovate and develop new land uses based on their changing requirements within national systems of innovation. National systems of innovation are constituted by regulations, rules, policies, interactions, know-how, and people, and they are based on location. The local component plays a crucial part, as countries have different paces of development, and people generate diverse expertise based on their needs. Moreover, each country's current economic and social status is the result of years and years of accumulated knowledge (Lundvall, 2016).

The starting point is the microeconomics of interactions, which is an analogy to the user-producer relationship in microeconomics. It is crucial because institutional bodies and policymakers act as producers, i.e., they create policies and regulations that support land use and land development. Citizens, scientists, scholars, and, generally speaking, all the involved stakeholders are the users of such policies and regulations. The most important factors in this relationship are mutual trust and good collaboration (Lundvall, 2016).
Furthermore, to study the actors' interactions, this thesis proposed three approaches, i.e., learning by interacting, social innovations, and industrial networks (Lundgren, 1991; Lundvall, 2016). Learning by interacting means acquiring new knowledge by interfacing with different parties and points of view. Social innovation goes beyond capitalism's goal to create profit by shifting the focus to stakeholders. As a result, it avoids unsatisfactory innovations, which are detached from users' needs and expectations. Finally, industrial networks are synergetic and complementary relationships between actors that execute different tasks and jobs within the same region (Lundgren, 1991; Lundvall, 2016).

This thesis determined the players involved in innovations on land use through a Systematic Literature Review (SLR) using the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews (PRISMA) framework (Page et al., 2021). It retrieved the data from a database called Scopus. The questions that guided the research were:

- Which actors can we differentiate?
- What are the characteristics of those actors?
- What role do these actors play? i.e., what functions do they fulfill?
- What are the motives of those different actors?

The analysis could identify and rank different parties based on their influence on land use and land development, i.e., institutional bodies, developers, the wider public, and indigenous and locals. Overall, institutional bodies are not only the most important ones but also the actors that make the decisions and have the final say.

This thesis starts with a theoretical background, explaining the national systems of innovation and the concept of land use. Later it illustrates the methodology and how it executed the research. The last two parts are the results of the SLR and the discussion. Finally, it completes the work with a brief conclusion.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1 National Systems of Innovation

2.1.1 Microeconomics of Interactions

National Systems of Innovation are possible thanks to the interactions between the parties involved. The levels within these systems are multiple, and the outcome is innovation (Lundvall, 2016).

Following Lundvall's (2016, p.61) reasoning, the starting point is the "microeconomics of interactions," which studies the relationships between users and producers.
Certain vital elements need to be present between the user-producer interactions. Furthermore, in this regard, Lundvall (2016, p.64) refers to both a generic product and its innovation. It does not necessarily need to be a product in the strict sense but as an object of interest that needs to be innovated.

First, the producer must be aware of the users' needs and whether current products lack crucial features. Second, they should monitor the users' perceptions and how extensive their knowledge is of the product. On the other hand, the user should have enough information on the product's acquired value, thanks to the new features. Although it is not trivial and as straightforward as it might seem. In reality, transparency allows for cooperation and trustworthiness, but it is not always present since actors may act according to their own interests, which do not align with common goals.
Moreover, building mutual trust takes time and effort, and sometimes producers with financial power or superior scientific and technological expertise tend to dominate users Lundvall (2016, p.64). Thus, the final result is "unsatisfactory innovations" Lundvall (2016, p.69). Unsatisfactory innovations are those innovations that diverge from users' needs and expectations. Governments and institutional bodies could play a pivotal role in counteracting these unsatisfactory innovations with adequate policies and regulations limiting the creation of hierarchies between producers and users.

There are two possibilities for public bodies to be directly or indirectly involved. Indirect involvement is limited to providing the bureaucratic and legal frameworks upon which parties can act. Direct involvement means that they interact and participate in the user-producer relationship.
Their design policies could support gradual change, where the system is subjected to continuous and minor innovations. Alternatively, they could bolster profound change, where the system undergoes a complete restructuring. Nevertheless, governments are not always effective, as they follow a personal agenda or lack the willpower to act (Lundvall, 2016).

Furthermore, based on the system, actors may or may not be innovation prone. Innovation brings uncertainty, and uncertainty creates confusion and disintegrates beliefs and routines. Therefore, people must be flexible and resilient to embrace new learning paths. However, some user-producer relationships have a more conservative view, where they stick to well-known and familiar best practices. Also, inertia carries some relationships away, creating a static system that cannot evolve (Lundvall, 2016).

2.1.2 National Systems of Innovation, a Definition

All the microeconomics interactions constitute a system called the national system of innovation (Lundvall, 2016). Lundvall (2016) starts from the micro level because the only way to study a system is by looking at all the small synergies between the parties involved. Furthermore, even though there is an ever-growing tendency toward globalization and international practices, where institutions around the globe try to harmonize frameworks, societies are still profoundly different and impossible to guide following homogeneous standards. Therefore, it is clear that national systems are still critical (Lundvall, 2016). The emphasis is put on "regional production systems," 'industrial districts," and "technological districts" Lundvall (2016, p.87). These areas are complementary, pave the way for internationalization and globalization, and help comprehend the historical development of countries.

One good example of the importance of local systems lies within companies. Multinational companies are known for embracing diversity and designing their structure to facilitate the intertwining of all sorts of realities. The key to their success is being able to stay global but local. When companies spread across the world, they cannot disregard national systems. Each location brings something different and equally important to the table. Companies must consider this fundamental aspect as innovation stems from the delicate relationships between the national economy and institutions (Lundvall, 2016).
Consequently, innovation is local. Every country has unique needs that develop into different innovations. Regardless of the level of globalization, each country has different social bodies and policies that support research and development and the creation of economic wealth (Lundvall, 2016).

Additionally, the national system of innovation helps define the borders. In fact, based on the considered system, there are different borders. As it will appear later, national systems of innovation are not defined by national borders but by the number of common elements and features of a specific area (Lundvall, 2016).

2.1.3 The Elements of a National System

In agreement with Lundvall (Lundvall, 2016, p.98), the key components of a system are:

- The internal organization of firms
- Inter-firm relationships
- Role of the public sector
- Institutional setup of the financial sector
- Research and Development (R&D) intensity and R&D organization

These elements influence the functionality of a national system. Internal organizations and inter-firm cooperation are crucial because they affect the trends of markets and the degree of knowledge they produce. Depending on the region, companies can form vital clusters that spur and influence one another into innovating. Also, depending on the status of their relations, they can share information and innovations. The public sector plays a central role as it develops new expertise through scientific and academic organizations and can regulate it. Also, it is the most prominent user of innovation created by the private sector (Lundvall, 2016).

R&D is strictly related to regional specialization. In addition to what is previously mentioned, regarding companies spreading worldwide, R&D plays a crucial role in this process.
The inhabitants of different locations have different needs. According to Alcácer & Zhao (2012, p.1), companies locate themselves and their R&D practices in particular regions because of the closeness to universities and government frameworks supporting new knowledge creation. Thus, it is evident how the national system of innovation within a country not only creates new expertise but can also attract it.

Another crucial aspect of the national system is its intrinsic dynamism. Dynamism entails learning, sharing, and adapting. Nowadays, innovation is rapid and for the most part, destabilizing, and the only way to cope with the massive uncertainty it brings is to be resilient. Therefore, dynamism sets the bases for embracing new developments (Lundvall, 2016).

Overall, there are multiple indicators to analyze the effectiveness of national innovation systems.
In agreement with the OECD (1996, P.14), "The determinants of success of enterprises, and of national economies as a whole, is ever more reliant upon their effectiveness in gathering and utilising knowledge. Strategic know-how and competence are being developed interactively and shared within sub-groups and networks, where know-who is significant".
Lundvall (2016) argues that a system's setup is successful when it can create, spread and use economically valuable expertise. Second, how well it allocates resources and, third, the capability to adapt, or in other words, manage risk and uncertainty.

2.1.4 The Policies That Boost the Flow of Information Within National Systems

The flow of information and knowledge between countries depends on the country's current economic and social development. In this context, policies become fundamental as they can better direct efforts, resources, and people in retrieving and absorbing knowledge. According to the OECD (1997, p.13), "for policy makers, an understanding of the national innovation system can help identify leverage points for enhancing innovative performance and overall

competitiveness. It can assist in pinpointing mismatches within the system, both among institutions and in relation to government policies, which can thwart technology development and innovation".
The present system of a country is the result of historical events, legacies, and tacit knowledge that can boost or impede innovation and the adoption of new technologies (Lundvall, 2016).
Moreover, as the state is the most influential body in innovation and transforming them into outcomes for economic growth, it can change direction or start new technological trajectories aside from designing the right policies. On the other hand, old technological trajectories could create stagnation and limit economic and social progress (Lundvall, 2016).

Finally, there are several elements that policymakers must account for when designing policies. According to Lundvall Lundvall (2016, p.89), three prominent aspects exist. First, they should precisely know the system they are operating in to avoid drafting policies that result in poor outcomes—second, they should know how other national systems work to prevent conflicts. Third, they should have the ability to adapt to changes and learn from foreign experiences.

2.2 National State and National Systems

It is essential to distinguish between National State and National System. National State is formed by people with a homogeneous culture, ethnicity, and language that live in a unique state controlled by a central government. However, it is seldom the case, as frequently states are heterogenous in one of the abovementioned aspects (Lundvall, 2016).
For this reason, it makes sense to refer to a national system as one formed by people who share standard features and beliefs but are less strict than in national states. A few examples are Switzerland, the USA, and Belgium. Switzerland and Belgium have different languages within them and based on the side of the country, the rules change slightly. Thus, they present very heterogeneous traits, but regardless, they are still considered as a whole country.
The USA is another case of heterogeneity within a country. Even though they share a common culture and language, the rules, regulations, and economic and technological development are somewhat different based on the state. Therefore, referring to the USA as a whole country still makes sense, but the concept of innovation systems includes heterogeneous traits and differences across the state (Lundvall, 2016).

2.2.1 Learning by Interacting

As beforementioned, national systems are unique and distinct from one another. Therefore, what works for one country, might not work for another. However, Lundvall (2016, p.76) introduces "learning by interacting," which is a concept that applies to each context, no matter the current level of development of the state. Learning by interacting means that parties learn from one another through continuous communication and cooperation. The bottom line of this approach is to create essential synergies that lead to innovation and progress (Lundvall, 2016).
Furthermore, he dives into the types of parties involved by underlying how interactions should be between institutional bodies and academic communities and between institutional bodies and workers. For example, governments, scientists, and academic communities might be detached from realities as they merely focus on what is efficient on paper. On the other hand, workers, or the directly affected actors of innovation, can give better insights on what does not function and should be improved. A good collaboration means experts collect feedback from end users and design changes based on it. Nevertheless, end users are frequently passively undergoing the effects and results of innovation, as they are not planned for them (Lundvall, 2016).

2.2.2 The Social Innovation

Social innovation is the countermeasure to capitalistic views on innovation. Capitalistic countries usually focus on returns and profitable technological breakthroughs, causing unsatisfactory innovations. The costs of this approach are growing, including the passive end users and the environment (Lundvall, 2016).
Moreover, the gap between rich and emerging countries is still evident and significant. They lack the resources, finances, and facilities compared to the rich countries and will never be able to match them unless there is a shift in the system.
Therefore, social innovation is a substantial change in the system that puts final users and their needs at the center of attention and gives more significant chances to developing countries to speed up their economic growth. Additionally, it creates a network of people that act and design innovation based on commonly shared goals, setting up choices on mutual trust (Lundvall, 2016).

Once again, the analogy to the user-producer interactions and productions explains why institutions should focus on the interactions and synergies between policymakers, government bodies, and the affected parties. Lundvall (2016, p.95) identifies three levels. First, the micro-level, which pinpoints the specific actors and their interactions. Second, the institutional form describes the nature of the relationships between the involved parties, and third, the institutional set-up.

2.2.3 Industrial Networks

Lundgren (1991, p.99) discusses industrial networks "as sets of interrelated actors performing interconnected activities, by transforming and transacting heterogeneous and interdependent resources. The industrial network is hence the union of network of exchange relationships and technological systems." Thus, actors are what makes innovation possible. Nevertheless, there is a different outcome based on their synergies and the context.

