

**The social dimension of urban design  
as a means of engendering community  
engagement in urban regeneration**

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## **Abstract**

The contribution to knowledge of this thesis is to suggest the potential of urban design through an integrated linkage between the social role of urban design and community engagement in urban regeneration as a response of the advocacy of participative urban design approach and the academic debate of community engagement.

This thesis explores the social dimension of urban design in urban regeneration with the contexts of urban policies in England and South Korea. The thesis progresses a detailed empirical investigation of urban design in both countries' urban regeneration practices, principally Scotswood and Walker Riverside in Newcastle upon Tyne, UK and Singil in Seoul, South Korea. It illustrates that urban design plays various roles in urban regeneration in physical and social aspects, concerning improving physical environments, local resident's liveability, and tackling social problems. It also identifies challenges for urban design in urban regeneration in relation to various tensions in the practice of urban regeneration.

How local communities are engaged in the wider process of urban regeneration practices is illustrated in this thesis. The exploration of urban regeneration practices explains the mechanisms for identifying community views in relation to urban design. It identifies factors affecting community engagement and channels for community engagement in the process of urban design in urban regeneration and underlines community engagement in the management of end-products of urban design.

The thesis concludes with a discussion about the social dimension and the potentials of urban design in urban regeneration. It highlights that urban design plays a role in community engagement, as a means of engendering community engagement in urban regeneration. It discusses the potential of urban design as a process of integration, as a responsible process to the social consequences of urban regeneration, and as proactive actions for the delivery of better urban design and as reactive actions for the

management of the built environment. It also recommends actions in the process of urban design for local communities in Korean urban regeneration practices.

Overall, this thesis highlights that there is a need to be a shift in the perspectives of urban design in urban regeneration towards urban design as a collaborative and an ongoing process of making better places, concerning not only improving existing urban environment and the quality of life for users, but also the management of the built environments the legacy of urban regeneration.

## Contents

<b>Chapter 1 Introduction.....</b>	<b>1</b>
1.1 Introduction .....	1
1.2 Both countries' urban policies on urban design and urban regeneration .....	1
1.3 The social dimension of urban design in urban regeneration.....	4
1.4 Research questions guiding the investigation.....	7
1.5 Research strategy: the comparison of urban regeneration in England and Korea	7
1.6 The organization of the thesis .....	8
<b>Chapter 2 Backgrounds of urban policies on urban regeneration in England and Korea .....</b>	<b>10</b>
2.1 Introduction.....	10
2.2 The English contexts of urban policies since 1997.....	11
2.2.1 Social Exclusion.....	11
2.2.2 New Deal for Communities (1998-2008).....	11
2.2.3 Urban Renaissance.....	12
2.2.4 Urban renaissance: the emphasis on design excellence.....	15
2.2.5 Sustainable Communities.....	16
2.2.6 Housing Market Renewal Programme (2002-2011).....	17
2.2.7 The emphasis on community involvement .....	19
2.2.8 Changes in urban regeneration policies with the economic downturn and the Coalition government .....	22
2.3 The Korean contexts of urban policies .....	23
2.3.1 A market-led approach on inner city regeneration.....	23
2.3.2 'Newtown in city' initiative of Seoul and legislation of 'Special Act on the Promotion of Urban Regeneration' .....	25
2.3.3 A national research on urban regeneration led by urban regeneration task force .....	28
2.3.4 Increasing emphasis on urban design in the urban regeneration process .....	30
2.3.5 Community engagement in the urban regeneration process of Regeneration Promotion Projects .....	33
2.3.6 The real estate market bust and the impact on urban regeneration.....	34
2.4 Discussion.....	35
<b>Chapter 3 Critical Academic Literature Review .....</b>	<b>39</b>
3.1 Introduction.....	39
3.2 Urban regeneration.....	40
3.2.1 The definition of urban regeneration .....	40
3.2.2 The process of urban regeneration .....	40
3.2.3 Site-based regeneration .....	42
3.2.4 Stakeholders involved in urban regeneration.....	43
3.3 Community engagement .....	45

3.3.1	Definitions of key terms related with community in planning .....	45
3.3.2	Values, types and degrees of community participation .....	47
3.3.3	Power and critiques of participation .....	50
3.3.4	Seeking a consensus in the participation process .....	52
3.4	The definition and the role of urban design .....	53
3.4.1	The various definitions of urban design.....	53
3.4.2	The significance and the value of urban design.....	57
3.4.3	The role of urban designers.....	59
3.5	The practice of urban design.....	61
3.5.1	The scope of urban design .....	61
3.5.2	The built environment, urban form, and public realm .....	62
3.5.3	The qualities of good urban design.....	64
3.6	The process of urban design and its collaborative nature .....	66
3.6.1	The process of urban design.....	66
3.6.2	Actors in the process of urban design .....	72
3.6.3	Urban design process as a collaborative arena and community participation in urban design.....	75
3.7	Policy mechanisms for urban design .....	80
3.7.1	Design control of the public sector .....	80
3.7.2	The role and the hierarchy of urban design guidance .....	81
3.7.3	Site/Area Appraisal.....	84
3.7.4	Urban Design (Development) Frameworks .....	84
3.7.5	Development briefs .....	85
3.7.6	Master plans .....	86
3.7.7	Design codes .....	89
3.8	Discussion .....	90
3.8.1	Urban regeneration.....	91
3.8.2	Community engagement .....	91
3.8.3	The definitions and values of urban design, and the role of urban designers.....	92
3.8.4	The practice of urban design.....	93
3.8.5	The process of urban design.....	93
3.8.6	Policy mechanisms for urban design .....	94
3.8.7	Research gap between issues on literature and practice .....	94
<b>Chapter 4 Research strategy and methods .....</b>		<b>96</b>
4.1	Introduction and research strategy .....	96
4.2	Conceptualising specific issues relating to the research questions of this thesis... .....	99
4.3	The selection of case studies.....	100
4.3.1	Comparison strategy .....	100

4.3.2 The method of selecting cases of urban regeneration .....	100
4.3.3 Initial selection of cases and initial investigation as stage one .....	101
4.3.4 The selection of cases for in-depth case studies as stage two .....	103
4.4 Mapping the comparative stakeholders.....	105
4.5 Investigating urban design issues and data collection .....	108
4.6 Analysing data using an analysis framework for the case studies .....	112
4.7 Discussion.....	115
<b>Chapter 5 Case study 1: Singil regeneration .....</b>	<b>117</b>
5.1 Introduction.....	117
5.2 Urban regeneration in Singil.....	118
5.3 The process of urban design.....	123
5.3.1 Setting the background of urban design in urban regeneration .....	123
5.3.2 Singil Regeneration Promotion Plan (2007) .....	124
5.3.3 Design guidance for implementation (2008) .....	129
5.3.4 The process of Joint Redevelopment Project(JRP) in Regeneration Promotion zones .....	132
5.3.5 Implementation and management.....	135
5.4 Community engagement in the planning process .....	136
5.5 Discussion.....	137
5.5.1 The role of urban design in Singil regeneration.....	137
5.5.2 Community engagement in Singil regeneration .....	141
<b>Chapter 6 Case study 2: Scotswood regeneration.....</b>	<b>146</b>
6.1 The background of urban regeneration in Scotswood and Walker.....	146
6.1.1 Going for Growth.....	146
6.1.2 Housing Market Renewal (HMR) programme in NewcastleGateshead.....	147
6.2 Urban regeneration in Scotswood .....	150
6.3 Urban design in urban regeneration.....	154
6.3.1 Setting the background of urban design in the regeneration of West Newcastle.....	154
6.3.2 The concept of the Scotswood Housing Expo .....	158
6.3.3 Scotswood Masterplan and design competition.....	161
6.3.4 Benwell Scotswood Area Action Plan .....	164
6.3.5 Implementation and management.....	172
6.4 Community engagement in the planning process .....	174
6.5 Discussion.....	178
6.5.1 The role of urban design in Scotswood.....	178
6.5.2 Community engagement in Scotswood regeneration .....	182
<b>Chapter 7 Case study 3: Walker regeneration .....</b>	<b>186</b>
7.1 Urban regeneration in Walker.....	186

7.2 The process of urban design.....	189
7.2.1 Setting the background of urban design in urban regeneration .....	189
7.2.2 Walker Riverside masterplan (2004) .....	192
7.2.3 Walker Riverside Area Action Plan (2007) .....	195
7.2.4 Walker Riverside Design Code (2007) .....	200
7.2.5 Heart of Walker Supplementary planning documents (2009) .....	206
7.2.6 Implementation and management of the Walker regeneration programme	208
7.3 Community engagement .....	208
7.4 Discussion .....	217
7.4.1 The role of urban design in Walker .....	217
7.4.2 Community engagement in Walker regeneration .....	221
<b>Chapter 8 Discussion: A comparative analysis of the three case studies .....</b>	<b>226</b>
8.1 Introduction.....	226
8.2 The characteristics of the study areas .....	226
8.3 Urban regeneration in the case studies.....	228
8.4 Urban design approaches in the case studies .....	231
8.5 Community engagement in the case studies .....	234
8.6 What kind of tensions and challenges does urban design face in the practice of urban regeneration? .....	236
8.7 What kind of roles does urban design play in the practice of urban regeneration? .....	239
8.8 What are factors affecting community engagement in the process of urban regeneration? .....	243
8.9 What channels for engaging community are used in the process of urban design in urban regeneration? .....	246
<b>Chapter 9 Priorities for urban design in urban regeneration in the Korean context .....</b>	<b>251</b>
9.1 Introduction .....	251
9.2 The roles of urban design in urban regeneration.....	251
9.2.1 The evaluation of the roles of urban design in urban regeneration.....	251
9.2.2 The roles of urban design in urban regeneration .....	253
9.3 The relationship of urban design to urban regeneration.....	254
9.4 Community participation in the urban design process in urban regeneration ..	255
9.4.1 Evaluation of current community participation in the urban design process.... .....	255
9.4.2 Different views on community participation in the urban design process..... .....	256
9.4.3 Differentiating approach on community participation in the urban design process .....	258

