What does the central place theory seek to explain

This article contains a vague quote style. The references used can be made clearer by different or consistent styles of citations and foot patterns. (February 2016) (Learn how and when to remove this template report) Central place theory is a geographical theory that seeks to explain the number, size and location of human settlements in residential systems. [1] It was introduced in 1933 to explain the spatial distribution of cities in the landscape. [2] The theory was first analysed by German geographer Walter Christer, who claimed that the settlements simply functioned as central sites providing services to surrounding areas. [1] Theories Christaller makes the following simplification assumptions to develop the theory:[3] All areas are: unlimited isotropic (all flat), homogeneous, unlimited surface (abstract space) evenly distributed populations of all settlements are equal to the distance and there is a triangular grid pattern evenly distributed resource distance reduction mechanism for perfect competition and all vendors are economic people maximize their profits consumers are with the same level of income and the same shopping behavior all consumers have similar purchasing power and demand for goods and services. Consumers visit the nearest central locations that provide the function they require. They reduce the distance travelled no provider of goods or services is able to earn excessive profits (each supplier has a monopoly over the hinterland) Therefore, the trading areas of these central locations providing special goods or services must be of the same size in terms of only one mode of transport, and would be equally simple in all directions, transport costs are directly proportional to the theory of distance travelled, then based on two concepts : threshold and range. The threshold is the minimum market (population or income) required to sell a particular product or service. The range is the maximum distance consumers are willing to travel to buy goods – at some point the cost or inconvenience will be greater than the need for the right. The result of these consumer preferences is that a system of different sizes of centers will appear. Each center will deliver certain types of products that make up hierarchy levels. Functional hierarchies can perform a generalization in terms of settlement spacing, size, and function. The larger the settlements, the fewer they are, i.e. there are many small villages, but only a few large cities. The larger the settlements grow, the greater the distance between them, i.e. villages are usually close together, but the cities are much farther away. As the billing increases in size, the range and number of its functions will increase. As the amount of settlements increases, the number of higher-order services will also increase, i.e. in services. The higher the order of goods and services (stronger, more valuable and more variable), the greater the range of goods and services, the longer the distance people want to travel to buy them. The pyramid of the hierarchy is based on shopping centers, newspaper agents .c., which sell low-order goods. These centres are small. At the top of the pyramid there are centers that sell high-level goods. These centres are large. Examples of low-order goods and services include: newspaper stands, groceries, bakeries and post offices. Examples of high-order goods and services include jewelry, large shopping malls and halls. They are supported by a much larger population and demand. Predictions He concludes that settlements tend to form a triangular/hexagonal grid because it is the most effective model to serve areas without overlapping. [1] In an orderly layout of the urban hierarchy, Christaller has identified seven different main settlement orders, providing different groups of goods and services. Payments are regularly arranged - at the same distance between the same order centers, with larger centers further away, except for smaller centers. Settlements are hexagonal market areas and are the most effective in number and function. The various layouts predict Christaller's K-values, which show how much impact affects the central location occupied – the central location itself counts as 1 and each part of the satellite counts as part of it: K = 3 trading principle K = 3 Principle According to the trade principle K = 3, the market area of the higher order spot (node) occupies one third of the market area in each of the successive lower-sized locations (nodes) located on its neighboring; lower size nodes (in 6 numbers and the second largest circles) are located in the largest hexagonal corner around a low-value high-order settlement. Each high-order settlement receives one-third of each satellite settlement (which is 6 in total), thus K = 1 + 6 × 1-3 = 3. However, the distance travelled on this K = 3 marketing network has been reduced to a minimum. K = 4 transport/traffic principle K = 4 Principle According to the principle of transport K = 4 transport principle, the market area of the higher order location includes half of the market area in each of the six adjacent lower order locations, as they are located on hexagonal edges around high order capes. This creates a hierarchy of central locations that provide the most efficient transport network. There are maximum central seats possible located on the main transport routes connecting the highest order center. The transport principle involves minimizing the length of the roads that connect the central locations at all levels of the hierarchy. In this nesting system, the lowest