Johnson (1998, p.9) adds to Lundgren's (1991) concept of industrial networks that the object of a network of relationships is to manage the expertise of people by proper division of labor, creating routines, and allocating the economic surplus. Furthermore, they must work ethically by allocating resources and workforce purposefully. In the context of national systems of innovation, industrial networks and networks of relationships are between the institutional bodies, end users, universities, and scientific associations. One should not prevail over the other, but rather, they should work together to develop new knowledge and reach outcomes that make everyone better off.

2.3 The Accumulation of Knowledge and Knowledge-Based Economies

Innovation is the result of subsequent and past innovations; hence it is considered a process (Lundvall, 2016).
According to Edquist & Johnson (1997. pp. 51-53), this process is supported by the proper institutional setup, which should "reduce uncertainty by providing information," meaning that they should regulate the amount of information that circulates. "Manage conflicts," which can be detrimental to innovation practice,s and provide "incentives" such as "salary and wage schemes, income taxes, tax allowances, and inheritance rules affect innovative efforts. Property rights to knowledge and ideas (laws and rules concerning patents, copyrights, trade marks, etc.)

are also important as incentives, since they permit appropriation of temporary technological rents, and affect the diffusion of knowledge."
The institutional setup should sustain and support the national system of innovation over time and through changes.

Furthermore, economies are considered knowledge-based because of the ever-growing need for new expertise and know-how. Therefore, investing in new knowledge can have significant returns as it increases productivity and boosts innovation (OECD, 1996).
Lundvall (2016, p.378) builds the learning economy concept on three premises. First, the ability to learn is fundamental for economic conduct. Second, being able to differentiate between different kinds of expertise and capabilities development. Third, the overall process of creating new knowledge contributes to the amount of wealth and independence. Thus, learning not only entails building new capabilities but also cultivating ideas and beliefs that will affect people's life quality.
However, innovation and new expertise bring uncertainty, and the only way to overcome it is by relying on mutual trust between the involved actors. Consequently, since countries show different levels of trust, there are different paces of innovation (Lundvall, 2016).
Another interesting aspect that Lundvall (2016) mentioned is positive and negative learning.
Learning means acquiring new knowledge. However, this expertise not always leads to good behavior. For instance, it could encourage illegal actions and practices as ways to work around institutional rules. Immoral behaviors are another example. Powerful parties with a financial or expertise superiority could prevail over other actors by forcing them or simply brainwashing them into making uninteresting or advantageous decisions. Notwithstanding current societal signs of progress, immoral behaviors are still present and effective in certain parts of the globe. Therefore, innovation and new knowledge do not equal progress but are necessary conditions Lundvall (2016, p.378).

Finally, as mentioned, the partnerships built across the years between public bodies and academic and scientific institutions vary across states. Therefore, Lundvall (2016, p.5) argues that "it might also be seen as a synthesis of analytical results produced by scholars working on innovation." This means that the current frameworks for innovation systems are the outcomes of piled studies across the years. The history of nations and their development is crucial because they shed light on how and why they function in a certain way (Lundvall, 2016).

2.3.1 Searching and Exploring

The final dimensions are searching and exploring. Searching and exploring are the most important things when developing new knowledge. Searching means designing methods for gathering new data and analyzing it. In the context of companies and governmental bodies, search is usually carried out by research and development or academic and scientific institutions. However, it must always be well-thought and goal-oriented to avoid wasting money and time. Exploring, on the other hand, is broader and not as planned. In fact, exploring means testing the waters without a clear objective. It is the best way to get unforeseen outcomes and set the bases for entirely new research (Lundvall, 2016). Also, in uncertain contexts, exploring allows skipping the methodology's design phase and adjusting the research along the way.

2.4 Migration

Migration has several effects on national systems of innovation. First, new people entering a country bring heterogeneity as they are culturally different. Furthermore, they may not be as

academically or professionally well educated. This could create conflicts and, even worse, downgrade the country's economic and technological growth. Therefore, the state must step in to provide the right training programs and initiatives to make foreigners align with locals. Moreover, these initiatives include cooperating with private parties and individuals to tailor programs to the country's needs and to successfully fill the gaps between foreigners and locals (Lundvall, 2016).
Second, newcomers may feel excluded, from society, without a choice on important matters, or may not have the same opportunities. Thus, it would divide foreigners and the natives, eventually leading to heterogeneity and poor cohesion and collaboration. Furthermore, people from other countries could also import new values and ideas that could benefit the state. Therefore, public institutions should prompt integration (Lundvall, 2016).

2.5 Land Use

Land use is the exploitation of land for multiple purposes. In this context, the uses mainly focus on profit and non-profit activities, e.g., commercial activities, dwellings, agriculture, and more (EEA Glossary, 2004). According to the OECD (2017b, p.4), "Land use affects the environment, public health, economic growth, the distribution of wealth, social outcomes and the attractiveness of cities and towns." Moreover, actors are the real driving force behind land use, as the policies they design can affect these dimensions and boost the overall country's growth. Usually, land use planning is local, and always according to the OECD (2017b, p.4), land use is "place-based" and "highly context-specific." That means that countries face different local and regional benefits, frameworks, and problems. Therefore, each state should recognize the strengths of the land they dispose of and design plans that avoid poor spatial results.
Additionally, because of the longevity of projects, planners need to look into the future and consider the long-term impacts of their decisions since there are large-scale effects. Therefore, they must balance different parties' requirements while developing a sustainable plan (OECD, 2017b).

Furthermore, two more aspects are vital when planning land use. First, academic and scientific institutions, public bodies, citizens, and, generally, the stakeholders involved in land use within a country have different needs. States can obtain different spatial planning outcomes based on the relationships between these parties, the quality of their cooperation, trust, and flexibility (OECD, 2017b).
Second, the degree of resilience of a system determines how well it responds to changing conditions and changing needs. However, flexibility is only possible if the parties have enough trust. Also, delegation is effective if the parties are knowledgeable and reliable. Lastly, as the final crucial component, monitoring ensures plans' effectiveness and implementation (OECD, 2017b).

2.5.1 Land Use Regulations and Public Policies

Land use regulations are essential for spatial planning, and if wrongly designed, they can detriment land development.
OECD (2017b) proposes several land-use regulations and public policy standpoints. First, zoning regulations should be adaptable to allow developers enough room to carve development and substitute neighborhoods with time. Furthermore, multi-function land use should be a standard practice rather than single-use zoning. Single-use zoning can worsen the condition of the land and limit its opportunities for revenue and social uses. Moreover, regulations should

guide healthy competition between companies, which results in new procedures and innovation (OECD, 2017b).
Second, when regulations are too restrictive, despite being effective because they limit free will, they could be a detriment to the overall demand and create unnecessary pressure on developers. For instance, confining land use provisions can affect housing prices by making them hardly affordable. Because of the low number of house units, the demand increases, but the supply does not, hence the price increase. As a result, landlords benefit, but certain areas of the city become inaccessible to the lower-income population. However, regardless of these areas' opportunities, they are segregated because of their high price. The end result is the exclusion of the poorer people from the growing production within them. The solutions are multiple, e.g., making these zones accessible by lowering the costs, building affordable housing, or boosting the supply of one of the pricing classes. Moreover, increasing the number of dwellings means disposing of more people, skills, and workforce and, therefore, higher production. Increased productions eventually lead to higher economic growth (OECD, 2017b).
Third, regulations should be continuously reviewed as demand changes over time. For instance, populations are constantly growing. Hence the demand for new dwellings is increasing. Therefore, according to the OECD (2017b, p.22), the annual intensification of house developments should be as considerable as the growth of new households.
Fourth, government and local bodies should set up the rights incentives to support flexibility and motivate developers. When more arbitrage is involved in land use and development, actors could make decisions following only personal interests. Therefore, the regulations should guide them toward plans that benefit the broader breadth of involved stakeholders (OECD, 2017b).
Lastly, land use regulations and policies should be designed to include different sectors within the same area. As mentioned, land use should always be multi-functions, hence integrating different actors on the same territory. Therefore, policies should support and set out the rules for the successful coexistence of different sectors and stakeholders on national and local grounds.

Overall, public policies should include three main aspects, i.e., a comprehensive set of spatial and land processes that include different goals and objectives, environmental and construction rules, and incentives for individuals and businesses (OECD, 2017b, p.12).

2.5.2 Tax Policies and Fiscal Incentives

Land use arrangements made by private individuals are based on cost-benefit examinations that include monetary and non-monetary components. Therefore, tax policies should be designed to boost these benefits and align with the optimal spatial goals (OECD, 2017b).
For instance, transport taxes should support the transition from car-based to public transport by lowering the cost of transportation and transportation projects along public traffic corridors. Law Insider (2023, February 26) states, "Public Transit Corridor means an existing or planned public mass transit guide way or bus way station, or multimodal transportation terminal serving public mass transit operations within one-third mile of the Project." Increasing public transportation usage would, in turn, make cities more sustainable. As a result of public transportation, densification is an essential component. Densification means expanding the number of households in specific areas. In turn, the more dwellings in a zone, the easier it is to design an efficient public transportation network.
Consequently, regulation should be more flexible and less restrictive on densification to motivate developers to increase it. However, residents rarely support densification, as they would see their neighborhoods widen and become more crowded. Thus, the right policies and incentives should be in place to gain public acceptance (OECD, 2017b).

Another crucial aspect of policies and fiscal systems is whether they benefit institutional bodies. For example, states' governments can earn from housing developments because of tax base and transferable rights growth. Therefore, they create policies that facilitate fiscally appealing developments, sometimes at the expense of the other stakeholders or the environment. If, on the other hand, the returns or the benefits are not attractive, they might limit spatial plans (OECD, 2017b).
Furthermore, by reforming subnational finance, national institutions can supply harmonized incentives to local institutions. As a result, they can redesign the collaborations between local governments and improve their cooperation and synergies.

3. Methodology

3.1 Systematic Literature Review

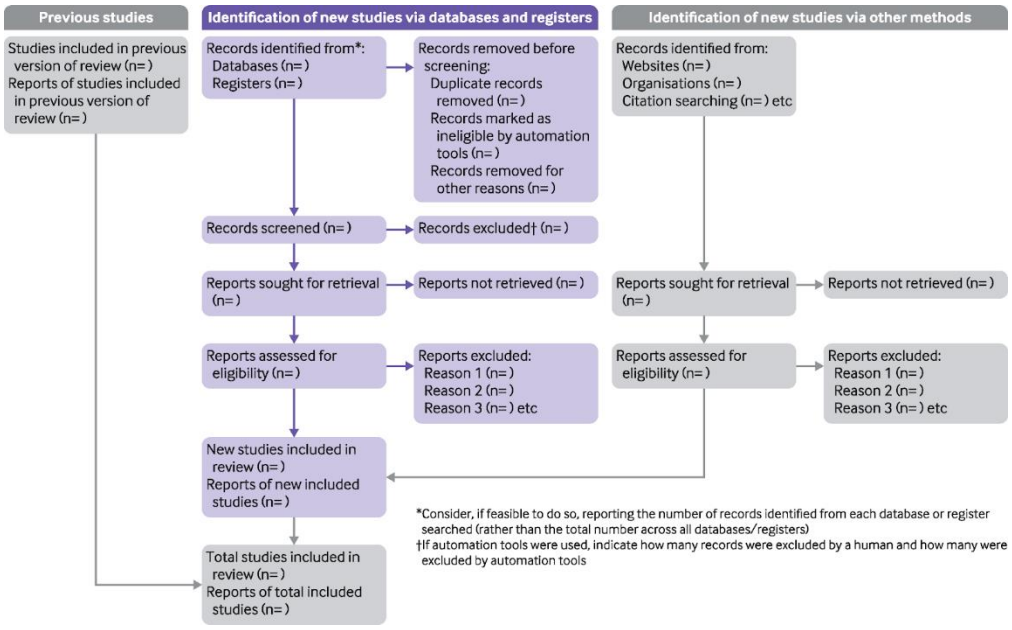
This thesis answered its questions through a qualitative analysis, namely an SLR. The SLR followed the PRISMA framework (Page et al., 2021).