9.4.4 Suggestions towards a better community engagement in the urban design process .....	259
9.5 The management of urban design outputs in the post-design stage .....	261
9.5.1 Different viewpoints on the emphasis on the management of urban design outputs .....	261
9.5.2 Community engagement in the management.....	262
9.6 Overall implications in the Korean context .....	263
<b>Chapter 10 Concluding Discussion.....</b>	<b>265</b>
10.1 What is the social role of urban design in engendering community engagement in urban regeneration? .....	265
10.2 The potential of urban design in urban regeneration .....	267
10.3 Specific applications to the Korean context: learning from the English case studies .....	268
10.4 A plan of action for communities in Korea .....	270
10.5 The practicalities of the recommendations for Korea .....	271
10.6 The contribution to knowledge of this thesis .....	273
10.7 Limitations of the research.....	275
<b>Appendices .....</b>	<b>276</b>
Appendix 1 Initial investigations of selected other cases (except for Scotswood, Walker and Singil).....	276
Type 1: Greenwich Millennium Village (Greenwich peninsula, UK).....	276
Type 1: Enpyung (Seoul, South Korea).....	280
Type 2: Gajung ('Luwon city project', Incheon, South Korea).....	284
Appendix 2 The time line of Bridging Newcastle Gateshead.....	287
Appendix 3 The time line of Singil regeneration.....	288
Appendix 4 Questionnaire as part of the Design Code Compliance Check in Walker Riverside Design Code .....	289
Appendix 5 The interviewees which were carried out as part of research on the selected cases in chapter five and six .....	291
Appendix 6 The interviewees which were carried out as part of research on the Korean contexts in chapter seven .....	291
Appendix 7 Interview questions which were used for the interviews (Round one for the case studies).....	292
Appendix 8 Interview questions which were used for the interviews with academic scholars in Korea (Round two for the discussion with the Korean contexts).....	299
<b>References .....</b>	<b>300</b>



## List of figures

Figure 2.1 The location of HMR areas .....	19
Figure 2.2 A community-friendly model for residential area regeneration. ....	32
Figure 3.1 Urban regeneration process .....	41
Figure 3.2 The engagement spectrum .....	50
Figure 3.3 The traditional view (a), and the present state (b) of the field of urban design in relation to the other design fields.....	62
Figure 3.4 Developing an area rational and strategy/concept diagram .....	67
Figure 3.5 A model of the rational design process.....	68
Figure 3.6 The integrated urban design process.....	69
Figure 3.7 The process of urban design .....	71
Figure 3.8 A powergram for urban design .....	74
Figure 3.9 Typical programme for an urban design framework showing three rounds of community involvement.....	78
Figure 3.10 Design guidance relating to specific locations and characteristics.....	83
Figure 3.11 A diagram of master planning process .....	88
Figure 4.1 Methodology for data analysis.....	114
Figure 4.2 Analysis strategy.....	115
Figure 5.1 The location of Singil .....	118
Figure 5.2 The current built environment of Singil regeneration area (2010).....	123
Figure 5.3 A diagram of development concepts in Singil Regeneration Promotion Plan .....	126
Figure 5.4 Land use plan in Singil Regeneration Promotion Plan.....	127
Figure 5.5 Illustrations with models for Singil centre and a community park.....	128
Figure 5.6 A perspective image in Singil Regeneration Promotion Plan .....	129
Figure 5.7 Images of design guidance for mall-type retail shops in Singil design guidance for implementation .....	130

Figure 5.8 Design guidance for the layout of buildings in Singil design guidance for implementation.....	131
Figure 5.9 Development zones of Singil Regeneration Promotion project .....	134
Figure 6.1 BNG Programme and remaining priorities.....	148
Figure 6.2 The redevelopment area of Scotswood.....	151
Figure 6.3 The redevelopment site under site preparation works .....	154
Figure 6.4 The current built environment of Scotswood area.....	154
Figure 6.5 An illustration for The New West End in <i>Going for Growth</i> .....	155
Figure 6.6 West End Draft Masterplan. ....	157
Figure 6.7 The Scotswood Expo masterplan .....	163
Figure 6.8 Illustrations of Scotswood Expo.....	163
Figure 6.9 Artist’s impression of Expo Link .....	164
Figure 6.10 Proposals map of the Preferred Option.....	167
Figure 6.11 Benwell Scotswood Area Action Plan: Proposals map .....	171
Figure 6.12 The preparation works in Scotswood Development area .....	172
Figure 6.13 One Big Idea map. ....	176
Figure 6.14 Examples of ideas for a spatial Action plan for Scotswood and Benwell in the stakeholders workshops .....	177
Figure 7.1 Aerial photograph of the Western Walker Riverside .....	186
Figure 7.2 The current built environment of Walker area .....	188
Figure 7.3 New developments in Walker area (Hibernia village and Cambrian village) .....	188
Figure 7.4 East End Draft Masterplan .....	190
Figure 7.5 An illustration for a new neighbourhood centre at Walker .....	191
Figure 7.6 Development Framework Plan .....	193
Figure 7.7 Proposals Plan.....	194
Figure 7.8 Examples of the illustrations of visions for the Early Action Area.....	195

Figure 7.9 An illustration for possible Community Focus layout in <i>Walker Riverside: Decisions</i> .....	196
Figure 7.10 Proposals map in Walker Riverside AAP .....	199
Figure 7.11 Application process of Walker Riverside Design Code .....	201
Figure 7.12 Illustrations in Walker Riverside Design Code .....	205
Figure 7.13 A concept of Twin anchors .....	207
Figure 7.14 Proposed areas plan in HOW SPD .....	207
Figure 7.15 Photos of a five-day Enquiry by Design .....	214
Figure 7.16 Illustrations in a Book of Plans .....	215
Figure 7.17 Heart of Walker Placemaking Event .....	217

## List of tables

Table 2.1 Summary of Newtown project and Regeneration Promotion Project.....	28
Table 3.1 Stakeholders involved in the development and use of brownfield sites .....	43
Table 3.2 The roles of urban designers .....	60
Table 3.3 Jacobs's and Lynch's requisite qualities for liveable cities or good urban form .....	66
Table 3.4 The hierarchy of design guidance .....	81
Table 4.1 Selected cases as stage one and the characteristics of the initially selected cases .....	102
Table 4.2 Housing Market Renewal programme and Regeneration Promotion Projects .....	104
Table 4.3 Selected cases for stage two and the characteristics of the selected cases....	105
Table 4.4 The stakeholders in the process of urban design and brownfield redevelopment from literature.....	106
Table 4.5 Key stakeholders in urban regeneration and urban design of the selected case studies.....	108
Table 4.6 The identification of the investigation issues for data collection with the research questions .....	110
Table 5.1 A summary of JRP process in each Regeneration Promotion Zone .....	134
Table 8.1 External drivers and internal drivers of urban regeneration in the case studies .....	227

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# Chapter 1 Introduction

## 1.1 Introduction

This thesis aims to explore the social dimension of urban design in urban regeneration in relation to communities and to recommend applications of urban design in urban regeneration for local communities in Korea. This thesis focuses on urban design in urban regeneration as a collaborative and ongoing process of making better places, concerning not only improving existing urban environments and the quality of life for users, but also the management of the built environments after urban regeneration. This definition asserts the importance of five themes that occur throughout this thesis. First, it stresses that urban design in urban regeneration is a process closely intertwined with the quality and values of urban regeneration outputs. Second, it recognises that urban design needs multidisciplinary activities and collaborative actions. Third, it emphasises that urban design in urban regeneration operates to support the objectives of urban regeneration and the everyday life of users. Fourth, it asserts the importance of urban design in urban regeneration as an ongoing process, after the implementation of urban regeneration, concerning the management of the shaped environments. Fifth, it underlines that community engagement is a crucial part in the process of urban design in urban regeneration. Providing the linkage of urban design with urban regeneration, this introductory chapter is in four parts. The first develops an understanding of urban policies in England and South Korea. The second discusses the social dimension of urban design in urban regeneration from academic literature. The third discusses the overall research question and specific research questions. Finally, the structure of this thesis is explained, both its content chapter by chapter and the structure of each chapter.

## 1.2 Both countries' urban policies on urban design and urban regeneration

In Korean urban policies, the significance of urban regeneration has emerged since 2002. Urban regeneration has been emphasised with the 'Newtown in City' initiative since 2003 to promote redevelopment in the inner city of Seoul, and the 'Regeneration Promotion' initiative since 2006 to promote a balanced urban development through urban regeneration. A seven year national research on urban regeneration with four

themes, including the enactment of the Urban Regeneration Act, developing a community regeneration framework, developing a mixed use development framework, and developing a management framework, is being conducted from 2007 until 2014 (URTF, 2010a).

Although urban design has not been directly highlighted in Korean urban policies, the significance of urban design in urban regeneration seems to be increasing with the involvement of urban design experts in the public sector in the process of urban regeneration, as seen in a senior planner's control in Regeneration Promotion Projects, and a suggested process of urban regeneration using urban design events for communication in the national research (URTF, 2010b).

However, severe tensions among local residents and tension between planning authority and local residents have been occurred in many examples of Newtown in City projects and Regeneration Promotion Projects. Academics have been critical of the practice of urban regeneration focused on a physicalist and functionalist urban design view, with a monotonous development process involving demolition and redevelopment, the low rate of resettlement of local residents, and too much focus on economic benefit (Lee and Jung, 2005; Lee et al., 2010; Yim and Yoon, 2008; Yoon, 2006). As a response, a need for community engagement to reconcile various options from local residents in the planning process has emerged.