order centers are located on the roads that connect the highest order centers. leveling of the roads leads to the minimisation of the length of the road. However, each higher order centre now has four centres of immediate lower order, not three centres in accordance with the principle of trade. K = 7 administrative principle K = 7 Principle According to the administrative principle of K = 7 administrative principles (or political and social principles) settlements are nested according to the seven. The smaller settlement market areas are completely closed in the largest settlement market area. Since tributary areas cannot be allocated administratively, they should be allocated to only one higher order location. Effective administration is a principle of control in this hierarchy. Assessment The validity of site theory may vary depending on local factors such as climate, topography, development history, technological improvements and the personal preferences of consumers and suppliers. However, it is still possible to see Christaller models in most urban centres, although these models are often distorted by relief or incomplete suboptimal (in terms of optimal distribution of centres) due to historical development decisions. The economic situation of consumers in the region is also important. Consumers with higher economic status tend to be more mobile, and therefore bypass centers that only provide lower order items. The application of the central place theory is tempered by an understanding of such factors when planning the space space of a shopping center. Purchasing power and density affect the gaps between the center and the hierarchical measures. Sufficient density will allow, for example, a grocery store, a lower custom function, to survive in an isolated place. Factors that make up the size of market areas: Land use: industrial areas can make a small contribution to population reduction Poor accessibility: this may limit the size of the centre market area Competition: it limits the size of market areas in all directions Technology: high mobility provided by the car allows to overlap with market areas Market area studies provide another method to use the central site theory as a tool for planning a retail site. The hierarchy of shopping centres is widely used in the planning of new cities. In this new city, the hierarchy of business centres is obvious. One main shopping center provides mainly durable goods (higher order); district and local shopping centers delivery, increasingly, convenience (lower order) goods. These centres, as provided for in the new city plan, are not free from outside competition. The impact of the surrounding existing centres on the new city centres cannot be ignored. Examples of the Netherlands' recent recovered polders provide an isotropic plane in which settlements have developed, and in some areas you can see 6 small towns, especially and Flevoland. The Eastern English Fens in the UK also provide a large expanse of flat land without natural obstacles for the development of the settlement. Cambridge is a good example of the K=4 central location of the Transport model, although it is surrounded by 7, not 6 settlements. Each satellite is 10-15 miles from Cambridge and each is on the main road, leading from Cambridge: Ely - A10 north Newmarket - A1303 (now bypassed by A14/A11) north-east Haverhill -- A1307 south-east Saffron Walden - A1301 south Royston - A10 southwest St Neots - A428 west st ives - A14 northwest Whereas all satellite settlements are on transport connections, this is a good example of the CPT model K=4 (although in this case it is K=4,5, because 7, not 6 settlements). Another example of the use of CPT was the demarcating of Medical Care Regions in California. The hierarchy of primary, secondary and tertiary care cities was described, and the population and income needed to support every medical care speciality in California were determined. Criticism central place theory has been criticized for being static; this does not include a time aspect in the development of central sites. In addition, the theory respects agricultural areas, but not industrial or post-industrial areas, taking into account the different nature of the different services or the diversity of natural resources. Newer developments: a dynamic concept of CPT Newer theoretical developments have shown that it is possible to overcome the static aspect of the CPT. (b) some cities have new economic activities, thereby leading to differentiation and development in a hierarchical (industrial) urban system; (c) further differentiation leads to a post-skilled (post-industrial) urban system. This development can be modelled using three main CPT theories: (a) is the system of isolated states of von Thünen; (b) is a hierarchical system of Christine; phase (c) is a post-economic system of Löschian. In addition, b) stage meets Christopher Alexander's tree town, but (c) is similar to his grid system (according to his dictum the city is not a tree). The importance of the city and other theoretical considerations according to Margot Smith, Walter Christaller erred in his development in the CPT in the 1930s by using population and phone numbers to determine the importance of the city. Smith acknowledged that although the population was important for the city's service, the number of services offered was more important than the city's role in attracting consumers. Applying the CPT to describe the provision of medical care in California, Smith counted the number of doctor's specialties to determine the role of the city in providing medical care. Christaller