The SLR has become popular since the 20th century. It aims to analyze and report information systematically and scientifically, and the research must be reproducible. Management research uses the process of the medical sciences when carrying out an SLR. The adopted approach is evident-based, meaning that the research reports the findings rigorously and objectively while shedding light on gaps in the present literature (Tranfield et al., 2003). Moreover, an SLR analyzes existing literature and publications and categorizes the literature by quality. Lastly, it synthesizes the collected data. The SLR starts with research questions and answers them through investigation (Kraus et al., 2020). It divides into seven steps:

1. The urgency for research
2. Research proposal
3. Literature collection
4. Literature screening
5. Literature Analysis
6. Results
7. Discussion

The first two steps are the need for research and the research proposal, where the SLR identifies a research gap and proposes why it should be filled.
The literature collection consists of gathering the relevant material for analysis and skimming it into the final group of articles. The literature analysis works through the articles to identify the data that will answer the research questions. The results summarize the findings and group them based on common aspects. The discussion comments on the results and elaborate on them to fill the research gap.

The PRISMA framework guides researchers in their SLR. It provides a comprehensive set of recommendations for reporting and ensures that all vital information is collected. Therefore, it ensures the trustworthiness of the overall analysis. Additionally, it eases the review process.
Below, Figure 1 shows the PRISMA framework chart and defines all the analysis steps. The purple boxes in the flow diagram in Figure 1 show the phases an SLR should follow. The gray boxes are additional and should be completed only if necessary.



Taken from “The PRISMA 2020 Statement: an Updated Guideline for Reporting Systematic Reviews” by Page, M. J., McKenzie, J.E., Bossuyt, P.M. et al., 2021. Systematic Reviews 1-11, 10(1).

3.2 Literature Collection

The SLR retrieved the data from Scopus's database through a chosen string. The string went through several adjustments. The final version is as follows:

TITLE-ABS-KEY ("land use" OR "land development") AND TITLE-ABS-KEY (actor* OR stakeholder* OR parties OR agent* OR innovator* OR developer* OR entrepreneur* OR ideator* OR player* OR protagonist* OR participant* OR contributor* OR policymaker*) AND (LIMIT-TO (SUBJAREA , "ECON") OR LIMIT- TO (SUBJAREA , "BUSI")) AND (LIMIT-TO (DOCTYPE , "ar")) AND (LIMIT-TO (LANGUAGE , "English")) AND (LIMIT-TO (PUBYEAR , 2022) OR LIMIT-TO (PUBYEAR , 2021) OR LIMIT-TO (PUBYEAR , 2020) OR LIMIT-TO (PUBYEAR , 2019) OR LIMIT-TO (PUBYEAR , 2018) OR LIMIT-TO (PUBYEAR , 2017)) AND (LIMIT-TO (SUBJAREA , "SOCI"))

Following the PRISMA framework, the majority of the studies were collected on Scopus through the chosen string. The total number is 25, and the focus is the actors of land use. Therefore, as keywords for the title and the abstract, the analysis used “land use” and “land development,” “actors,” “stakeholder,” “parties,” “agent,” “innovator”, “developer”, “entrepreneur”, “ideator,” “player,” “protagonist,” “participant,” “contributor” and “policymaker.” The time reference was from 2017 to 2022, and the research narrowed to economics, econometrics and finance, sociological sciences, business, management, and accounting. Lastly, the chosen language for the articles was English.

Two more studies were added to the final group, which helped complete the research. Therefore the final number of studies amounts to 27.

3.3 Literature Screening

The literature screening went through several steps. The initial number was 250, narrowed to 156, 94, 55, 30, and 25. Then, as mentioned, two more articles were added to the final group, totaling 27. Overall, the studies are about a variety of topics to give a complete picture of players and their fields of work.

Scopus provided different details of the articles, i.e., the titles and the abstracts. Therefore, the literature screening used these details to assess whether the studies were suitable for the analysis. The steps were as follows: first, if the title was aligned with the research topic, the study was included. Second, if the title was insufficient, the abstract was analyzed. Third, the paper was only included if the abstract was coherent with the research topic.
The benchmark for choosing one paper over the other was based on which one answered the research questions better. However, the exclusion and inclusion methodology was complex, as most studies had an aspect that could benefit the analysis.
Also, the criteria were refined after the skimming process started. In fact, many doubts arouse because of the heterogeneous nature of the sample of documents. First, whether to include specific continents. Second, whether and on what basis to prefer a topic over another. Third, how to handle the papers that focused on multiple objectives other than land use and land use actors.

The answers to the questions were as follows: first, the analysis opted for a view of the globe to identify the relationships between actors across continents. Second, the study tried to be as comprehensive as possible, covering an array of topics that could provide a high-level picture of the current leading subjects and how stakeholders interact. Thus, the inclusion and exclusion criteria are indicated below.

- The following are the inclusion criteria:

    1. All the articles that focused on analyzing the relevant actors involved in land use and land development.
    2. All the studies that wanted to draw a picture of the land use and land development policies and who were the parties responsible for the change in these policies.
    3. The literature that analyzed the conflicts between parties on land use.
    4. The studies that investigated the differences in regional and national land use policies.
    5. The articles scrutinized the relationships between native populations and newcomers.
    6. The literature that examined how institutional bodies enforced their power on native people and how they eradicated long-lasting legacies.

- The following are the exclusion criteria:

    1. The analysis wanted to draw a picture of the current actors of land use as close as possible to reality. Therefore, the literature on agent-based simulations and game theories was left out.
    2. The fields of interest are economics and management. Thus, the literature that was overly dedicated to raw materials management and related conflicts was not included.

3. Many studies combined land use, land development, and climate change. Although they were associated with and led towards innovative ways of handling land, the target of these articles was the best practices rather than people collaborating to shape a more sustainable future. Therefore, they were not wholly pertinent to the analysis.
4. A wide variety of topics covered the management of land use. However, the focus was again on something other than the actors.
5. One of the main targets of the research was land development and innovation, and the studies that did not include an innovation component were not considered.

Third, the papers that focused on a variety of objectives other than land use and land use actors were not excluded.
In addition to the starting criteria, some more articles were eliminated after a first reading. Regardless of their pertinency to the overall analysis, the information their provided was poor and inadequate to answer the research questions.

4. Results

The review of the studies showed several results. First, the majority of the articles have common features and objectives. Second, widespread attention is put on who are the actors involved in land use and what their role is. Therefore, they can all be considered similar and alike. Nevertheless, the articles are divided into groups because of some specific patterns.

4.1. Forced Power

The case studies analyzed in the following articles showed significant control of land by the state or specific institutions. The common pattern is that the institutional bodies force their power over the population or fully own the country's land.

Mizero et al. (2018) analyzed Rwanda's agricultural system phases.
Across centuries, Rwanda has seen many different agricultural systems. However, once again today, agrarian policies need to be revised to boost the sector's productivity level (Mizero et al., 2018).
In the pre-colonial years (1091-1897), the land regime was based on livestock and integration, and the system was based on customary rights (Mizero et al., 2018).
According to the Order on Customary Rights and the Use of Forest Resources (1995, p.2), "Customary or traditional rights are those rights and obligations held by an individual, a group, or a community which have the root in custom. Different than laws in their origin and generally not written, customary rights are nonetheless true rights that exist on their own merit. Thus, they have the force of law according to the law and legal doctrine of most if not all States."
There was no rationale behind land management because few people controlled ample land. Moreover, they could allocate their land to different families, and they expanded their territories with conquest wars (Mizero et al., 2018).
Colonization brought several modifications to the agricultural system of Rwanda. First, although the Germans recognized the sovereignty of Rwanda's king and kept the traditional design, colonization stopped the expansion wars (Mizero et al., 2018).
Belgians taught the dominance of written law rather than customary law. Also, with the reforms of 1926, they introduced the occupation certificate on land, a document stating that the individual was occupying the ground and using it to generate returns. Furthermore, they worsened the

tensions between the Tutsi, the people who groomed livestock, and the Hutus, the part of the population who cultivated crops, because they favored Tutsis (Mizero et al., 2018; Zack Beauchamp, 2014).
Between 1959 and 1990, the country faced many socio-political conflicts. Tutsis became refugees, and their territories were distributed to the Hutus and the ruling class. Furthermore, the 1976's decree deprived peasants of their lands and gave ownership to the state. However, the inability of the state to manage land scarcity led to internal tensions (Mizero et al., 2018).
From 1990 to 1994, Rwanda faced a brutal and shocking genocide that killed hundreds of thousands of Tutsis (History.com Editors, 2022; Mizero et al., 2018).
Currently, the situation in the country is still uncertain. The state owns the available land, and holders rent it. The system operates following a rational use, meaning that the landholders keep the occupation certificate only if they provide continuous proof of income generation (Mizero et al., 2018).
The reasons for this new management system are multiple. First, internal production has stagnated. Second, Rwanda wants to decrease its agricultural dependence and crystallize on other segments, including industry and services. Third, the state wants to transition to a market-led economy, redistributing responsibilities to stakeholders, where the global market becomes the motor of local agricultural realities. Therefore, the government intends to intensify and efficiently manage resources (Mizero et al., 2018).

Sanders et al. (2019) studied the negotiations between local communities, non-profit organizations (NGOs), companies, Research on Reducing Emissions from Degradation and Forest Degradation (REDD+), and other parties for land use in Central Kalimantan. Furthermore, it investigated how environmental schemes and competing land uses converge together. Because of the growing number of involved actors, there were many conflicts, and, whether they engaged in these rivalries depended on the influence of their peers and environment (Sanders et al., 2019).
The results showed that companies and NGOs continuously played local communities. They forced locals into giving up their land and, most of the time, for nominal prices or even for free. Furthermore, their customary rights were never recognized, and they saw their properties progressively shrinking while companies' plantations widened around them. Finally, despite REDD+ efforts to lay out worldwide environmental goals, these have proven utopic and unrealistic. Furthermore, REDD+ has also shown unreliability as it was found guilty of unethical behaviors and wrong partnerships (Sanders et al., 2019).

Torre et al. (2021) investigated the causes of the conflicts on socio-economic factors in Pakistan's Diamer Basha dam case. (Torre et al., 2021). Diamer Basha dam is a broad hydro project to boost Pakistan's economic growth. However, the development has been slow and violent because of various malfunctions in different aspects of the plan. The land has been extorted from local inhabitants, and in return, they received poor compensation and little right to speech (Torre et al., 2021).
The study determined two groups of stakeholders. Government organizations constituted the first, and the second comprised various local actors, e.g., social workers, private consultants, and journalists. The visions of these parties were different, but they mutually influenced (Torre et al., 2021).
Because of changes in the land, there was a need to re-establish services, business opportunities, and employment opportunities. However, the inadequate management of the project resulted in a loss of living standards for local people. Furthermore, due to land expropriation, local inhabitants should have received fair compensation, but it was considered insufficient and thus led to deadly conflicts. Lastly, corruption played a big part in this project, weakening governance

trustworthiness and favoring the wrong parties. Furthermore, it obstructed public participation, eventually resulting in violent disputes (Torre et al., 2021).

Sun et al. (2017) discussed the redevelopment of the Liede Village in Guangzhou, China, during the Asian Games in 2010. As a result, the rural village was urbanized.
The study carried out an interview where the respondents were municipal and district governments, collective shareholder companies (CSC), villager representatives, private developers, and mass media, which were also the main actors involved in the transition. The crucial points of this development were, first, the pseudo value, meaning the attachment to the rural past, and a significant advancement toward urban land use. The second was output legitimacy, which consisted of backing the transition with the right legal tools to make it legal and provide enough capital (Sun et al., 2017).
The three main parties were local governments, CSC, and villagers. The governments provided the legal framework and the capital. Furthermore, they empowered the CSC to act as a representative of both the governments and the villagers. As a result, they significantly saved time and money in the transition. Village's land and ownership rights were taken from the inhabitants and transferred to the local government. On the other hand, locals were granted resettlement apartments and a substantial compensation package that was determined by the CSC (Sun et al., 2017).
Notwithstanding what could seem a good tradeoff, this maneuver turned out to be a way for local governments to gain control of rural land and centralize its management.
Furthermore, villagers were gradually excluded from the transition (Sun et al., 2017).

4.2 Policies and the Legal Environment

The following studies investigated the policies and the legal framework behind land use and land development and whether they are effective in achieving optimal spatial planning.