In English urban policies, urban regeneration and urban design have been emphasised as key elements for 'urban renaissance' for the last decade. Strong advocacy of urban regeneration and urban design has been based on the Urban Task Force's report in 1999 (UTF, 1999). This gave an emphasis to urban regeneration and a boost to the urban design dimension of planning and development (Punter, 2010a). However, critiques on urban design in urban regeneration focused on the extent to which the urban renaissance could be 'design-led' (Crookston, 2001), the limited understanding of complex social aspects (Amin et al., 2000; Healey, 2004), and the end result of gentrification (Lees, 2003). John Punter's (2010a) review on urban renaissance provided the major positives

and negatives of the urban renaissance in the UK from an urban design perspective. He argued that “a decade of urban renaissance has seen the status and the role of urban design in planning and development in England greatly enhanced.... However, the delivery of design quality has been very uneven with some major successes in city centres and the more attractive inner urban neighbourhoods, that has to be offset against the mediocrity of much suburban housing and over-developed inner city apartment schemes” (Punter, 2010b, p. 34). The contributions of the urban renaissance are about urban design quality, which are not so relevant to community engagement.

Another dimension of urban regeneration in a retrospective of the New Labour Government era is the focus on a community-based strategy. Developing the right structures of governance and forms of social capital within excluded communities was expected through community involvement in urban regeneration partnerships (Atkinson, 1999, 2003). The Social Exclusion Unit’s report on neighbourhood renewal, *Bringing Britain Together: National Strategy for Neighbourhood Renewal*, focussed on improving social condition of the most deprived communities through more joined up solutions and underlined that maximising the community’s contribution in the regeneration would entail “capacity building” (SEU, 1998. p 57). *The National Strategy for Neighbourhood Renewal* (SEU, 2001) included the New Deal for Communities programme which aimed to narrow the gap between the most deprived areas and the rest of England.

The Government’s Sustainable Communities Plan in 2003, set out a vision of strong and sustainable communities and the important requirements of sustainable communities. The Plan addressed housing supply and quality issues, and also reflected a concern to ‘improve the quality of the public realm – the surrounding environment and community services that make an area more liveable’ (Jones and Evans, 2008, p 90). The key initiatives in the Plan included the creation of Housing Market Renewal Pathfinders in the North. Alongside the plan, rewritten *PPSI, Delivering Sustainable Development* emphasised that plans should involve communities in developing a shared view of sustainable patterns of local development (DETR, 2005). The 2008 White Paper, ‘Communities in Control: real people, real power’, emphasised the shift of power,



influence and responsibility into communities and the importance of community engagement in public policy. Urban regeneration programmes have become associated with the policy changes to the governance and social improvement of local communities on the ground that strong participation can enhance empowerment and sustainability (Bull and Jones, 2006; Jones, 2003; Lowndes et al., 1998; Lyons et al., 2001).

However, some critical literature focused on the reality of practical community participation on British urban regeneration. The critics argued that community participation may not achieve local social solidarity, social inclusion and democratic decision making, or power sharing due to structural constraints on socio-economic inequality, on political structure and on policy environments (Blakeley and Evans, 2008; Bull and Jones, 2006).

### **1.3 The social dimension of urban design in urban regeneration**

The social dimension of urban design in urban regeneration is an integrated subject for investigation because it requires not only an understanding of urban design but also an understanding of urban regeneration practices and community engagement. A relatively small amount of research has explored the roles and the process of urban design in the practice of urban regeneration. Furthermore, the roles and the process of urban design are highly differentiated by the various contexts of urban regeneration in practice.

One of the contributions made by academic literature on urban design in urban regeneration is recognising various stakeholders involved in the process of urban regeneration (Dair and Williams, 2006; Williams and Dair, 2007). The complexity of interests of stakeholders raises an important issue for the process of urban design: negotiation or collaboration among various stakeholders, for example, the process of creating partnerships to better negotiate or agree and approve solutions (Rhodes and Murray, 2007). The process of urban design is a potential arena to discuss and negotiate solutions and to bring opportunities for collaboration. Urban design in urban regeneration is an ‘ongoing highly values-laden argumentative process’, in Lang

(1994)'s description, to negotiate with the different goals and motivations of various stakeholders (Carmona et al., 2002; Dair and Williams, 2006; George, 1997; McGlynn and Murrain, 1994; Williams and Dair, 2007).

Classifying stakeholder groups involved in urban regeneration, and in urban design from a range of academic literature, various stakeholders are involved in regulation, production, and use, with private, public, and community interests (Carmona et al., 2002; Dair and Williams, 2006; Madanipour, 1997; McGlynn and Murrain, 1994). According to Carmona et al. (2002), stakeholders involved in regulation are interested in integration between internal and external urban changes, and integration between aspirations at the different levels. They are concerned with the public interest and sometimes control the development process as main regulators. Stakeholders involved in production are often interested in profitability and management. They are often decision makers, having more influence. The interests of user stakeholders are mainly concerned with community interests and improving their liveability.

In the practice of urban regeneration, there are mismatches between existing users and end users in many cases, and their motivations are quite different. The mismatch of their interests often leads to serious tensions in the process of urban regeneration (Amin et al., 2000; Lees, 2003; Vischer, 1985). These different motivations of a variety of stakeholders in the process of urban design in urban regeneration are all connected with one another and need to be integrated in the communication process (Carmona et al., 2002; Punter and Carmona, 1997; Sanoff, 2000). In relation to giving priority to aspirations of communities or the wider urban scale and on internal or external drivers of change, the process of urban design in urban regeneration is associated with the issue of who leads the process (McGlynn and Murrain, 1994; Punter and Carmona, 1997).

Another contribution made by academic literature on urban design is the advocacy of participative/collaborative approaches in the process of urban design (Carmona et al., 2003; Lang, 1994; Lang, 1996, 2005). The process of urban design in urban regeneration as a collaborative or a negotiative arena highlights social responsibility and

social consequences of urban design for urban regeneration with the notion of multiple clients (Zeisel, 1974). The notion of multiple clients in urban design, especially recognizing non-paying clients, highlights the role of an urban design process as a process to enable user involvement and to communicate with disadvantaged groups in the distribution of power. However, the process of urban design in urban regeneration also needs to consider social, economic and political constraints, and to minimize the risk which make community participation unrealistic and may reproduce inequality in the practice of urban regeneration as some literature has discussed (Amin et al., 2000; Blakeley and Evans, 2008; Bull and Jones, 2006; Cooke and Kothari, 2001; Jones, 2003; Levitas, 1998; Lowndes and Wilson, 2001).

Additionally, Korean academic literature on urban design has mainly focused on the analysis of the products of urban design in urban regeneration. However, there is a small amount of research which has explored the process of urban design as ‘a social process’ structured by its social context (Shin, 2006, 2008).

The research perspectives on urban design in urban regeneration above informed the initial brief for this thesis, which was to explore the social dimension of urban design in urban regeneration in both countries. However, straightforward attempts to apply the wider understanding of urban design in urban regeneration faces substantial difficulties for reasons of different contexts of urban policies, and the complexity in the practice of urban regeneration. The thesis therefore responded to the brief by exploring how the social dimension of urban design has been understood in urban regeneration practices in different contexts, and how urban design could have the potential to contribute more constructively to community engagement in urban regeneration in the future.

#### **1.4 Research questions guiding the investigation**

This thesis’ investigation responds to research questions, which are related to urban design in urban regeneration in both countries.

The research questions of this thesis are defined below:

Research question	What is the social role of urban design in facilitating community engagement in urban regeneration?
Specific question 1	What kind of tensions and challenges does urban design face in the practice of urban regeneration?
Specific question 2	What kind of role does urban design play in the practice of urban regeneration?
Specific question 3	What are factors affecting community engagement in the process of urban regeneration?
Specific question 4	What channels for engaging community are used in the process of urban design in urban regeneration?

In response to the questions above, chapter three reviews literature in terms of urban regeneration, community engagement, the definition and the role of urban design, the practice of urban design, the process of urban design, and its collaborative nature, and urban design guidance, and the practice of urban design. In chapters from five to seven, three case studies are used to explore the process of urban design and community engagement in urban regeneration practices. Chapter eight compares the three case studies in relation to these subsidiary specific questions and chapter ten integrates the responses to these subsidiary specific questions and discusses the social role of urban design in relation to community engagement in urban regeneration.

### **1.5 Research strategy: the comparison of urban regeneration in England and Korea**

The research strategy of this thesis is based on the comparison of urban design in urban regeneration in England and South Korea. The review of both countries' urban policies focuses on constructing a thorough understanding of urban design dimensions in relation to urban regeneration and urban policies. The thesis progresses a detailed empirical investigation of urban design in both countries' urban regeneration practices to examine the roles and the process of urban design in urban regeneration within very different contexts. The thesis examines Singil regeneration, Seoul, Korea as a case study, comparing it to Scotswood and Walker regeneration in Newcastle, UK. The English case studies provide 'a learning lesson' to understand the possibilities of urban design in

urban regeneration through a comparison with the Korean case study. The comparison of similarities and differences with the very different contexts contributes to constructing a thorough argument for the potentials of urban design in urban regeneration.

## **1.6 The organization of the thesis**

What is presented in this thesis is linked with the research questions above, organized into the subsequent chapters. These chapters first review the context for urban policies in both countries and literature on topics related to the research questions of this thesis. They then explore the urban regeneration practices with empirical research on three case studies to respond to the specific research questions. They discuss the Korean context and conclude with a set of conclusions that draw together the social dimension of urban design in urban regeneration as a response to the research questions.

Therefore, Chapter 2 explores the context for various urban policies and political/economic changes as the backgrounds for wider understanding and highlights in particular the emphasis on urban regeneration in urban policies in both countries, the rising significance of urban design in urban policies, the emphasis of community based strategy and the tension in community engagement, and the strong effect of current economic downturn and the political change on urban regeneration. Chapter 3 provides literature reviews with identified key themes including urban regeneration, community engagement, and urban design. It also discusses the contribution of this thesis to plug a research gap between issues in literature and practice.

Chapter 4 proposes a research framework for addressing the research questions and identifies a research strategy for this thesis with five main tasks. The tasks include 1) conceptualising specific issues, 2) the selection of the case studies, 3) mapping the comparative stakeholders, 4) investigating urban design issues and data gathering, and 5) analysing data using an analysis framework.