also made mistakes in assuming that the city would emerge. In California and much of the U.S., many cities were on the railroad at the time the tracks were set. In California, the cities founded by the railroad were 12 miles apart, the amount of track section crews could be saved in the 1850s; in larger cities were 60 miles apart, the distance the steam engine could travel before needing water. Older cities were founded on a day horse ride separate from Spanish priests who founded early missions. The medical care regions described by Smith are a hierarchy of services, whose primary care is ideally distributed throughout the area, in mid-sized cities offering secondary care, and in metropolitan areas with the highest care. Income, population, population demographics, distance to the next service centre, all influenced the number and type of specialists located in the population centre. (Smith, 1977, 1979) For example, orthopedic surgeons are found in ski areas, sorrow tribulations in the suburbs, and boutique specialties such as hypnosis, plastic surgery, psychiatry are most likely to be found in high income areas. It was possible to estimate the population (threshold) needed to support the specialty, as well as to link the specialties needed to collaborate and find close proximity to each other, such as hematology, oncology, and pathology, or cardiology, breast surgery and pulmonology. Her work is important in studying the doctor's location, where doctors choose to practice and where their practice will be enough for the population to support them. The level of income of the population determines whether sufficient doctors will practice in the region and whether a state subsidy is necessary to maintain the health of the population. The distribution of medical care in California followed patterns associated with settlement cities. Cities and their hinterlands whose traffic principle characteristics (see K=4 above) usually have six thoroughfares, including roadways, rivers, railways and canals. They are the most efficient and can provide the purest services, because transport is cheaper. For those who settled on the market principle (K=3 above), there are more expensive services and goods because they were founded at a time when transport was more primitive. For example, appalachia still dominates the market principle, and rural medical care is much more expensive. Making a central place in the theory of activity CPT is often criticized as unreal. However, several studies have shown that it can describe existing urban systems. An important point is that Christaller's original wording is incorrect in several ways (Smith). These errors become obvious when we try to make the CPT operational, that is, if we are trying to get numerical data theoretical scheme. These problems have been identified in Veneris (1984) and then by Openshaw and Veneris (2003), which were also theoretically stable and consistent solutions based on the K=3, 37-centre CP system: the closure problem. Christaller's original scheme means endless landscape. Although each market has a limited size, there are no limits to the common system. Neither Christaller nor the early-related literature provides any guidance on how the system can be covered. Openshaw and Veneris (2003) identified three different types of closure, namely (a) an isolated country, (b) territorial closure and (c) functional closure. Each type of closure means different population models. Travel generation. Following the basic Christallerian logic and closure modes set, Openshaw and Veneris (2003) calculate travel patterns between 27 centers. Calculation of cross-zone and cross-zone costs/distances. Christaller took on freedom of movement in all directions, which would mean the airline's distances between the centres. At the same time, he provided special road networks for the CP system, which prevents flight distances. This is a major drawback that no Christaller nor early-related literature has identified. Openshaw and Veneris (2003) calculate costs/distances that comply with Christallerian principles. Central site theory and spatial interaction models Additional information: Spatial interaction models Were once considered to be incompatible with spatial interaction models (SIM). However, it is paradoxical that a few times cities or shopping centers are planned with cpt and then evaluated with a SIM card. Openshaw and Veneris (2003) managed to link these two major regional theories in a clear and theoretically consistent way: using the data they obtain from running CPT, they experimented with multiple SIM. After a thorough investigation using computer simulation, they reached important theoretical and practical conclusions. Smith was able to clearly identify medical care regions (range), describe the hierarchy of medical services, the population base required for each medical specialty (threshold), the effectiveness of the region, and the importance of how the area was resolved to provide medical care, that is, in accordance with traffic, market or administrative principles. What is the central location? See also Demographic Gravity City (Weber Book) Fractal Penrose Tile Zipf Law Border Problem (in Spatial Analysis) Single Billing Planning Notes ^ a b c Goodall, B. (1987) Penguin Dictionary human geography. London: Penguin. ^ Alas, R. W. (2004). Encyclopedia of the city. - Yes, 1900, p. 73. ^ References Openshaw S, Veneris Y, 2003, Numeric experiments with central place theory and spatial Modelling Environment and Planning 35(8) 1389-1403 ([1]) Smith, Margot W. 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