Carruthers & Tretter (2022) conducted semi-structured interviews with citizens, local officials, and policymakers in Calgary, Canada. The goal was to investigate their opinions on temporary land uses (TLUs) and related policies (Carruthers & Tretter, 2022).
Calgary is the Canadian fossil fuel industry center. However, since 2014, the city has faced an economic downturn because of the fall in oil prices. Therefore, because of the high number of "central business districts" (CBDs) that are currently abandoned or underutilized, there are plenty of possibilities for reallocating these spaces and TLUs (Carruthers & Tretter, 2022).
The main results of the study are as follows. First, TLUs could benefit cities in multiple ways. They could spur creativity, reduce criminality, boost development, and give a place to outcasts. Therefore, the improvements could be both social and economical. Also, TLUs could be a safe place for entrepreneurs to start new businesses. However, if TLUs are misused, they could lead to gentrification, which, according to the Cambridge Advanced Learner's Dictionary & Thesaurus (2023, February 23) is "the process by which a place, especially part of a city, changes from being a poor area to a richer one, where people from a higher social class live." Therefore, gentrification would ward off the creative class (Carruthers & Tretter, 2022).
Second, municipal or government initiatives are the only way to foster TLUs. Nevertheless, cities in Alberta are highly dependent on property tax revenues. Thus, Calgary's City Councilors must weigh land use because the higher the value of the land, the higher revenues the city obtains. Currently, land use is managed by the Alberta Land Use Framework (LUF), which lays out guidelines for boosting and sustaining the provincial economy and safeguarding the environment (Carruthers & Tretter, 2022).

Business projects for TLUs are regulated, and they must obtain both land use approval and a license. However, although Calgary recognizes the importance of recouping CBDs, it does not have technical TLU designations that boost the adoption of TLUs. Presently, there are two ways to obtain a TLU, one being the "Temporary Development Permit", which is limited to the land use allocation of the area. Another option is the "Special Functions designations", i.e., "Class 1" and "Class 2" (Carruthers & Tretter, 2022, p.5). Their purpose is to authorize non-commercial, constrained land uses. Therefore, the usage is confined and does not incentives people to develop projects for TLUs. Also, neighborhoods can be detrimental to the success of the TLUs. Strong opposition can limit local authorities and block change (Carruthers & Tretter, 2022).
Third, the attitude of citizens towards TLUs is controversial. On the one hand, the temporary and "newness" components can trigger curiosity and excitement. However, on the other hand, once people are acquainted and somewhat attached to the place, the moment the TLU is dismantled can cause confusion and annoyance (Carruthers & Tretter, 2022).
Finally, the research results divide into two groups. The first one - made of a journalist, a city employee, and a TLU Entrepreneur. They believe that the process for TLUs is complex, the bureaucracy is lengthy and consider it the biggest barrier to TLUs enactment. Also, they argue that there is no clear communication between the regulatory bodies. The second one - made of a city councilor and two city planners - believes that TLUs are an excellent opportunity for new horizons of experimentation and creation. However, it is a unique and unknown territory that needs to be tested (Carruthers & Tretter, 2022).
Overall, they all agree that TLUs could benefit Calgary's economy. The last suggestion the study provides is to create a webpage with a database that combines stakeholders, entrepreneurs, developers, landowners, and other actors and where they can jointly work on the TLUs (Carruthers & Tretter, 2022).

Hamilton-Hart (2017) investigated whether the legal environment and the allocation of political resources can affect the incentives for changes in the property rights regime. The study focused on three areas: Sarawak, Malaysia, West Kalimantan, Indonesia, and Riau, Indonesia, where property rights institutions have managed land acquisitions and land use in the palm oil industry (Hamilton-Hart, 2017).
Sarawak's government has followed the "legalism" or "Rule-by-law" approach. According to Tushnet (2014, p.1), "a rule-by-law system exists when the laws in place are reliably applied, subject only to the kinds of random and minor deviations that occur in any system operated by human beings. In a rule-by-law system, people can generally plan for the short term. But their ability to do so is limited by the fact that nothing in a rule-by-law system precludes the government (a term I use to refer generally to those with the power to alter the law) from changing the rules whenever they choose." Although one might argue that the stricter the laws system is, the better it functions, this case study perfectly showed how this, in fact, is not true. The system has been corrupted, and actors have gotten the land because of strategic connections rather than being entitled by the law (Hamilton-Hart, 2017).
Until 2014, rules were an instrument of the Chief Minister and his family, allowing for a land transfer obtained through coercion. Dispossessed claimants had the right to pursue customary land petitions, but almost none succeeded. After the Chief Minister resigned, two new political structures could arise. The first political option was the federal government's personal and arbitrary rules, leaving out the courts' power. The second political option was toward pluralism, with the court having the central role of resolving disputes (Hamilton-Hart, 2017).
However, neither prevailed, and the situation is still uncertain.
West Kalimantan's legal environment is called pluralism, and it was introduced in 1999, with the start of democratization. Merry (1988, p.1) states, "'legal pluralism' is generally defined as a situation in which two or more legal systems coexist in the same social field."

Legal pluralism in West Kalimantan has been constituted by: (i) the central government, (ii) the local government, and (iii) community groups that enforce the so-called *adat*, or customary law (Hamilton-Hart, 2017).
The first two have had power over customary law and have limited it. However, customary law has become part of the legal environment. As a result, the legal framework has been unclear. Furthermore, different ethnicities have joined in land conflicts, causing resistance and have organized protests. As a result, the property rights are negotiated rather than legalized (Hamilton-Hart, 2017).
Riau has not had a proper legal environment. Illegality is routinized, and laws, practices, and rules are disregarded. The plantation of palm oil has been illegal for the vast majority. Allegedly local politicians and powerholders have been involved, though outside their roles' scope. Dispossessed land claimants have objected directly to the palm oil companies and local government leaders (Hamilton-Hart, 2017).
Therefore, these regimes seem ineffective. Nevertheless, surprisingly, Riau's illegal approach has had more balance and less resistance than the other two.

Muñoz Gielen et al. (2017) analyzed the involvement of public bodies in land development and what kind of tools they use for public value capture in three countries, i.e., the United Kingdom, The Netherlands, and Spain.
The public value instruments have divided into blunt instruments and indirect instruments. Direct instruments are based on wealth redistribution that can be captured through taxes. It means that the economic value increase should go to the community, not the landowner. Local authorities regulate indirect instruments and foresee that the developers and landowners compensate for the effects of their projects (Muñoz Gielen et al., 2017).
There are many examples of these instruments. First, negotiable development obligations (NDOs) and non-negotiable development obligations (N-NDOs). As the name suggests, the former is a negotiable agreement that can be adjusted based on personal requirements, e.g., planning duties in the UK and compromisos complementarios in Spain. The downside is that commitment is frequently discretionary. In the N-NDOs, the public body is in charge, and developers or landowners must abide by it, e.g., Erschliessungsbeitrag in Germany and the Community Infrastructure Levy in the UK (Muñoz Gielen et al., 2017).
Second, the government can acquire land, recover and sell it again. It is a way to recoup national land and make profits. Also, the government can make special agreements with private parties to carry the risks while they share parts of the profits for the land value increase (Muñoz Gielen et al., 2017).
Third, under specific circumstances and legal frameworks, public institutions can force the landowner to enhance the condition of their land while paying for all the related expenses. For example, the Umlegung in Germany and the Reparcelación in Spain (Muñoz Gielen et al., 2017).
The article's authors investigated different management styles in three countries to understand the relationships between public bodies, developers, and private entities (Muñoz Gielen et al., 2017).
The UK has seen a progressive development toward more openness and collaboration between public and private bodies and developers. The approach is a mixture between NDOs and N-NDOs. Because of higher regularization and open communication, the number of participants and people abiding by obligations has significantly increased (Muñoz Gielen et al., 2017).
In Spain, multiple realities coexist. First, as in the UK, there are both negotiable and non-negotiable obligations. Once again, developers tend to respect and commit to N-NDOs, e.g., the land readjustment (LR) "Reparcelación." However, in Spain, there are different realities. The article focused on two in particular, i.e., Valencia and Basque (Muñoz Gielen et al., 2017).

In Valencia, legal readjustments have permitted public bodies' intervention in private land. Municipalities can organize public tenders to select the party for the land development project. The landowner must give the land and pay their part of the expenses. The Basque framework has focused on active public governance and has shown significant results. For example, between 2002-2005, the municipality of Vitoria-Gasteiz and the Basque government built social/affordable houses, constituting 70% of the total new housing production in the city. It was possible because they forced private parties to contribute, even if it meant expropriating them (Muñoz Gielen et al., 2017).
The Dutch approach has seen the most remarkable change as the public bodies slowly stepped down in actively engaging in land development projects. Nowadays, 30% of the total housing stock is socially rented housing. Nevertheless, the 2008 crisis has taught a valuable lesson on the high risks entailed with the housing market. As a result, it can be observed that a shift toward new land policies could include more NDOs alongside the N-NDOs (Muñoz Gielen et al., 2017).

Al Mamun & Kim (2020) analyzed land use projects and management around the buffer zone in Chittagong Metropolitan Area. A buffer zone (BZ), according to Bentrup (2008, p.7), is "typically designed to achieve multiple objectives— objectives of individual landowners, the community, and general public." Also, it reduces environmental deterioration. In other words, these areas exist as a breathing cushion to break the heavy industrialization and housing pattern. However, the institutional bodies lack the knowledge to recognize the value of these zones (al Mamun & Kim, 2020; Bentrup, 2008).
The study identified two oppositions, the authorities versus the practitioners and the academics. The first group prioritized urbanization, whereas the latter has environmental preservation, hence buffer zones (al Mamun & Kim, 2020).
Additionally, because local governments overlooked the importance of these areas while focusing on heavy buildings, locals did not feel motivated to join forestry programs that aim at protecting BZ. In turn, it has created tension and poor coordination between the parties involved and has been detrimental to the development of buffer zones (al Mamun & Kim, 2020).

4.3 The Conflicts between Local and National Government Control

This section focuses on conflicts between local and government regulations and control. The provision coming from central governments are not always optimal, as they do not entirely fit the needs of local realities. Therefore, local and regional institutions either circumnavigate regulations or endure continuous fights with national governments to obtain more independence. Furthermore, a predominant central control is due to a lack of trust between the national and regional institutional bodies.

van Straalen & Witte (2018) examined the problematic relationship between formal and informal regional planning authorities in The Netherlands due to their constant tension resulting in suboptimal planning.
Informal planning occurs at the regional level, while formal agreements occur at the provincial level. While formal provincial planning is the primary method of determining regional planning objectives, many problems are determined at the informal level (van Straalen & Witte, 2018).
Two case studies are presented in order to illustrate these malfunctions. The first case referred to Europe, while the second referred to a region example.
The European example regarded Trans-European Transport Network (TEN-T). TEN-T policy involves establishing a network of railway lines, roads, inland waterways, ports, airports, and railroads throughout Europe (European Commission, 2023, February 28).

Despite Dutch provinces' efforts to participate in European decision-making concerning the TEN-T corridors, their influence remained somewhat delimited as an international board consisting of national transport and infrastructure development ministries made decisions about transnational corridors (van Straalen & Witte, 2018).
The regional case was about the exercise of planning priorities around city-regional developments.
The case study illustrated the Netherlands' complicated formal and informal regional governance scopes. At the regional level, provinces (formal regional planning authorities) have been one of many stakeholders negotiating informal arrangements for policy implementation. Consequently, there have been two types of pressure: international and informal, preventing fair and equal planning for provinces (van Straalen & Witte, 2018).

Cai et al. (2017) investigated the national government's exercise of floor-to-area ratio (FAR), a land use settlement, in thirty big Chinese cities. FAR has set the upper limit on the floor area ratio to the lot dimension of the land the developer constructs (Cai et al., 2017).
The analysis showed that out of the 854 cases, only 181 were built above the limit, and the medium alteration was around 39.9% (Cai et al., 2017).
However, two are the crucial takeaways from this study. First, the developer had to pay a fee to build above the limit. The fee could vary based on whether the developer had connections with local governmental authorities. Eventually, they chose the best deal. Furthermore, the location was essential when deciding whether to pay for the upgrade (Cai et al., 2017).
Nevertheless, no matter the ties with the authorities, the second focal point is that the FAR has been below the market optimum so far. The city's political leaders and key figures from relevant local government agencies are the bodies that determine land management and use regulations. Yet, despite their efforts to promote a reasonable and logical use of land, the national laws have been incredibly severe and have constrained land development (Cai et al., 2017).