Chapters from 5 to 7 progress a detailed empirical investigation of urban design in urban regeneration in the different context of three case studies, including Singil in Seoul, Korea, and Scotswood and Walker in Newcastle upon Tyne, England. These chapters consider the context of urban regeneration practices with the case studies along three dimensions: understanding of urban regeneration, understanding the process of urban design, and understanding community engagement in urban regeneration. Chapter 8 moves the focus to comparative analysis of the three case studies and discusses the roles of urban design, tensions and challenges, factors affecting community engagement and channels for engaging community, as a response to the specific questions.

Chapter 9 discusses the roles and the process of urban design in relation to urban regeneration and community engagement in the Korean context based on the analysis of interviews with five academic scholars in Korea, and suggests a set of implications for urban design in urban regeneration in the Korean context. In the concluding Chapter 10, the arguments made in this thesis are integrated as a concluding discussion to respond to the overall research question asking the social role of urban design in facilitating community engagement in urban regeneration. It also recommends applications for urban design in urban regeneration in Korea and reflects on its limitations. The conclusion highlights the shift of urban design in urban regeneration practices towards a socially responsible urban design as an ongoing process in urban regeneration.

## **Chapter 2 Backgrounds of urban policies on urban regeneration in England and Korea**

### **2.1 Introduction**

In this chapter, the understanding of urban policies related to urban design in urban regeneration is mainly based on the review of policy documents in both countries as opposed to chapter three which is based on academic literature. Understanding the wider contexts on various urban policies and political/economic changes in both countries provides setting the scene for the discussion on research questions for this thesis. As the backgrounds for wider understanding, this research has sought to emphasise how urban design issues in urban regeneration link to the economic and socio-cultural relations of the area with policy/political relations, as these are changing.

The first part of this chapter focuses on understanding the English contexts on the New Labour Government's fresh policies on social inclusion and sustainable communities, urban renaissance and the emphasis of design quality, and the emphasis on community involvement, New Deal for Communities and Housing Market Renewal programmes, and changes on urban regeneration policies with the economic downturn after 1997 and the coalition government after 2010. The second part of this chapter concentrates on understanding the Korean contexts on the market-led approach on inner city regeneration since the 1970s; Newtown in City initiative from 2003 and legislation of the Special Act on the Promotion of Urban Regeneration in 2006; a national research on urban regeneration from 2007 until 2014; urban design and community engagement in urban regeneration; and the impact on urban regeneration of the bust in the real estate market after 2008. The discussion in the third part of this chapter concentrates on a comparative analysis between the English and Korean contexts covering general matters such as the emphasis on urban regeneration, urban design, community engagement and the impact on urban regeneration of economic and political changes, before developing discussions in detail in the subsequent chapters.

## **2.2 The English contexts of urban policies since 1997**

### **2.2.1 Social Exclusion**

The New Labour government established the Social Exclusion Unit(SEU) in 1997. The SEU's report on neighbourhood renewal, *Bringing Britain Together: National Strategy for Neighbourhood Renewal*, was published in September 1998. The report identified a series of mistakes and problems that had characterised previous urban regeneration policies, including too little investment in people; the by-passing of communities; a lack of mainstreaming; excessive managerialism; a profusion of initiatives; and a lack of coordination and joined-up working (SEU, 1998, p 32-34).

This report focussed on improving the social condition of the most deprived communities through more joined up solutions. The main themes outlined in relation to poor communities were: improving the skills base and overcoming barriers to employment; improving housing and neighbourhood management; improving access to public and private services; and giving better opportunities and motivation to young people. SEU addressed the neighbourhood as the 'foundation principle' of urban regeneration and underlined that maximising the community's contribution in the regeneration would entail "capacity building" (SEU, 1998. p 57).

*The National Strategy for Neighbourhood Renewal* (SEU, 2001) included programmes such as the Neighbourhood Renewal Fund, New Deal for Communities and the Neighbourhood Management Pathfinders, which aimed to narrow the gap between the most deprived areas and the rest of England.

### **2.2.2 New Deal for Communities (1998-2008)**

The New Deal for Communities (NDC) Programme was announced in 1998 and designed to reduce gaps between some of most deprived areas in England and the rest of the country. 39 NDC Partnerships was established in areas accommodating on average 9,800 people. The NDC Programme was designed to achieve six key objectives:



-transform these 39 areas over 10 years by achieving holistic change in relation to three place-related outcomes: crime, community and housing and the physical environment, and three people-related outcomes: education, health, and worklessness

-‘close the gaps’ between these 39 areas and the rest of the country

-achieve a value for money transformation of these neighbourhoods

-secure improvements by working with other delivery agencies such as the police, Primary Care Trusts, schools, Jobcentre Plus, and their parent local authority

-place the community ‘at the heart of’ the initiative

-sustain a local impact after NDC Programme funding ceased

(CLG, 2010, p.5).

Each Partnership implemented an approved ten year delivery plan with an average of £50m of Government investment (DCLG, 2008a; Social Exclusion Unit, 2001). NDC partnerships regeneration was directed at the rejuvenation of socially deprived and excluded neighbourhoods, going beyond physical or economic renewal to tackle multiple social inequalities, including poor job prospects; high levels of crime; educational under-achievement; poor health; and problems with housing and the physical environment. Community engagement was a central component underpinning this policy approach (Mathers et al., 2008; Russell, 2008). The NDC programme focused on delivering positive change in the neighbourhood scale to tackle social problems with locally-developed strategies in the NDC areas.

### ***2.2.3 Urban renaissance***

Strong advocacy on the commitment to regenerate England’s cities was based on the discourse of *urban renaissance* of the Urban Task Force report, *Towards an Urban Renaissance* in 1999 (UTF, 1999) and the Urban White Paper (UWP) on urban policy in 2000 (DETR, 2000). This initiative diagnosed ‘signs of urban malaise’ that British cities

faced with serious problems of revitalization of poor, blighted urban areas complicated by increasing ethnic tensions, and country towns grappled with creeping suburbanization and the loss of previously protected countryside (DETR, 2000; Walters, 2007). The aim of the UTF report was to identify the causes of urban decline in England and to “recommend practical solutions to bring people back into our cities, towns and urban neighbourhoods” (UTF, 1999, p 1). The UTF report and UWP both called for a more move ‘back to the city’ by delivering an urban renaissance. *Urban renaissance* was a key word in British urban policy aimed at reinvigorating urban areas to make them both desirable places to live and at the same time more environmental sustainable (Lees, 2003).

Urban intensification or densification and promoting brownfield development to build more housing was addressed with the prominence of ‘urban sustainability’ in the UTF report and the UWP. Urban renaissance emphasised brownfield development with setting targets of land reuse and the Planning Policy Statements (PPS) supported the development of more housing on brownfield sites. In particular, PPS 3 on housing introduced targets to promote brownfield development targeting of building at least 60% of new housing on brownfield sites (DETR, 2006). PPS 1 also emphasized urban regeneration as a core activity:

*Promote urban ... regeneration to improve the well being of communities, improve facilities, promote high quality and safe development and create new opportunities for the people living in those communities (DETR, 2005, p. 11)*

Despite of widespread support for an *urban renaissance* as a positive urban agenda to tackle decades of English anti-urbanism, and for an emphasis on community involvement (Amin et al., 2000; Punter, 2010; Robson, 1999), some literature criticised the emphasis on urban regeneration in terms of gentrification (Amin et al., 2000; Atkinson, 2003; Lees, 2003). Lees (2003), for example, described UTF report as a ‘gentrifiers’ charter’ and he concerned the end result would be “cities for the few, not the many” (p. 72):

*I am concerned that policy statements that prioritise a 'back to the city' move by the middle classes do so at the expense of other social groups. As the gentrification literature teaches us, gentrification inevitably leads to displacement and social polarisation (Lees, 2003, p. 74).*

Another critique has been focused on the unreality in three key words within the urban renaissance: 'sustainability', 'diversity' and 'community'. Firstly, 'sustainability' was considered to be founded on the densification of urban form in the urban renaissance agenda. Lees (2003) argued that the issue of compact urban form has ignored questions about significant behavioural issues such as how dense urban living could attract the English and how it could persuade the British public to give up using their cars so much. Secondly, the assumptions of harmonious inner-city communities with 'diversity' in the agenda was criticised on that the assumptions simplified the function and value of diversity and underestimated the reality of constant struggles between gentrifiers and existing residents (Lees, 2003). Thirdly, some critiques focused on the unreality of the vision of 'community' of the agenda. Amin et al (2000) argued that it is a vision of harmony and order that is "unattainable practice" and actually "undemocratic in intent" (p10). Atkinson (2003) also questioned the reality of the vision of 'community' with the argument on whether communities 'in excluded spaces' have the powers and resources in the practice of urban regeneration.

Akinson (2003) also pointed out tension between 'social' and 'physical and economic' sides. He argued that there are tensions in urban renaissance between achieving competitiveness through a primary focus on economic and physical regeneration and ensuring that local communities both decide upon and benefit from these developments. Lees (2003) recognized that part of the problem lies in "the mismatch between the language and ideas of an urban renaissance and the practice of an urban renaissance" (p. 80).

#### *2.2.4 Urban renaissance: the emphasis on design excellence*

The urban renaissance agenda emphasized the significance of urban design as one of the key tools to create sustainable environments and to improve the competitiveness of an area, and of a city as a whole. In the UTF's report, achieving design excellence was emphasized as one of the five central principles to create the conditions for change, and good design was regarded as a contributor to the long term sustainability of the city:

*Successful urban regeneration is design-led (UTF, 1999, p. 49).*

*Urban design plays roles in linking people and places together without social segregation and alienation (UTF, 1999, p. 49).*

The Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment (CABE) was established to help implement the design dimension of urban renaissance in 1999. The publication of *By Design: Urban Design in the Planning System* (CABE and DETR, 2000) set a detailed manual of urban design concepts by setting out key urban form objectives to guide development control. A more detailed handbook on urban design, the *Urban Design Compendium 1* and the *Urban Design Compendium 2* (English Partnerships, 2000, 2007) provided guidance on the principles of urban design and guidance on the process of implementing design quality in urban regeneration by offering a synthesis of best practices.

The significance of urban design has been apparently supported by rewritten Planning Policy Statement 1 (PPS1) as seen in statements like: "Good design ensures attractive usable, durable and adaptable places and is a key element in achieving sustainable development. Good design is indivisible from good planning" (DETR, 2005, p. 14). The PPS1 included the emphasis on high quality and inclusive design in the key principles which should be applied to ensure that development plans and decisions taken on planning applications contribute to the delivery of sustainable development:

*(iv) Planning policies should promote high quality inclusive design in the layout of new developments and individual buildings in terms of function and impact, not just for the short term but over the lifetime of the development. Design which*

*fails to take the opportunities available for improving the character and quality of an area should not be accepted (DETR, 2005, p. 6).*

The value added by urban design has been also explored. CABE and DETR suggested that urban design can add value and the added value can manifest itself in various ways for the different stakeholders involved (CABE and DETR, 2001; English Partnerships, 2007):

*Good urban design is essential to deliver places which are sustainable on all counts: places that create social, environmental and economic value. Ensuring that places are well designed should be a priority of everyone involved in shaping and maintaining the built environment. (English Partnerships, 2007, p.1).*

### **2.2.5 Sustainable Communities**

The Government's action programme to tackle pressing problems in communities in England, *Sustainable Communities: building for the future*, was published in 2003. The Sustainable Communities Plan in 2003, set out a vision of strong and sustainable communities and the important requirements of sustainable communities. The Plan addressed housing supply and quality issues, and also reflected a concern to 'improve the quality of the public realm – the surrounding environment and community services that make an area more liveable' (Jones and Evans, 2008, p 90). The key initiatives in the Plan included the development of growth areas in South East England and the creation of Housing Market Renewal Pathfinders in the North. Alongside the plan, rewritten *PPSI, Delivering Sustainable Development* emphasised that plans should involve communities in developing a shared view of sustainable patterns of local development (DETR, 2005).

### *2.2.6 Housing Market Renewal Programme (2002-2011)*

The New Labour government announced a Housing Market Renewal (HMR) programme in 2002, originally for 9 subregional areas, including NewcastleGateshead (three partnerships were added in 2005, figure 2.1). The HMR programme was based on research exploring the connections between dysfunctional housing market and deprivation and economic decline following industrial collapse (DCLG, 2009a; Neven et al., 2001). HMR was a regeneration programme aiming to tackle low demand and to rebuild housing market and communities in parts of the North and the Midlands which have suffered large-scale housing abandonment (ODPM, 2003; Robinson and Pearce, 2009). This programme was established in recognition of a set of serious issues affecting areas of a number of cities in the North and Midlands. These issues included high concentrations of vacant and long term vacant housing, very low house prices, population loss and out migration, leading to residualised communities, high levels of multiple deprivation, high unemployment, crime and other socio-economic problems, and histories of previously failed housing and regeneration programmes (BNG, 2011). Long term (approximately 15 year) financial support from the central government was offered. In May 2002, an initial £25m of public funding for the pathfinder areas was announced to assist in the development of detailed plans and to begin to implement practical solutions. In February 2003 the Government's Community Plan allocated £500m for the nine pathfinders to fund approved programmes over the period until March 2006. In November 2007, funding of £1bn was announced covering the period up to March 2011. The programme had the following key features:

- It was recognised that the problems faced in housing markets were extensive and did not respect administrative boundaries.
- The main focus of the housing market renewal fund was on capital investment in land and housing, but the pathfinders were expected to influence a wide range of regional, sub-regional, local and neighbourhood strategies, policies and programmes in order to restructure housing markets.
- The government referred to a 15-20 year time scale for the programme as a result of the scale and intractability of the problems being addressed.

-Pathfinder partnerships were given a high degree of independence from government direction to develop and implement their programmes, reflecting the differing circumstances in each area and recognition that local drivers of change, opportunities and capacities should determine solutions

(DCLG, 2009a, pp. 10-11).

The HMR pathfinder programme seemed to support the emphasis on ‘practical solutions to bring people back into cities’ of *urban renaissance* by tackling low demand of housing in the Pathfinder areas which were experiencing population decline, high ratios of vacant dwellings, and low level of owner occupation. Compared to the direct focus on social problems of the NDC programme, the HMR programme focused on improving the quality and choice of housing through physical improvement with new building of high quality housing and refurbishments, in response to social problems such as crime, anti-social behaviour, supply mismatches, poor stocks and environmental conditions and changes in household formation, which may be related to the problem of low demand.

Similar to the debate on *urban renaissance*, some academic literature has raised criticism about the possibility of negative social consequence of the HMR programme in terms of gentrification and social cleansing (Cameron, 2006, Robinson, 2005, Allen, 2008). Cameron (2006), for example, argued that the focus of HMR on the transformation of place leads to the negative social consequence of ‘the replacement of a substantial part of the existing population by households with higher incomes and social status’ with an ‘engineered gentrification’ approach’ (p. 14). Another critique has been focused on the possible manipulation of community engagement and structural inequalities in power and resources (Blakeley and Evans, 2008).



Figure 2.1 The location of HMR areas (source: Audit Commission)

### 2.2.7 The emphasis on community involvement

New Labour’s solutions to democratic renewal from late 1990s was based on the reform of local government structures and new and innovative forms of participation to motivate people (Blakeley and Evans, 2008). From the experience of urban regeneration in the past symbolized as *brick and mortar* improvements (Cameron, 2006), strategies



in urban regeneration in the UK changed with the emphasis on ‘integration’, ‘partnership’, and ‘governance’ (Evans and Jones, 2008).

This change was related to the consideration of broader interests of the community in order to enhance a better quality of life for local residents. Developing the right structures of governance and forms of social capital within excluded communities was expected through community involvement in urban regeneration partnerships (Atkinson, 1999, 2003). The emphasis on community involvement was strongly supported by PPS 1 (DETR, 2005), in terms of the Government’s planning reforms and delivering sustainable development:

*More effective community involvement is a key element of the Government’s planning reforms. This is best achieved where there is early engagement of all the stakeholders in the process of plan making and bringing forward development proposals. This helps to identify issues and problems at an early stage and allows dialogue and discussion of the options to take place before proposals are too far advanced (p. 4)*

*(vi) Community involvement is an essential element in delivering sustainable development and creating sustainable and safe communities. In developing the vision for their areas, planning authorities should ensure that communities are able to contribute to ideas about how that vision can be achieved, have the opportunity to participate in the process of drawing up the vision, strategy and specific plan policies, and to be involved in development proposals (p. 6).*

The 2008 White Paper, ‘Communities in Control: real people, real power’, emphasised the shift of power, influence and responsibility into communities and the importance of community engagement in public policy:

*We want to shift power, influence and responsibility away from existing centres of power into the hands of communities and individual citizens. This is because we believe that they can take difficult decisions and solve complex problems for themselves. The state’s role should be to set national priorities and minimum*

*standards, while providing support and a fair distribution of resources (DCLG, 2008c, p 1).*

*Equally, we want local people to have more of a say in the planning system so we will provide more funding to support **community engagement in planning** and we will ensure planners develop stronger skills in working with communities (p 6).*

Urban regeneration programmes have become associated with the policy changes to the governance and social improvement of local communities on the ground that strong participation can enhance empowerment and sustainability (Bull and Jones, 2006; Jones, 2003; Lowndes et al., 1998; Lyons et al., 2001). Shaw and Robinson (2010) evaluated the commitment to ‘engaging’ the community in the process of urban regeneration:

- Over the last decade, a more sensitive and precise understanding of the different types of ‘community’ has emerged, with the interests of communities of ‘identity’ being considered alongside more traditional communities of ‘place’ (ODPM, 2003b)
- Efforts to enhance the capacity for involvement have also led to the development of good practice in measuring and monitoring community involvement (Wilson and Wilde, 2003)
- The range of mechanisms available for engagement and involvement also expanded considerably, with established techniques such as ‘planning for real’ or consultative forums now expanded to encompass a wide variety of other kinds of opportunities for involvement.
- The experiences of the major regeneration initiatives developed since 1997 have demonstrated the benefits of community involvement, it is now embedded in practice and very likely to be sustained as a principle in future regeneration initiatives (Shaw and Robinson, 2010, p 134).

However, some critics from literatures focused on the reality of practical community participation on British urban regeneration. The critics argued that community participation may not achieve local social solidarity, social inclusion and democratic

decision making, or power sharing due to structural constraints on socio-economic inequality, on political structure and on policy environments (Blakeley and Evans, 2008; Bull and Jones, 2006). Jones (2003) was concerned that it may even (re)produce inequality.

### ***2.2.8 Changes in urban regeneration policies with the economic downturn and the Coalition government***

The British economic downturn with the international credit crunch which began in the US in 2007 has affected urban regeneration in England. The sharp decline in house prices and the collapse of the buy-to-let market all impacted upon the UK (Parkinson et al., 2009; Punter, 2010). Residential-led regeneration schemes located in less prosperous peripheral economies were hit and schemes which had not started became vulnerable. Some HMRP and NDC areas reported sites that were demolished but struggled to get developers on board to develop housing (Parkinson et al., 2009).

As a response of urban regeneration policy to the effects of the economic downturn and the credit crunch, the New Labour Government set out a national framework for regeneration with a government document titled *Transforming places; changing lives: A framework for regeneration* (DCLG, 2008b) in 2008. A renewed focus, on ensuring that regeneration tackles the underlying economic challenges, was underlined in the document: “regeneration is a sub-set of economic development. Successful regeneration will be dependent upon improved economic performance” (DCLG, 2008b, p. 11). The framework included regeneration strategies as the co-ordinated and prioritised regeneration investment in the right place, devolving power to align investment behind local and regeneration priorities, and focusing regeneration investment on tackling the underlying economic challenges. Another government’s document (DCLG, 2009b) as the response after consultation restated the focus on economic transformation through regeneration in the right place. The document set out the commitments of central government and key delivery agency to deliver the regeneration framework.