Song et al. (2021) proposed three types of transit-oriented developments (TOD) and how the institutional settings clout urban growth in China.
TOD prioritizes the sustainable use of land rather than just a mean for generating revenues. It is a plan that organizes space for multiple purposes. Moreover, it allows the merger of transit, land, and economic development (Song et al., 2021).
The first type of TOD is a common TOD, i.e., based on ordinary stations. Under this TOD, the local bodies are often entrepreneurial, meaning they focus on land revenue and favor single-activity areas. They do not support conversations between developers and transit providers and generally curb TOD growth (Song et al., 2021).
The second TOD is a combination of rail and property (R+P). The metro company and local governments agree on certain informal arrangements that circumvent government boundaries and grant both parties profitable returns. The arrangement is organized as follows: a metro organization can build air rights above stations but must obtain these rights through public auctions. Law Insider (2023, February 27) defines air rights as "the exclusive undisturbed use and control of a designated air space within the perimeter of a stated land area and within stated elevations." On the other hand, the local institutions guarantee to give these rights to the metro company (Song et al., 2021; Wang et al., 2019).
The third TOD is on regional railways. The train stops in China are peculiar because they are far apart from each other and thus allow for the creation of new towns around each station (Song et al., 2021). The main difference with the R+P is that the local institutions can divide the air rights with the land rights and give the building land rights to other parties. In this way, local governments can create multi-function areas, and every train stop becomes a hub of activities and different attractions (Song et al., 2021).

Overall, the R+P TOD and integrated hub station development allow for less rigidity in governance and smoother collaboration and communication between stakeholders (Song et al., 2021).

Wang et al. (2019) analyzed different types of transit-oriented developments (TODs) in two Chines cities—specifically Shenzhen and Wuhan.
The goal was to investigate the current employment of value-capture instruments for public transportation development (Wang et al., 2019). Although the willingness to implement these instruments, Chinese cities are still heavily constrained both fiscally and in land management. As a result, local authorities have developed informal practices to bypass them (Wang et al., 2019).
Additionally, there is no private land. Hence the state owns all the urban land, and the villages own the rural land. Developers are granted a land-use right through the payment of a fee. However, several malfunctions are detrimental to the effective implementation of TOD strategies (Wang et al., 2019).
First, the system does not provide the proper national regulations to integrate land development in the transit area, and to contrast this absence, local authorities have designed alternative TODs (Wang et al., 2019).
Second, local governmental bodies have started collaborating with private parties. One example is the FAR system mentioned in the previous paper (Cai et al., 2017).
Third, a substantial misalignment between the involved parties, i.e., local and regional authorities, creates distrust among developers who do not feel safe investing in new projects.
Also, local communities are not part of the land acquisition process (Wang et al., 2019).
Furthermore, the article proposed different case studies. The first is rail + property (R+P) in Shenzhen. As was seen in the Song et al. (2021) article, the model of the R+P, the city developed a framework through which metro companies entirely manage the development of TOD. The revenues then go to a public pool that is reinvested. However, the ability of these corporations to effectively carry out the project is in question (Cai et al., 2017; Song et al., 2021).
Second, Wuhan has implemented a land reserve strategy. Wuhan Metro Corporation appoints a developer in charge of the TOD project but retains the revenues. However, tension arises because of the presence of the two stakeholders (Song et al., 2021).

4.4 Public Participation and Perception

The next articles mainly focus on how community engagement can be enhanced and nurtured. Furthermore, they discuss methods to improve public participation response, i.e., give honest and sincere personal opinions on land use matters instead of "following the mass' opinion."
They argue that locals can give more insights into how land use projects and developments are performing and whether they are aligned with their needs and desires. Also, the authors investigate people's support for future plans.

Ramadhan et al. (2022) studied the dilemma in marine spatial planning in Karimunjawa National Park. The authors carried out a survey to analyze the perspectives of planners and the community during the planning processes (Ramadhan et al., 2022).
In total, there were five categories of respondents, i.e., (i) local authority 1, the responsible agency for Marine Zoning in Karimunjawa; (ii) local authority 2, all government agencies in Karimunjawa; (iii) NGO, a non-governmental organization; (iv) local people of Karimunjawa and, (v) university researchers that committed in Karimunjawa studies (Ramadhan et al., 2022).

The human dimension in the study was based on two stands, competencies and social capital (Lehtonen, 2004). The competencies framework analyzed the effect of public policies on people and society through the social structure. The method assumed that if the social conditions enhance, it is possible to comprehend sustainable development. It had a conservative standpoint where only the institutional bodies could decide on the human dimension and the ecological objectives. The participation of stakeholders was limited to the qualified ones who could provide solutions to achieve sustainable goals. Thus, the wider public was uninvolved (Ramadhan et al., 2022).
Social capital focused on social networks that form economy-society relationships. Therefore, they disagreed on conservative methods that excluded actors and resulted in the unjust allocation of marine space. Moreover, social capital saw the value in cultural heritage because it sheds light on locals' actual values and needs in the context of people-sea relationships. Therefore, including the community in the decision-making process was crucial because they knew how their land was managed and was willing to do whatever it took to preserve it (Lehtonen, 2004; Ramadhan et al., 2022).
The study identified three dilemmas: intervention, regulatory, and investment.
The intervention dilemma concerned public involvement in the planning stages. Planners had the resources and knowledge to allocate space systematically but had to deal with public opinion that opposed their proposals and led to conflicts. In addition, local communities did not understand how ecosystems function and use resources. However, planners could not disregard communities' opinions because Indonesia's administrative framework forced them to run public consultations (Ramadhan et al., 2022).
The investment dilemma regarded government agencies. They contended the allocation of the Karimunjawa National Park. Tourism agencies exploited the territory for tourism purposes. Tourism attracted investors and visitors, resulting in economic development and improved facilities and infrastructure. Nevertheless, it only benefitted people living inside the village. On the other hand, the Karimunjawa National Park wanted to conserve the ecological function of the region (Ramadhan et al., 2022).
The regulatory dilemma was on the different regulations for different zones. The most important authority in the Karimunjawa National Park decided upon these regulations. They depended on whether a zone was protected or the degree of collaboration it had with stakeholders (Ramadhan et al., 2022).

Brown (2015) proposed a method for gathering public opinion on land use planning, and the two key concepts were drawn from two scholars, namely Surowiecki and Yankelovich. First, James Surowiecki (2004) introduced the "wisdom of crowds," which is the ability of vast groups of people to provide solutions and opinions to problems that are both high-quality and more relevant than experts' opinions. In addition, they have a more profound knowledge of the stated issue and are usually directly affected by it.
Daniel Yankelovich (1991) popularized the concept of "public judgment." However, public judgment is not a synonym for mass opinion but rather a high-quality response to a dispute (Brown, 2015; Daniel Yankelovich, 1991).
The author applied these two theories to the Public Participation Geographic Information System (PPGIS). The PPGIS is a place-based value method that assesses people's unified values correlated with places. It is then used for land use planning (Brown, 2015).
From the operational examples, the wisdom of crowds was used as support to land management agencies, state authorities, and policymakers.
It is crucial to highlight that public judgment and the wisdom of crowds is the counterpart of technical knowledge. The main challenges of the author's approach were the mutual trust be-

tween participants and between participants and planning bodies. Furthermore, “leading opinions” or an excessively homogeneous group could cloud the judgment of other participants. Therefore, the selection process of the individuals to be interviewed must be thorough and geographically scattered (Brown, 2015).

Esmaeilpoorarabi et al. (2020) carried out a survey in the biggest city in Australia to collect public opinion on innovation districts. The total number of surveyed people was 1040 (Esmaeilpoorarabi et al., 2020).
Urban innovation districts are areas where innovation grows and have been associated with research, education, science, and technology. Therefore, the people within it create critical linkages and relationships. They are usually knowledgeable individuals with an acceptable quality of life and above-average standards (Esmaeilpoorarabi et al., 2020).
However, because of the peculiarity of these urban districts, there has always been a clear distinction between people inside and outside these areas. Therefore, the study wanted to find what could be the features or factors that could enhance community engagement. Community engagement comes in different forms, i.e., through essential networks, information sharing, and trust, and the bottom line of innovation districts is to revamp neighborhoods (Esmaeilpoorarabi et al., 2020).
The analysis was carried out through three main factors, namely (i) public trust factors, (ii) restrictive factors, and (iii) welcoming factors (Esmaeilpoorarabi et al., 2020).
Public factors were the worst of the three because of a substantial distrust of respondents on innovation districts, as they have been boosting housing prices and have altered the natural environment. As a result, they have been perceived as elite groups that are unrelatable and unequal (Esmaeilpoorarabi et al., 2020).
Nevertheless, they all agreed that these districts have eased knowledge-based economic growth. Restrictive factors were divided in two. First, senses and feelings highlighted that there have been non-existing connections between the community and people within the district. Second, functions and facilities emphasized that the districts are still too expensive, with limited housing options and limited resources. Furthermore, the community pointed out that the innovation districts inside the city are overcrowded, and those on the outskirts are too packed with cars and parking (Esmaeilpoorarabi et al., 2020).
Welcoming factors were found in diverse and authentic scenes, e.g., cultural events, shopping centers, cutting-edge technology, healthcare services, and school. Additionally, safety, a positive reputation, and good connections with other areas of the city are other factors that could motivate the community to live around innovation districts (Esmaeilpoorarabi et al., 2020).
Overall, the analysis highlighted that respondents’ expectations must be met to ensure that the community feels engaged and represented, for instance, by focusing on broader activities rather than developing only knowledge-based ones. Nevertheless, the tendency has been to focus on these districts’ features instead of bridging the gap between outside communities and people within the innovation districts (Esmaeilpoorarabi et al., 2020).

Fasth et al. (2020) investigated how, in 2012, the municipality of Upplands Väsby started a new urban project toward 2040. The main goal was to revive the town by turning it into a modern and sustainable place with a wide range of dwellings and work opportunities (Fasth et al., 2020).
For this reason, the municipal office considered the community's involvement, academics, and scientists of the utmost importance. Therefore, the study had the scope to outline a portfolio of actions based on citizens’ preferences, which could help policymakers and decision-makers in developing the town according to actual needs. Thus, the two stakeholder groups of references were Swedish and non-Swedish citizens.

The reason for choosing these two groups is that non-Swedish citizens have experienced residential segregation. As a result, it has influenced the labor market, educational accomplishments, health results, and more (Fasth et al., 2020).
The analysis was divided into multiple steps. First, it carried out a Web Survey to identify land use, urban development, and community service needs. The survey was divided into four parts and twenty items. For each section, the surveyed people had to assess their preference. Second, the results were divided into three conflict indexes: (i) two within-group conflict indexes and (ii) one between-group conflict index (Fasth et al., 2020). The former highlighted that social influence played a significant role in clouting individuals' judgment inside the same group. Third, two crucial outcomes of the analysis were the conflict constrained and counterproductive portfolios (Fasth et al., 2020). The conflict constrained portfolio showed how much a portfolio could change based on conflicts. The counterproductive portfolio, on the other hand, was a portfolio only made of harmful and weak actions (Fasth et al., 2020).
Fourth, the study conducted a sensitivity analysis to determine which actions were most likely to trigger conflicts.

Gu et al. (2022) analyzed urban residents' perceptions of using peri-urban land for various purposes. It created a survey based on Maslow's hierarchy of needs in combination with the three sustainability pillars - economic, social, and environmental - to investigate their preferences. According to the CFI Team (2022) "Maslow's hierarchy of needs is a theory of psychology explaining human motivation based on the pursuit of different levels of needs. The theory states that humans are motivated to fulfill their needs in a hierarchical order. This order begins with the most basic needs before moving on to more advanced needs. The ultimate goal, according to this theory, is to reach the fifth level of the hierarchy: self-actualization."
People from different fields of expertise created the survey, and the interest area comprised Shangai, Wuhan, and Chengdu. However, urban residents constituted the demand side as the parties who would benefit most from peri-urban spaces. The results showed that the overall preference for these areas is a safe place where people can relax and enjoy nature and leisure time. Thus, they should not be used for industrial purposes but rather for tourism. In fact, peri-urban zones should not become replicas of cities (Gu et al., 2022).
Moreover, despite the heavy use of peri-urban areas for food and water production, they should be retrieved nationally. It would relieve the weight on these places so that they can be used for other uses, such as ecological recreational, and social uses (Gu et al., 2022).
Nevertheless, farmers are still the primary owners of these areas, so they must continuously adapt to urban residents' needs. Therefore, policies play a crucial role since they regulate and support changes, i.e., limiting industrialization, easing urban-rural amalgamation, and considering residents' priorities to achieve sustainable development. Additionally, they can guide farmers in revamping rural zones within megacities while fulfilling the needs of metropolitan residents (Gu et al., 2022).