The Coalition Government of Conservative–Liberal Democrat was formed after the 2010 general election. The change of government has affected the previous urban regeneration programmes. The government introduced widespread reform, and a programme of budgetary cuts in public spending. The Homes and Communities Agency which funds social housing and some regeneration programmes had large cut in 2010 and a reduction in functions, especially its strategic role. HMR funding was ended in 2010, and merged into a Regional Growth Fund with less than half the intended programme and spending completed (£2.2bn of £5bn). The Coalition Government has made the *Big Society* as a central theme of its programme for government. The government claimed that the *Big Society* agenda addresses a radical shift of power from centralised state to local communities with six essential actions, including lifting the burden of bureaucracy; empowering communities to do things their ways; increasing local control of public finance; delivering the supply of public services; opening up government to public scrutiny; and strengthen accountability to local people (DCLG, 2010). Four vanguard *Big Society Communities* have been established and a Big Society Bank with initial reserves at £60-£100m was established to provide new finance to the voluntary sector, charities and social enterprises (Ippnorth, 2011). A new *Localism Bill* is on the legislation process. The Bill (2011) included the abolition of Regional Spatial Strategies, and proposals to provide for neighbourhood plans and neighbourhood development orders relating to the planning and regeneration provisions.

## **2.3 The Korean contexts of urban policies**

### ***2.3.1 A market-led approach on inner city regeneration***

In the postwar year, urban policies and planning for the inner city in Korea focused on ‘reconstruction’ and ‘renewal’ to clear and improve overcrowded urban squatter areas in the 1960s and 1970s. Since the 1970s, redevelopment of inner city areas driven by the private sector has been continued in contrast to a large scale urban expansion with new developments as new towns in greenfields in the outer city, especially near Seoul, driven by the public sector. The ‘Act on the Redevelopment of Urban Areas(도시재개발법)’, which was legislated in 1975, has regulated the process of the redevelopment of inner city areas. Joint Redevelopment Projects (합동재개발, JRPs), through which land owners and developers share profits, have been widely used for the

redevelopment of inner city areas for housing renewal based on the high demand for housing in large cities in Korea since the 1980's. In the process of JRPs, after government designates redevelopment areas, land owners form an association, which contracts with construction companies and takes responsibility for the redevelopment project. A redevelopment association is created to obtain the required approval of two-thirds of land owners. Although the local government provides no public financial assistance, a higher density after redevelopment has generally been allowed to ensure reasonable profits (Ha, 2004; Lee et al., 2003).

Although this market-led approach of residential redevelopment schemes has partly contributed to solving the problem of housing shortages and to improve inadequate housing quality, the strategy of JPRs has ignored social welfare and neighbourhood issue beyond economic profit and physical improvement (Ha, 2007). Ha (2004) pointed out the major problem of JPRs as a gentrification process. He argued that the redevelopment projects in Seoul had little to do with the well-being of residents, particularly low-income residents, and everything to do with a constant restructuring of cities as economic places of capital accumulation. The ratio of resettled households was very low (e.g. four out of five households left in Bongcheon redevelopment, for example), and in the case of tenants, it is much lower than land owners. The high cost of house purchase and high rents have made it impossible for most resettled tenants to afford the full price of a new decent house (Ha, 2004, Ha, 2007).

A debate on the market-driven urban renewal and redevelopment which was regulated by the 'Act on the Redevelopment of Urban and Residential Environment(도시 및 주거환경 정비법)'<sup>1</sup> has emerged. Kim (2008) pointed out eight problems of the Korean urban policies on inner city redevelopment:

- The lack of the role of the public sector and the privatization of redevelopment profits

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<sup>1</sup> In 2002, this act was legislated in 2002 by on the basis of 'Act on the Redevelopment of Urban Areas' and the 'Act on the Redevelopment of Urban Areas' was abolished. In this Act, remodelling projects for the improvement of residential environments was included as one of redevelopment projects.

- Less consideration on delivering urban redevelopment in middle-size or smaller cities located far from the Seoul Metropolitan area
- Much focus on physical improvement and the lack of varied approaches for the implementation of redevelopment projects
- Limited public funding on redevelopment programmes
- Few institutional organisation to control and manage conflicts and tensions occurred in the redevelopment process
- Unaffordable housing price after redevelopment and a low relocation rate of original residents and tenants
- A mismatch between redevelopment programmes supported by different parts of governments and the implementation of redevelopment projects
- Dispersed government organisations for managing redevelopment programmes and a lack of planning professionals in governments

### *2.3.2 'Newtown in City' initiative of Seoul and legislation of 'Special Act on the Promotion of Urban Regeneration'*

A political debate on the ways of housing provision between building new towns outside of Seoul and redeveloping the inner city of Seoul was controversial in the election of the Mayor of Seoul in 2002. Myungbak Lee who advocated redevelopment of the inner city (he was the president of Korea from 2008 to 2012) won the election. The provision of housing was still emphasized as one of the major solutions to alleviate a rapid increase of housing price in Seoul and to reduce economic inequality between north and south in Seoul<sup>2</sup>. Large-scale inner city redevelopment projects called Newtown in City were planned to provide housing stocks. The Seoul metropolitan government set out the characteristics of the Newtown in City as a planned redevelopment with an increasing role of the public sector, and with utilizing various development processes to promote the effectiveness of redevelopment.

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<sup>2</sup> In 2002, the rapid increase of housing price in Kangnam area (the Southern-east area of Seoul) and the extremely higher housing price comparing to the housing prices in the northern area of Seoul were a political issue. The higher quality of educational facilities and relatively large numbers of facilities, including transportation, parks, cultural facilities, recreational facilities and community facilities, in Kangnam area were pointed out as the main reasons of the economic and social inequality between Kangnam area and the northern area of Seoul.

In order to promote regeneration as Newtown in City in physically deprived areas in the inner city of Seoul, ‘Ordinance on supporting a balanced development in Seoul(서울시 지역균형발전지원에 관한 조례)’ was legislated in March, 2003 and locally applied for the Seoul area. In the ordinance, Newtown in City projects were defined as ‘redevelopment projects to promote urban functions for deprived inner city sub-districts’ (Seoul Metropolitan City, 2003). As a first round, three demonstration Newtown in City districts, including Enpyung, Killum, and Wangsimri areas, were designated in 2002. 12 areas were designated as the second round of Newtowns in City districts in 2003, and 11 areas in Seoul were designated in the third round from 2005 to 2007.

The Newtown in City initiative was supported, by local governments in Seoul, as a positive development to tackle the problems of previous property-led regeneration, such as a lack of connectivity, a lack of infrastructures and urban facilities, and limited improvement of the surrounding built environment in sub-district area with small scale developments (Yoon, 2006). Nevertheless, critiques on the practice of Newtown in City development have emerged. The critiques focused on the low rate of resettlement of local residents in practices, serious tensions among local residents, and too much focus on economic benefit (Lee and Jung, 2005; Yoon, 2006).

A need for legislation to support the Newtown in City initiative paralleled a need to regenerate inner city old cores and deprived areas. As a response of national policies to the needs, the ‘Special Act on the Promotion of Urban Regeneration(도시재정비 촉진을 위한 특별법)’ was legislated on the basis of the ‘Act on the Redevelopment of Urban and Residential Environment’ in 2006. The Special Act aims to ‘promote balanced urban development and to contribute to enhancing the quality of life for the public by prescribing such matters as may be necessary to develop regional plans for and to ensure systematic and efficient implementation of projects for: the improvement of residential environment, the expansion of infrastructure, and the recovery of urban functions within decaying urban areas’ (Ministry of Government Legislation of Korea). Regeneration Promotion Districts designated by the Act are classified into two categories, according to the characteristics of the districts:

- Residential district: any area with a concentration of decrepit and substandard housing and buildings requiring the enhancement of residential environment and the improvement of infrastructure
- Downtown district: any commercial district, manufacturing district, railway station area, subway station area, or arterial road intersection requiring the efficient use of land and the recovery of urban functions of the inner city or suburban centre (Ministry of Government Legislation of Korea).

Regeneration Promotion Projects (RPP) include the following projects undertaken within Regeneration Promotion Districts:

- Residential environment improvement projects, housing redevelopment projects, housing reconstruction projects, and urban redevelopment projects under the ‘Act on the Maintenance and Improvement of Urban Areas and Dwelling Conditions for Residents’;
- Urban development projects under the ‘Urban Development Act’;
- Marketplace improvement projects under the ‘Special Act on the Nurturing of Traditional Markets’;
- Urban planning facility projects under the ‘National Land Planning and Utilization Act’ (Ministry of Government Legislation of Korea)

With this government policy, 58 areas, including 23 physically deprived areas in Seoul, have been designated as Regeneration Promotion Districts since October, 2006. Table 2.1 below summarizes the aims of RPP, types and scale of RPP and zone types, and the procedure of the Regeneration Promotion Project in a comparison with the Newtown in City projects.



	Newtown in City Project	Regeneration Promotion Project
Related regulation	Ordinance on supporting a balanced development in Seoul (legislated in 2003)	Special Act on the Promotion of urban regeneration (legislated in 2006)
Aims	To promote a balanced development between northern and southern areas in Seoul	To promote a balanced urban development and contribute to the enhancement of the quality of life
Types and scale	- Newtown in City area: New development type, Residential centre type, City centre type -Balanced development promotion area -No limit on scale	-Residential type: Over 50,000m <sup>2</sup> -Downtown type: Over 20,000m <sup>2</sup>
Zone types	-Planned redevelopment zone -Planned management zone -Autonomic redevelopment zone	-Regeneration promotion zone -Remaining management zone
Agreement of residents in Designation	is needed on the basis of 'Act on the Redevelopment of Urban and Residential Environment'	is not needed
Procedure	Designation of area → planning → Designation of development zones → Development of each zone	Designation of area → planning (Designation of development zones) → Development of each zone

Table 2.1 Summary of Newtown project and Regeneration Promotion Project (after Yoon, 2006, p. 16)

### ***2.3.3 A national research on urban regeneration led by the urban regeneration task force***

The relocation of key urban functions from old core to new development areas of cities and the loss of a growth engine in old inner city areas accelerated urban decline in old cores of Korean cities. The inner city deterioration in Korean cities called for the emphasis on urban regeneration and changes on urban policies with the following two critical issues. The first issue is that most urban regeneration projects have been concentrated in the Seoul Metropolitan area or a few large cities, and as a result, other smaller cities have had few chances to tackle urban decline in inner city. The second issue is that urban redevelopment projects have made little contribution to improving the quality of life and have been much focused on physical transformation and economic benefits as a development business (URTF, 2010a).

As a political response to the call to promote urban regeneration in both large cities and peripheral cities, an Urban Regeneration Task Force was established by the Ministry of Land, Transport and Marine Affairs, after Myungbak Lee of Hannara Party was elected as the president of Korea in December 2007. The Task Force defined urban regeneration as “comprehensive actions to revitalize city in the physical, environmental, economic, cultural aspects by introducing or creating new functions for inner cities which are relatively declining as a result of changes in industry and urban expansion as a result of the development of new town and new core areas in the city” (Kim, 2008; MGLK, 2010, p. 1; URTF, 2010a). The task force set out the strategies for urban regeneration in Korea towards 1) a balanced development between new and old cores in a city through revitalizing inner city and restructuring of spatial functions, 2) improving the competitiveness of cities, and 3) achieving sustainable development to enhance the quality of life in the future (URTF, 2010a).

Four research teams in the Task Force have been collaborating with 40 universities and 17 research institutes from 2007 until 2014. The four main topics for the four research teams include 1) the legislation of ‘Act on Urban Regeneration’, setting out a economic framework and regeneration strategies linked with the cause of decline, 2) development of a community regeneration framework, 3) development of a mixed use development framework in mega-structure development, and 4) development of a management framework for the diagnosis systems of structure, environmental management and disaster protection. The seven year national research has been expected to provide alternative methods for urban regeneration in middle size or smaller cities which have little chance to tackle urban decline. Pilot test-beds for the application of the urban regeneration framework and technologies, suggested by the research, have been proceeding from 2010. Changwon city and Jeonju city were selected as two pilot cities for the test-beds in 2010. The legislation of the ‘Act on Urban Regeneration’, and setting a national urban regeneration framework and manuals were discussed as recommendations by the research. A mid-term research report, titled *Urban Regeneration Technology for Sustainable Green City Community* was published in November 2010 (URTF, 2010b).

However, at first glance the mid-term research report, titled *Urban Regeneration Technology for Sustainable Green City Community*, reads like a technology manual. Four major research topics of the Task Force are likely to focus on the development of engineered skills or techniques for physical transformation, construction, and the management of the built environments, as can be read in the title, rather than on providing a cornerstone which leads urban regeneration strategies to be effective to solve the basic problems of declining inner cities in the long term.

#### ***2.3.4 Increasing emphasis on urban design in the urban regeneration process***

The emphasis on urban design in the process of urban regeneration has been increasing in the recent urban policies of Korea. A Regeneration Promotion Plan for Regeneration Promotion Districts by the ‘Special Act on the Promotion of Urban Regeneration’ is developed by local authorities (the mayor or Do governor). The plan provides more detailed plans on urban form, public realm matters, and an implementation plan which includes design guidance for the development of each development zone. The government’s guideline for the planning of a Regeneration Promotion Plan has supported the emphasis on urban design in urban regeneration:

*The plan has to suggest sketches or models which can illustrate urban design to let local residents and users of place know how improved environment and facilities will be provided, and to provide a guidance for implementation on the following plans: a plan for parks and open spaces, a greening and conservation plan, a plan for the provision of facilities, architecture plan, and landscape plan (MLTM, 2010, 4-1-4).*

An important change in the process of developing a Regeneration Promotion Plan is that urban design experts are actively involved in the process. Local authorities (the mayor or provincial governor) which have the power to plan a Regeneration Promotion Plan

can commission an expert in urban planning, urban design, and architecture as a senior planner<sup>3</sup> to oversee and coordinate the entire process of development of a regeneration promotion plan. Generally, professors in the School of Planning, Architecture, and Urban design in leading universities are appointed as a ‘senior planner’ or a master planner. Other experts in relevant fields, including architecture, landscape, transportation engineering, and marketing, are also involved in the process. A regeneration promotion planning authority organizes and operates ‘a project conference’<sup>4</sup> to consult or obtain advice on the following matters: matters necessary to develop a regeneration promotion plan and implement regeneration promotion projects, matters necessary to reconcile the opinions of local residents for each regeneration promotion project; and any other matters as prescribed by the Presidential Decree. The project conference consists of twenty or less councillors, including a senior planner and a senior project manager as well as other councillors appointed or commissioned by the regeneration promotion planning authority among any relevant public official of the applicable local government; the project developer (including associations and other project developers under each applicable law); and any expert in relevant fields (Ministry of Government Legislation of Korea).

A suggestion of using urban design in communication with local communities has been reflected in the second research theme of the national urban regeneration research, called a *Community-friendly Model for Residential Area Regeneration* (see Figure 2.2). The research suggested an alternative model for the process of urban regeneration emphasising community engagement with a communication process using various urban design events, such as making a neighbourhood cognitive map and community image making events, drawing images for setting objectives with communities, a collage game event, and design game events for designing community facilities and housings (URTF, 2010b).

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<sup>3</sup> A senior planner is called as ‘총괄계획가’ or a ‘master planner’. Architects as expert who involved in a project conference is generally called as ‘master architects’ or ‘sub- master planners’ in Korea.

<sup>4</sup> The regeneration promotion planning authority shall hold a meeting of the project conference in any of the following cases: Where one half or more of councilors of the project conference makes a request; or where the regeneration promotion planning authority deems it necessary to hold a meeting.

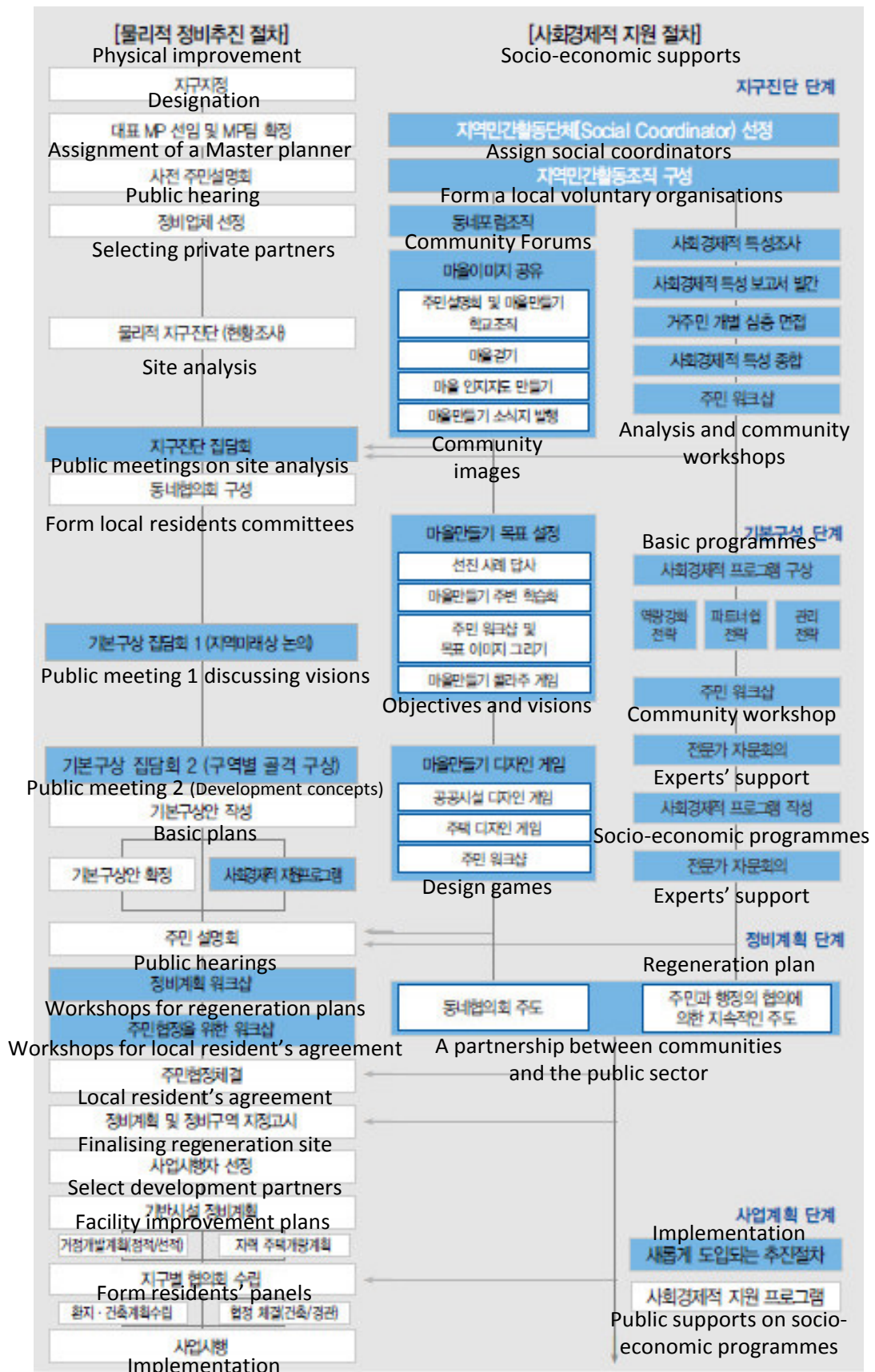


Figure 2.2 A community-friendly model for residential area regeneration (Source: URTF, 2010b, p. 99)