Foelske & van Riper (2020) surveyed the residents of Will County in Illinois. The County is not only located in a vital area, but it is also exploited for multiple purposes. The analysis wanted to gather data about residents' spatial preferences (Foelske & van Riper, 2020). The purpose was to give insights into the likings of the population, hence helping management bodies to administer resources and the land efficiently. Furthermore, it wanted to investigate whether people in the same neighborhoods had similar preferences and map them (Foelske & van Riper, 2020).
From the results, residents preferred plans including agriculture, protected grasslands, bison presence, and nearer distance to recreational areas. However, they were negatively inclined to

plans involving residential growth and higher unemployment rates (Foelske & van Riper, 2020).
Notwithstanding some similarities in neighbors' preferences, there was no proper trend. Therefore, the analysis detected heterogeneity in their choices. Nevertheless, for the study's goal, heterogeneous inclinations are still valuable, as they give a complete picture of people's preferences. Consequently, uncovering resistance and proposing solutions becomes easier (Foelske & van Riper, 2020).

Girma et al. (2021) investigated the willingness to pay (WTP) of people leaving nearby Lake Ziway in Ethiopia for its restoration. Significantly it underlied that the lake is slowly shrinking, and because it is a significant economic resource, its degradation has important consequences for its value (Girma et al., 2021).
The study interviewed 248 individuals from households in the Kebeles and determined two types of willingness to pay: a monetary WTP and a labor WTP.
Among the respondents, 62.9% showed a labor WTP. Because of their limited income, they could not afford a monetary WTP. For the same reason, 7.6% did not participate at all (Girma et al., 2021).
The remaining actors were more prominent farmers that were not only able and willing to pay on a monetary basis but also were greatly affected by the worsening conditions of the lake. They rely on the lake's water to irrigate their plantations, so they understood its vital role (Girma et al., 2021).
The conclusion was that if the right institutional bodies lead the project, there are enough resources, both in monetary and workforce terms, to restore the lake and counteract its shrinkage.

McLeod & Curtis (2019) surveyed households in Perth, Australia, about the growing housing density, multi-purpose construction development, and more efficient and mixed public transportation along the main boulevard South Street (McLeod & Curtis, 2019). All of them were at most 100m from South Street. Therefore, the transportation means could change from car-focused to public transportation-focused. In addition, land use would emphasize multi-functionalities, such as housing, shopping centers, and train stations (McLeod & Curtis, 2019).
One of the most important points of this research is that the results were shared with planners and crucial stakeholders.
The study's outcome showed that on a general basis, respondents were positively disposed towards more sustainable practices, i.e., limiting the use of cars. Moreover, a decrease in the number of cars would also mean less traffic (McLeod & Curtis, 2019).
Furthermore, residents and professional stakeholders agreed on buildings not exceeding four floors. Nevertheless, there were opposing views on whether they should be built right next to South Streets or nearby. Also, a small portion of residents completely opposed to tall buildings (McLeod & Curtis, 2019).
Despite general public support, state governments and institutional bodies truly need more effectiveness and clear direction. Their inability to cooperate and communicate has hampered the full opportunity of this project (McLeod & Curtis, 2019).

Miskolczi et al. (2020) analyzed all the aspects that influence the attractiveness of the Danube cruise that goes through Vienna, Budapest, and Belgrade (Miskolczi et al., 2020).
The study interviewed stakeholders and experts on the main pain points of the overall service. It then provided suggestions from the interviewed people on how to improve it.
The main detected problems were four. First, as a river, the water level varies and can disrupt the service. Therefore, the proposed advice concerned monitoring the water levels and preparing a plan B.

Second, cities' mobility can compromise tourists' abilities in multiple ways. For example, the tourists reaching the starting location by car could get stuck in traffic congestion. Also, people going from the airport to the starting cruise location could face the same issues. Additionally, moving around on public transportation while sightseeing can be compromised because of traffic. Therefore, the stakeholders suggested developing an urban traffic management plan and widening the information available on the current traffic load status (Miskolczi et al., 2020).
Third, connected to the second pain point, the availability of parking spaces is not always sufficient. Therefore, they proposed to create broad enough areas for cruise tourists (Miskolczi et al., 2020).
Fourth, the cruising schedule must be almost perfect for allowing tourists to arrive in time for all the attraction appointments. The advice was to create a special reservation system and expand the number of possible attractions (Miskolczi et al., 2020).

4.5 Collaboration with Local Communities

The studies in this section are similar to the previous one, but they focus more narrowly on collaboration with local communities and indigenous. The main difference between general public participation and indigenous communities is that public participation can comprise citizens, immigrants, and other various stakeholders. Whereas indigenous groups or local communities are constituted by people with a deep bond with the land and, in most cases, use and manage land following long-lasting legacies and practices.

Edwards et al. (2018) proposed a framework that could work as the base for a roleplaying game. Because of its vital role in local communities, this tool could be a learning experience for actors managing the Waiapu Catchment on the East Coast on the North Island of New Zealand.
The approach proposed the integration of three different frameworks, i.e., "adaptive governance," "action research," and "Kaupapa Māori" (Edwards et al., 2018, pp.48-49).
Adaptive governance would embrace diversity and collaboration between the government and the communities. Since human relations are at the center of everything, beneficial synergies and fluid communication between stakeholders would substitute linear and goal-oriented management. Therefore, it would empower communities and make the learning process collective (Edwards et al., 2018).
Action research would be bottom-up cooperation between locals and researchers that could enable change. The object should be to raise awareness among the community's members so they can use their resources efficiently. Benefits would be mutual as agencies better grasps how to incorporate policy designs and locals and their environment, and the trust could grow between the community and the agency (Edwards et al., 2018).
Kaupapa Māori is the philosophy of the Māori. It focuses on proactiveness and positive motivation. Therefore, Kaupapa Māori should be the core mindset of the overall approach (Edwards et al., 2018).

Aurenhammer (2017) analyzed who are the most important actors and how they interact with one another in land use governance in Bavaria.
More specifically, the study's goal was to investigate the decision networks regarding the local Bavarian Forest Owner Association (FOAs) (Aurenhammer, 2017).
The crucial point of this analysis was that for initiatives to be successful, they needed the support and approval of private actors, i.e., forest owners. Therefore, the local bodies had to persuade forest owners of the usefulness and importance of the policies. The study ranked the parties on their importance. First, the most influential actors are FOAs, because of their formal

and informal competencies. Second and third were local forest administrators and forest owner associations due to their deep knowledge of forests (Aurenhammer, 2017).
All these parties agreed on initiatives only if their personal interests aligned with the initiatives, and the degree of participation depended on the actor. Nevertheless, if they could work jointly, the chances of success would be higher (Aurenhammer, 2017).
Overall, all the parties had common goals, such as joint harvesting, marketing of wood, and close cooperation between the Local Forest Administrations and FOAs (Aurenhammer, 2017).

Sotirov et al. (2017) explored whether collaborative, participatory policies combined with future thinking may promote cooperation among actors toward policies that meet a shared focus on sustainability and incorporate competing land-use requirements (Sotirov et al., 2017). Therefore, the study analyzed three cases in Germany's regional forests, i.e., Upper Palatinate and South of Munich Bavaria, and the Black Forest National Park in Baden-Wuerttemberg.
The focal point was whether it could be possible to change the core beliefs of actors, which are the most profound and important beliefs. These beliefs guide choices and policy designs. Therefore, if actors have utterly different core beliefs, it might be complicated to change their minds.
The results were multiple. First, it identified three different actors' clusters, i.e., private forest owners, public forest enterprises, wood industries, and similar decision-makers from right-wing political parties (Sotirov et al., 2017). This cluster had core beliefs such as private property rights and economic freedom, and they disagree on restrictions of state rules on forests and socio-ecological goals (Sotirov et al., 2017). The second cluster was formed by environmental NGOs and leaders, citizens' gatherings, and decision-makers from the left wing. They supported habitats and species conservation as public goods that must be preserved (Sotirov et al., 2017). The third cluster was formed by state forest management that believed in multi-functional forest administration and public goods. They sought state regulations and experts in forest management (Sotirov et al., 2017).
The study also highlighted the level of conflict-affected actors' ability to collaborate. The stronger the conflicts, the more the actors only focus on their own beliefs rather than trying to embrace different opinions. In Upper Palatinate, the conflict level was low, and forest owners and other actors were inclined toward combining economic and environmental beliefs with sustainable forest management (Sotirov et al., 2017). The conflict level in the South of Munich was medium. Hence, NGOs and Nature Conservation Organizations fought for the environment. In the Black Forest National Park, the conflict level was high. Therefore, the opposing actors were feisty and stubborn (Sotirov et al., 2017).

Ohmura & Creutzburg (2021) investigated the perception of stakeholders on policy frameworks toward a more sustainable economy or green growth. According to the OECD (2011, p. 8), green growth "aims to promote economic growth and development while addressing four key environmental challenges: climate change, unsustainable use of natural resources, loss of biodiversity and ecosystem services, and unsustainable materials management." Therefore, the policies are fundamental to guide this transition.
The results showed that forest stakeholders, i.e., wood and private sector industries had two primary goals. First, to loosen the government instruments that regulate Swiss forests use. It could result in a more chaotic approach, with space for free will and arbitrage or a way to alleviate stakeholder conflicts (Ohmura & Creutzburg, 2021).
Second, forest stakeholders were closed off from other industries. Therefore, they would keep stricter policies when regulating interactions with outside industries. They believed forests are fragile, and thus they should be protected from additional market demand. Thus, they would rather isolate themselves from the rest of the industries (Ohmura & Creutzburg, 2021).

Biaou et al. (2022) investigated the leading causes of land use and land cover change (LULCC) in Benin's villages. Specifically, the devastating effects on the Alibori-Superieur and Ouenou-Benou forests. It executed a focus group with local managers and 483 individuals from 25 villages 10km away from one another (Biaou et al., 2022). As mentioned above, land use is the exploitation of land for various purposes, e.g., profit and non-profit. In contrast, the OECD (2023, February 10) describes land use change as "Loss of natural and semi-natural vegetated land is presented as a proxy for pressures on biodiversity and ecosystems. This includes tree cover, grassland, wetland, shrubland, and sparse vegetation converted to any other land cover type". Therefore, it calls for immediate action through and of policies that can halt the progressive destruction of these delicate ecosystems.
The two main stakeholders of the study were the socioeconomic groups of different villages and the managers (Biaou et al., 2022). They identified that the drivers of LULCC were (i) inadequate agricultural habits, (ii) population growth which increased the demand for the primary sectors' products, (iii) illegal logging and grazing, (iv) tense relationships among stakeholders in land administration, (v) political aspects that did not take into proper account the natural causes of LULCC and (vi) poverty. Poverty played a major role among LULCC drivers because local populations are highly dependent on forests and charcoal production. However, both forest exploitation and charcoal production are harmful to the environment. Nevertheless, there has not been alternatives as more sustainable practices are inaccessible (Biaou et al., 2022).
Therefore, the study proposed some policies to overcome LULCC. First, the reinforcement of forests legislation could regulate and restrict their exploitation if needed. Second, adjusting to REDD+ practices could lower LULCC and increase carbon accumulation. Third, policies could support the transition to sustainable energy for residents. Lastly, an overall crucial factor was that nothing could ever change without proper support from political and governmental bodies (Biaou et al., 2022).

4.6 Developers' Power

The following study does not belong to any of the previous groups as different from them, it presents a case where the ones retaining the power are the developers. In fact, due to developers' essential expertise, they use it as leverage to obtain the best deals from institutional bodies. Therefore, it can be considered the only case where the government bodies do not have ubiquitous power.

Kang & Homsy (2020) analyzed whether developers' threats to municipalities were effective in development projects. It surveyed planners and elected officials in New York towns, counties, villages, and cities (Kang & Homsy, 2020).
Developers can create tension and rivalries between municipalities. For example, they threaten to leave the development project if they think an alternative municipality will offer better benefits.
The study set four hypotheses that resulted in four results through the analysis. First, municipalities with good communication, i.e., disclosing land development plans, could lower the chances of developers' threats. It created mutual trust, and municipalities were less likely to compete with one another. Hence, developers were forced to accept commonly agreed benefits (Kang & Homsy, 2020).
Second, employing municipal staff rather than working with contracted professionals did not decrease developers' threats. Furthermore, the employed staff in poorer regions seemed to receive even more threats, as developers found it compelling.
Third, engaging the public was not beneficial. On the contrary, it slowed the process, and developers could take advantage of diverging opinions (Kang & Homsy, 2020).

5. Discussion

The SLR in this thesis could identify several crucial aspects of the literature. The following section will discuss the findings in conjunction with the proposed theoretical background. Subsequently, it will comment on whether the literature adequately answered the research questions. One critical remark is that although actors are divided precisely, in reality they are deeply intertwined, so it is difficult to pinpoint them.
Additionally, all present cases give a hands-on illustration of the theoretical background.

Furthermore, the most important takeaway of this thesis is that no matter the country, the governments will always have the last say on the projects and proposals. Specifically in the context of land use, depending on the country, governments can actively or passively influence the development of projects on the national territories. Active involvement means contributing to or forcing their presence in plans. On the other hand, passive involvement means providing the regulations and policies to carry out the plans.
Also, the following sections will analyze the various actors and display the articles' examples from different perspectives.

Finally, all the proposed cases involve spatial planning, land development projects, and land use.

5.1 The Actors

The most important aspect of this research is identifying the actors. Below there will be a list of actors that are organized by degree of influence. Also, there next sections will explain the reasons behind actors' behaviors and decisions.

5.1.1 Institutional Bodies and Their Motives

Across all articles, the most prominent parties are the institutional bodies. In the theoretical background, this thesis has developed several crucial roles and actions that the institutional bodies should take.
First, government bodies are shaping and building national systems of innovation. As beforementioned, the national systems of innovation result from delicate relationships and synergies within countries, and each country has its own specific design.
The system only exists because the national government creates the frameworks that guide them, and they are exact and localized. Public bodies appoint policymakers to design the proper regulations and policies to support the system. Thus, this thesis will consider policymakers as the representatives of institutional bodies by working on their behalf. According to Lundvall (2016, p. 89), policymakers should always include these three aspects: having extensive knowledge of their country's system, knowing how a national system of innovation works, and being able to adapt to changes. Thus, as the institutional body selects the policymakers, it should choose them based on their awareness of land use and end users' needs. The analogy with microeconomics provides a basis for explaining their relationship. Additionally, it discusses the importance of comprehensive information about users, i.e., the stakeholders, for producers. Otherwise, it could lead to unsatisfactory innovations, as happened in the case of the upper limit on the FAR in China (Lundvall, 2016; Cai et al., 2017).

Restrictive regulations are another aspect that should be avoided when designing policies. Carruthers & Tretter (2022) propose a good example where unclear or restrictive regulations hinder TLUs growth. TLUs could be an excellent opportunity to give a space and a voice to minorities. However, because Calgary lacks suitable policies, and the ones in place are too restrictive, TLU projects struggle to take off. Also, people do not have the right motivation or incentives to invest time and resources in them.
Second, policymakers should consider the difference between national states and national systems. It makes a considerable difference, as regardless of the geographic borders of a national state, a country can have high heterogeneity. Hence different national systems of innovations within it. The articles in section 5.2 present different policy frameworks and their impacts.
For instance, Muñoz Gielen et al. (2017) and Hamilton-Hart (2017) show how greatly national systems can vary based on their country. More specifically, Muñoz Gielen et al. (2017) dive deeper and present different Spanish frameworks, i.e., Valencia and the Basque region.
Sun et al. (2017) explore how the public bodies appointed the CSC as mediators between them and the villagers. The CSC set up incentives that eventually convinced the villagers to give up their land in exchange for a conspicuous package. However, as it will discuss later, although the arrangements and incentives looked appropriate, villagers were kept from the decision-making process. Therefore, they just had to accept the compensation, which, from an ethical standpoint, is unfair.

Fourth governments divide in multiple layers, i.e., national, regional, and local governments. They also break between formal and informal planning authorities to further complicate it. The conflicts occur because national provisions and regulations are not always optimal. Thus, local authorities must find ways to work around them for the success of projects.
Section 5.3 focus on the conflicts between national and regional institutional bodies. Van Straalen & Witte (2018) discuss how the problematic relationship between formal and informal authorities hampers the success and effectiveness of planning processes. Specifically, the difference between regional informal planning authorities and provincial formal planning authorities. Cai et al. (2017) show another example of how developers bypass regulations by paying fees to build above the limit set by national governments. Because the FAR is too stringent, developers and local governments must make specific agreements. As a result, the constructions are most competitive and have higher chances in the market.
Furthermore, Song et al. (2021) propose three local TOD practices that bypass national regulations. It is essential to highlight the accomplishment of these agreements in circumnavigating national rules because they are informal. Therefore, it is evident how sometimes national regulations fail to provide the right frameworks for local realities.

Fifth, institutional bodies in some countries still force their power. For example, the OECD (2017) discusses how fiscal systems and policy frameworks should benefit all the affected actors. However, this is not the case everywhere, as in some countries, their only goal is for governments to gain control and hold power. For example, Sun et al. (2017) explain how, regardless of the packages the CSC created for locals and the broader scope of the project, the bottom line was to transfer the control of land from the villages to the central government.
Section 5.1 focuses explicitly on how governments force their power on other parties. Mizero et al. (2018), Sanders et al. (2019), and Torre et al. (2021) articles show how the government owns and manages the country's land. In Mizero et al. (2018) case, institutional bodies own the country's land and rent it to people on the condition that they will generate profits. Sanders et al. (2019) show how companies play the villagers. The OECD (2017) and Lundvall (2016) mention how competition between companies in a specific country mirrors the national system. Therefore, governments regulate and set up the framework upon which companies compete. As

a result, if companies continuously play villagers, it means that first, they can do it, and second, there are no safeguards for villagers.
Torre et al. (2021) discuss how villagers received unfair treatment and how corruption played a significant part. The analysis finds an example of corruption also the case of Hamilton-Hart (2017), where the Chief Minister and his family were substantially the only ones owning the power. The moment he stepped down his intricate networks of reciprocal favors dissolved, leaving confusion and distrust in the system.
Overall, section 5.1 presents cases where the behavior of the governments is unethical and immoral. They make decisions upon their own interests and pay little to no attention to how they affect the involved stakeholders. The result is a lack of trust and willingness to collaborate. People respond to fear, or they are forced to cooperate.

Sixth, national systems of innovation are the result of accumulated knowledge. This takeaway is less evident in the results, as neither a section dedicated to knowledge-based economies nor articles directly discuss it. However, all the micro-interactions between actors are the result of years and years of renewed relationships and new synergies. As Lundvall (2016) proposes, the key component of knowledge-based economies is interactions or learning by interacting. People make the system, and as such, they are also responsible for its improvement and development.
The most important aspect of learning is, above all, the institutional setup. The institutional setup is able to limit uncertainty and guide policymakers and stakeholders to new goals that benefit everyone.

For instance, Mizero et al. (2018) propose a historical analysis of Rwandan society and land use management across the years. Muñoz Gielen et al. (2017) present how The Netherlands has shifted its political setup to a less dominant and active approach to give more arbitrage and space to private parties. On the other hand, Al Mamun & Kim (2020) shows that when the government lacks knowledge, it can hamper progress and harm the success of projects.

Lastly, closely linked to the abovementioned result, it is essential for institutional bodies to research and experiment (Lundvall, 2016). Once again, in a user-producer relationship, the producers should have extensive knowledge of their end-users. Therefore, they should continuously research and experiment in collaboration with academic and scientific institutions to progress and innovate. For instance, Fasth et al. (2020) showed how, on the occasion of an upcoming project, the municipality of Upplands Väsby carried out research in collaboration with experts to understand the citizens' preferences. Furthermore, they divided the groups of interests between citizens and immigrants to pinpoint the different points of view and find common ground.
Another example is the study by McLeod & Curtis (2019). They gathered public opinion on the growing housing density, multi-purpose construction development, and more efficient and mixed public transportation along the main boulevard South Street in Perth, Australia. The results were then shared with important stakeholders and developers. However, despite the positive disposition of respondents, the inertia of institutional bodies has slowed down the project and limited its potential. Therefore, once again it is evident how governmental bodies are the "game changers" in most projects, and without their support or approval, little can be done to turnaround the course of actions. Second, searching and exploring can only be effective for the success of spatial planning if they are willing to consider the greater good and can listen to stakeholders' opinions and needs.

5.1.2 Developers and Their Motives

Developers are usually subjected to institutional bodies. Developers can be individuals, agencies, or companies, and they are the second most important actor as they design, propose, and carry out land projects. Muñoz Gielen et al. (2017) propose different examples of the relationship between developers and public bodies, e.g., how Spanish developers have to surrender to the Reparcelación. Carruthers & Tretter (2022) show how government bodies limit developers because they do not provide adequate regulations.
One opposing example is the case presented by Kang & Homsy (2020), where developers have power over public bodies through threats. They intimidate municipalities to walk away from projects if they do not obtain beneficial conditions. Therefore, the authors propose several suggestions to overcome these threats, and interestingly, they advise municipalities to establish continuous conversations and the creation of synergies. Therefore, as will be mentioned in the next section, learning by interacting (Lundvall, 2016) can serve as a method for municipalities to learn from one another and combat together developers' threats.

5.1.3 Wider Public and Their Motives

Section 5.4 discusses the participation of the wider public, i.e., citizens, scholars, scientists, researchers, and other stakeholders that are directly affected by spatial plans and projects.
They are ranked third in importance, as public institutions do not always regard their needs as they should be. As discussed above, institutional bodies do not always have stakeholders' best interests at heart, despite their opinions being frequently of high value. Brown (2015) presents the "wisdom of crowds" (Surowiecki, 2004) and the "public judgment" (Daniel Yankelovich, 1991) as the ability of broad groups of people to give a valuable opinion on allocations of land.
Lundvall (2016) discusses the concept of social innovation as part of learning by interacting. Social innovation is a way to prevent unsatisfactory innovation and shift the interest of capitalistic societies from the only goal of creating returns to outcomes that satisfy a wide range of stakeholders.
Miskolczi et al. (2020) gather the standpoints of experts and the most important stakeholders on the Danube cruise. The result is a series of recommendations to improve the service.
Lundgren (1993) discusses the importance of industrial networks as different sets of actors that execute different tasks and create synergies within the region. As an example, McLeod & Curtis (2019) case discusses how the intensification of the public transportation network, in conjunction with higher densification (OECD, 2017) could make the zone more sustainable. Furthermore, increasing the network of people could lead to a multi-function area and boost productivity.
Finally, Fasth et al. (2020) case shows how heterogeneity within a national innovation can complicate the success of projects. More precisely, the two groups of reference are Swedish and non-Swedish citizens. Lundvall (2016) talked about how immigration can affect the effectiveness of national systems of innovation. Specifically, in this case, the two oppositions are not integrated and do not share the same needs or interests. Therefore, the municipality had to develop an analytical model to integrate and investigate the two viewpoints and select the common ground.

5.1.4 Indigenous People and Locals and Their Motives

Section 5.5 dedicates to the collaboration with indigenous communities and local people. It is important to distinguish between them and the broader public because of their peculiar relationship with their homelands. Edwards et al. (2018) propose an example of public bodies creating special relationships and partnerships with the indigenous, i.e., the Māori. Māori manage land

based on long-lasting legacies that respect and honor the environment. It is not sufficient to rely on legacies, but if integrated with new practices, they can be highly effective.

Local Bavarian Forest Owner Association (FOAs) in Sotirov et al. (2017) case are not indigenous people but individuals that have been working and living in the same land for generations. As a result, they have control over the forests and projects do not fly if they disapprove of them.

5.2 Final Comments

The literature could answer the research questions. Also, it confirmed some first hypotheses and resolved doubts. First, one assumption was whether the government was the most important actor. As shown in section 5.1, the institutional bodies are the most influential.
Second, the research started by grouping the articles by continent, expecting similar trends and patterns. However, continents do not play a significant role in the motives behind actors' behaviors or the frameworks they use. The only relevant detail is that the analysis shows more violent or fierce methods in less developed countries. Nevertheless, regardless of the country, the parties involved need to surrender to the public bodies at one point or the other.
Third, policies and frameworks could be more optimal and precise. One of the expectations was that the regulations would be easier to understand and readily applicable in more developed countries. However, based on the findings, informal agreements bridge the gaps created by formal ones, and there is still a need for extensive negotiations. Lastly, across the articles, it is blatant how human nature will always prevail over common sense and the greater good. Actors act and reason based on their own interests, and at the end of the day, they will opt for the solutions that benefit all the involved parties only if they benefit them first.

Overall, the analysis was not trivial. Some articles were complicated to analyze, and their objective needed to be more pronounced. In the methodology section, it is mentioned how some studies were eliminated after a first read. The reason was that despite being coherent with the thesis topic, they were challenging to analyze.

6. Conclusion

This thesis carried out an SLR to identify the actors of land use. Specifically, it aimed to understand the interactions, roles, and reasons behind land use and development. The underlying concept is that actors constitute and build national innovation systems (Lundvall, 2016). These systems are highly specific and localized and guide how land is used and allocated.
The results divide into five groups, i.e., forced power, policies and the legal environment, the conflicts between local and national government control, public participation and perception, collaboration with local communities, and developers' power.
Forced power discusses how governments impose their power on land use matters and prioritize their interests at the expense of the stakeholders. Policies and the legal environment dives into the legal frameworks surrounding land use and development. Conflicts between local and national governments concerns the friction between local institutions and national ones. National public bodies provide regulations and legal frameworks that should apply to the whole country. However, they are only sometimes suitable across the state, and local realities are forced to abide by them. Nevertheless, regional or provincial authorities better understand what works best in their territories, but they need the liberty to manage them as they please. Therefore, they must bypass national provisions or enter into conflicts with national institutions.

Public participation and perception emphasizes the importance of the opinions of the parties affected by land development, supporting the concept of learning by interacting proposed by Lundvall (2016). Learning by interacting means establishing a conversation between actors, through which they can learn from one another and achieve common goals. Collaboration with local communities is similar to the previous group. However, instead of considering the broader public composed of citizens, scholars, scientists, and other stakeholders, it focuses on indigenous people and local communities that have been inhabiting the land for generations and have a special relationship with it. Lastly, developers' power discusses a case where developers obtain leverage by threatening the institutional bodies to walk away from projects if they do not agree to their terms.

Finally, the analysis could identify and rank the actors based on their influence and importance on spatial planning and land development. The most influential party are institutional bodies. They form and shape national innovation systems and have the last word in almost all cases. Developers are ranked second, as they are usually the party carrying out the land use projects.
The wider public is third because their opinion is, in several cases, of high value. Therefore, they can affect the outcomes of spatial planning. Fourth are the indigenous people and local communities. They have almost the same impact as the wider public, but sometimes they are overlooked because they are inexperienced or not knowledgeable.

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Appendix

List of Articles

	Authors	Title	Year	DOI	Author Keywords	Documen	Source
2	Ramadhan A., Salim W.A., Argo T.A., Prihatiningsih P.	The human dimension dilemma in marine spatial planning	2022	10.1016/j.marpol.2022.105297	Community; Decision-making; Democracy; Indonesia; Karimunjawa; Social benefit	Article	Scopus
3	Biaou S., Gouwakinnou G.N., Biaou H.S.S., Tovihessi M.S., Awessou B.K., Ahononga F.C., Houéto F.O.	Identifying the land use and land cover change drivers: methods and case studies of two forest reserves in Northern Benin	2022	10.1007/s10668-021-01849-4	Benin; Deforestation; Degradation; REED + Stakeholder's perception	Article	Scopus
4	Gu X., Xu D., Xu M., Zhang Z.	Measuring residents' perceptions of multifunctional land use in peri-urban areas of three Chinese megacities: Suggestions for governance from a demand perspective	2022	10.1016/j.cities.2022.103703	Hierarchy of needs; Multifunctional land use; Peri-urban areas; Sustainable development; Urban governance; Urban residents' perceptions	Article	Scopus
5	Carruthers A., Tretter E.	Creative re-uses: The promises and challenges of temporary land use in Calga	2022	10.1016/j.cities.2022.103562	Calgary; Creative cities; Land-use; Temporary; Urban revitalization	Article	Scopus
6	Ohmura T., Creutzburg L.	Guarding the For(es)t: Sustainable economy conflicts and stakeholder preference of policy instruments	2021	10.1016/j.forpol.2021.102553	Forest; Policy instruments; Policy integration; Stakeholder preferences ; Sustainable economy conflicts	Article	Scopus
7	Girma H., Hugé J., Gebrehiwot M., Van Passel S.	Farmers' willingness to contribute to the restoration of an Ethiopian Rift Valley lake: a contingent valuation study	2021	10.1007/s10668-020-01076-3	Contingent valuation; Ecosystem services; Lake Ziway; Willingness to contribute labor; Willingness to pay	Article	Scopus
8	Song Y., de Jong M., Stead D.	Bypassing institutional barriers: New types of transit-oriented development in China	2021	10.1016/j.cities.2021.103177	Entrepreneurial governance; Institutional barriers; Rail plus property development; Transit-adjacent development; Transit-oriented development; Transport hub; Urban governance	Article	Scopus
9	Torre A., Sabir M., Pham H.-V.	Socioeconomic conflicts and land-use issues in context of infrastructural projects: The example of Diamer Basha Dam project in Pakistan	2021	10.1007/s41685-020-00157-5	Conflict; Infrastructures; Land use; Pakistan	Article	Scopus
10	Foelske L., van Riper C.J.	Assessing spatial preference heterogeneity in a mixed-use landscape	2020	10.1016/j.apgeog.2020.102355	Discrete choice experiment; Regional planning; Spatial autocorrelation; US Midwest	Article	Scopus
11	Al Mamun M.M., Kim S.M.	Stakeholder analysis matrix for buffer zone management in the peri-urban area	2020	10.1007/s10668-019-00435-z	Buffer zone management; Land use governance; Land use planning; Stakeholder analysis matrix; Stakeholders' inclination	Article	Scopus
12	Fasth T., Bohman S., Larsson A., Ekenberg L., Danielson M.	Portfolio Decision Analysis for Evaluating Stakeholder Conflicts in Land Use Planning	2020	10.1007/s10726-020-09656-4	Conflict analysis; Multiple criteria decision analysis; Optimization; Portfolio decision analysis; Urban planning	Article	Scopus
13	Kang K.-E., Homsy G.C.	Make Me a Better Offer: Developer Threats and Regional Competition for Land Development Projects	2020	10.1177/0891242419897124	developer's threat; economic development; intermunicipal cooperation; municipal staff; public participation	Article	Scopus
14	Miskolczi M., Jászberényi M., Munkácsy A., Nagy D.	Accessibility of Major Central and Eastern European Cities in Danube Cruise Tourism	2020		attraction accessibility; components of accessibility; Danube cruise tourism; stakeholder interview; urban mobility	Article	Scopus
15	Esmaeilpoorarabi N., Yigitcanlar T., Kamruzzaman M., Guaralda M.	How can an enhanced community engagement with innovation districts be established? Evidence from Sydney, Melbourne and Brisbane	2020	10.1016/j.cities.2019.102430	Brisbane; Community engagement; Innovation district; Knowledge-based urban development; Melbourne; Sydney	Article	Scopus
16	Sanders A.J.P., Ford R.M., Mulyani L., Prasti H. R.D., Larson A.M., Jagau Y., Keenan R.J.	Unrelenting games: Multiple negotiations and landscape transformations in the tropical peatlands of Central Kalimantan, Indonesia	2019	10.1016/j.worlddev.2019.01.008	Conservation; Frontier; Indonesia; Negotiation; Oil palm; REDD+	Article	Scopus

17	Wang J., Samsura D., van der Krabben E.	Institutional barriers to financing transit-oriented development in China: Analyzing informal land value capture strategies	2019	10.1016/j.tranpol.2019.07.010	TOD; Institutional Barriers; Land value capture; Informality in planning; China	Article	Elsevier
18	McLeod S., Curtis C.	Contested urban streets: Place, traffic and governance conflicts of potential ac	2019	10.1016/j.cities.2018.11.002	Activity corridors; Arterial roads; Infill; Land use transport integration; Transect; Transit oriented development	Article	Scopus
19	Mizero M., Karangwa A., Burny P., Michel B., Lebailly P.	Agrarian and land reforms in Rwanda: Situation and perspectives	2018	10.7160/aol.2018.100307	Agrarian perspectives; Foreignization; Land access; Land reforms; Rwanda	Article	Scopus
20	Edwards P., Velarde S.J., Sharma-Wallace L., Barnard T., Pohatu P.,Warmenhoven T., Porou T., Harrison D., Dunningham A.	Forest scholars empowering communities: A case study from the East Coast of New Zealand	2018	10.1016/j.forpol.2017.09.001		Article	Scopus
21	Van Straalen F.M., Witte P.A.	Entangled in scales: Multilevel governance challenges for regional planning strategies	2018	10.1080/21681376.2018.1455533	Fuzzy governance; Regionalisation; Scalar problems; The Netherlands	Article	Scopus
22	Aurenhammer P.K.	Forest land-use governance and change through Forest Owner Associations – Actors' roles and preferences in Bavaria	2017	10.1016/j.forpol.2017.09.017	Actor-centred approach; Change; Forest governance; Forest initiatives; Mobilization; Networks	Article	Scopus
23	Sotirov M., Blum M., Storch S., Selter A., Schraml U.	Do forest policy actors learn through forward-thinking? Conflict and cooperation relating to the past, present and futures of sustainable forest management in Germany	2017	10.1016/j.forpol.2016.11.011	Foresight; Forest landscapes; Learning; Policy change; Scenarios; Sustainable forest management	Article	Scopus
24	Muñoz Gielen D., Maguregui Salas I., Burón Cuadrado J.	International comparison of the changing dynamics of governance approaches to land development and their results for public value capture	2017	10.1016/j.cities.2017.05.012	Developer obligations; Financing public infrastructure; Inclusionary housing zoning; Land policies; Land readjustment; Public value capture	Article	Scopus
25	Hamilton-Hart N.	The Legal Environment and Incentives for Change in Property Rights Institutions	2017	10.1016/j.worlddev.2016.12.002	Indonesia; institutional change; law; legal pluralism; Malaysia; property rights	Article	Scopus
26	Cai H., Wang Z., Zhang Q.	To build above the limit? Implementation of land use regulations in urban China	2017	10.1016/j.jue.2016.03.003	China; Compliance; Corruption; Floor-to-area ratios; Land development	Article	Scopus
27	Sun Y., Lin J., Chan R.C.K.	Pseudo use value and output legitimacy of local growth coalitions in China: A case study of the Liede redevelopment project in Guangzhou	2017	10.1016/j.cities.2016.10.018	Guangzhou; Local growth coalition; Output legitimacy; Pseudo use value; Urban village	Article	Scopus
28	Brown G.	Engaging the wisdom of crowds and public judgement for land use planning using public participation geographic information systems	2015	10.1080/07293682.2015.1034147	Land use planning; PPGIS; Public Judgement; Public Participation GIS; Wisdom of Crowds	Article	Scopus

i. Declaration of Originality

Erklärung*

Hiermit erkläre ich,

Name, Vorname Camilla Di Donato

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dass ich bei der vorliegenden

☐ Bachelor-Arbeit ☒ Master-Thesis/Master-Arbeit

☐ Seminararbeit

die Regeln guter wissenschaftlicher Praxis eingehalten habe. Ich habe diese Arbeit selbständig verfasst und keine anderen als die angegebenen Quellen und Hilfsmittel benutzt und die wörtlich oder inhaltlich übernommenen Stellen als solche kenntlich gemacht.

Betreuende/r Dozent/in Prof. Dr. Bernd Ebersberger

Thema der Arbeit Who Innovates Land Use and Why?

Semester Wintersemester 2023

Ich erkläre weiterhin, dass das unverschlüsselte digitale Textdokument der Arbeit übermittelt wurde, das in Inhalt und Wortlaut ausnahmslos der gedruckten Ausfertigung entspricht. Ich bin damit einverstanden, dass diese elektronische Form anhand einer Analyse-Software auf Plagiate überprüft wird.

Ort, Datum, Unterschrift

Stuttgart, 06/03/2023 Camilla Di Donato

* Diese Erklärung ist der eigenständig erstellten Arbeit als Anhang beizufügen. Arbeiten ohne diese Erklärung werden nicht angenommen.