### *2.3.5 Community engagement in the urban regeneration process of Regeneration Promotion Projects*

Severe tensions among local residents and tensions between planning authority and local residents have been occurred in many practices of Newtown in City projects and Regeneration Promotion Projects (Lee and Jung, 2005; Lee et al., 2010; Yim and Yoon, 2008; Yoon, 2006). As a response, a need for community engagement to reconcile various opinions from local residents in the planning process has emerged. Community engagement seems to be increasing its significance in the process of planning for Regeneration Promotion Projects. A recent change in the Act (July 21, 2011) includes a provision that local residents' representatives can be involved in the Project Conference and the change in regulation will be applied from July 22, 2012. Although a statutory consultation process is limited to 14 days public consultation, a hearing from local congress, and a public hearing, the government's guidance for the planning of Regeneration Promotion Plans encourages community engagement in the planning process:

*In the preparation of plan, the planning team can encourage community engagement through various ways such as a survey and meetings with communities to reflect communities' opinions in the plan (2-1-4).*

*A Promotion Plan should be based on the survey on local residents and should reflect the result of survey on housing demands of local residents to encourage resettlement in the same area (6-2-2).*

*A Promotion Plan planning authority should promote the planning process to reflect various opinions from local residents (7-1).*

*A Promotion Plan planning authority should encourage community participation through a various ways of community participation to reflect opinions from local residents, for example, through holding meetings with local representatives, or public hearing events before the statutory consultation (MLTM, 2010, 7-3).*

The need for an alternative process with active community engagement, as a response to increasing tensions in the process of urban regeneration, has been reflected in a research

theme of the national urban regeneration research. The research suggested a *Community-friendly Model for Residential Area Regeneration* and the model will be tested with pilot test-beds projects in two middle-size cities, Changwon and Jeonju (see figure 2.2). In this model, the process of urban regeneration includes socio-economic supporting programmes, of the public sector, such as supporting a social coordinator, organising a neighbourhood forum, and supporting a partnership with a neighbourhood committee (URTF, 2010b).

### ***2.3.6 The real estate market bust and the impact on urban regeneration***

The international economic downturn has affected urban regeneration in Korea where the real estate market bust started from 2008. Large scale regeneration projects, including Newtown in City projects and Regeneration Promotion Projects, were affected by the market bust, with a reduced economic viability. Some regeneration projects were opposed by local residents because of the reduction of expecting financial return. Private development partners also have had to bear more risk to implement developments with regeneration plans which were finalised before the change in market condition. The time schedule for most housing-led regeneration projects has been delayed. Also, most Project Financing projects as inner city regeneration projects have been discontinued or cancelled. As a response, a need for reappraisal of urban regeneration projects has emerged. Seoul city council has been reappraising urban regeneration projects to derestrict the restriction of development permission applied on management zones in Newtown in City project areas or in Regeneration Promotion Project areas.

Alongside the property market bust, an alternative approach in urban regeneration, focusing on the neighbourhood level rather than large scale redevelopment schemes with demolition, has been adopted. The changes in urban regeneration approach can be found in current urban regeneration practices including ‘Human Town’, ‘Maul Community Making’ projects in Seoul; pilot test-bed projects for *Community-friendly Model for Residential Area Regeneration* in Changwon and Jeonju city (URTF, 2010b); a recent introduction of ‘small scale residential environment management’ and ‘housing

improvement projects’ in the ‘Act on the Redevelopment of Urban and Residential Environment’ (February 1, 2012).

## 2.4 Discussion

The British and Korean governments adopted different definitions of urban regeneration in their urban policies. The British government underlines practical ranges of urban regeneration and interventionist activities in its definition:

*Regeneration is a term that means different things to different people, ranging from large scale activities that promote economic growth to neighbourhood interventions that improve quality of life. The Government’s view is that regeneration is a set of activities that **reverse economic, social and physical decline** in areas where market forces will not do this without support from government (DCLG, 2008b, p. 6).*

On the other hand, the Urban Regeneration Task Force of Korea defined urban regeneration as ‘comprehensive actions to revitalize city in the physical, environmental, economic, and cultural aspects by introducing or creating new functions to inner city which is relatively declining as a result of changes in industry and urban expansion with the development of new town and new core in city’ (Kim, 2008; URTF, 2010a, b). This definition underlines comprehensiveness and integration of actions for urban regeneration. However, the definition implies that urban regeneration in Korea focuses on functional activities and it might have some limitations in tackling social problems.

The British government’s definition seems to vary the scale of urban regeneration and it emphasises the intervention of the public sector due to the low interest of the market. On the other hand, the Korean government’s definition is likely to view urban regeneration as changing the functions which can lead to a large scale redevelopment of the area at the city scale and it does not consider social aspect in the definition. The difference of definitions of both Governments implies that there are significant differences in the contexts of urban regeneration areas, differences in the roles of the



public sector in urban regeneration, differences in regeneration actions and visions, and differences in potential risks and challenges for urban regeneration.

Political changes have strongly affected urban policies relating to urban regeneration. The changes of the Government, for example, New Labour Government to the Coalition Government in the UK, and the election of the mayor of Seoul city and the Hannaradang Government in Korea, have been one of the strongest forces influencing major issues which urban regeneration focuses on. A general similarity between the urban policies in both countries is found in the emphasis on urban regeneration in the 2000s. In both countries, enhancing the competitiveness of cities was an important aim of urban regeneration. Whereas one of main aims of *urban renaissance* was more bringing people 'back to a city' in the UK, urban regeneration policies in Korea such as Newtown in City or Regeneration Promotion Projects aimed 'a balanced development in a city or a region'.

Alongside the changes in urban policies, the involvement, and the role, of public sector have been changed in the process of urban regeneration. More involvement of the public sector, contrary to the market-led regeneration which was a dominant approach in the past, were promoted in the urban regeneration policies of both countries (before 2010 in the UK). The public funding supports to the NDC programme, and the HMR Pathfinder programme as a state-led regeneration are examples in British policies. In the Korean policies, the public sector's support in the planning process for Newtown in City projects and for Regeneration Promotion Projects, and a Public Management Programme are examples of increasing involvement of the public sector in urban regeneration.

The quality of urban design seems to be emphasised in both countries' urban policies. Whereas the quality of urban design has been directly highlighted in the British policies, for example, in the UTF's report, PPS 1, and CUBE's documents, it is likely that the significance of urban design has been increasing in Korea with the involvement of the public sector in the urban regeneration process, as seen in the senior planner's control in

Regeneration Promotion Projects, and in the suggestion of using urban design in the national research on urban regeneration. However, the contributions of the emphasis on urban design are really about urban design quality and are not so relevant to the focus of a community-based strategy.

Community engagement in the practices of urban regeneration has been quite controversial. Community engagement seems to be encouraged in both countries' urban policies. In the UK, New Labour's emphasis on partnership and governance has supported community engagement in urban regeneration. Shaw and Robinson (2010) evaluated that the experiences of the major regeneration initiatives developed since 1997 have demonstrated the benefits of community involvement, as a principle in future regeneration initiatives (p. 134). Recent changes in Korean urban policies, such as involving local resident representatives in the Project Conference for Regeneration Promotion projects, and a suggestion of an alternative model by the national research, also reflect a demand for community engagement in the process of urban regeneration.

However, it is likely that community engagement in urban regeneration practices has not been usually matched with the aims of urban regeneration in the national policies of both countries. There has been an active debate about the reality of community engagement. Close attention to community engagement in urban regeneration in both countries focuses on tensions with communities in terms of the result of gentrification, and political constraints on power and resources, especially in large scale redevelopment schemes, such as the HMR Pathfinders (UK) and Newtown in City and Regeneration Promotion Projects (Korea). The matter on the scale of urban regeneration is likely to be linked with the community engagement issue and the tension between the 'social side' and the 'physical and economic side' (Akinson, 2003). Compared to NDC programme (UK) dealing with the more social side and a residential environment improvement programme (Korea) dealing with physical improvement in a smaller scale, the HMR programme (UK) and the Newtown in City and Regeneration Promotion Projects (Korea) seem to focus on relatively large scale redevelopment schemes with more emphasis on the physical and economic side than social side, at the wider level rather than the neighbourhood level.

Furthermore, the changes in economic conditions have strongly impacted on urban regeneration policies in both countries. Alongside the UK's economic downturn after 2007 and the bust in real estate market in Korea since 2008, most urban regeneration projects in both countries have been delayed in a time schedule or discontinued due to a lack of economic viability. The focus of urban regeneration has been shifted more to tackling economic challenges as a direct response. As a long-term response, neighbourhood management with public support is likely to be emerging as an alternative to large scale urban regeneration in both countries. The political change with the Coalition Government from 2010 in the UK was paralleled to the economic downturn and shifted the focus of urban regeneration to neighbourhood-scale management, combined with reduction in public sector support, with the *Big Society* agenda. In Korea, the community-friendly model for residential area regeneration has been developing as an alternative approach or one of the choices for the urban regeneration process, as a political response to current severe tensions with communities and low economic viability.

In this chapter, understanding the wider contexts of both countries' urban policies in relation to urban regeneration, urban design, and community engagement and the discussion sets the scene as a background for a wider understanding to develop detailed discussion on urban design in regeneration for the subsequent chapters. Discussions will be elaborated in more detail in Chapters five, six and seven with the case studies in both countries, and detailed discussions and suggestions on urban design in urban regeneration in the Korean context made in Chapter nine.

## Chapter 3 Critical Academic Literature Review

### 3.1 Introduction

Chapter two provided understanding of the policy contexts in both countries about urban policies in relation to urban regeneration, urban design, and community engagement. Alongside the background for wider understanding discussed in Chapter two, this chapter explores the academic literature in relation to the research questions of this study. It again identifies and extends key themes considered in this study: urban regeneration, community engagement, and urban design which will be extended to the definitions and roles, the practice, the process and its collaborative nature, and urban design guidance.

This literature review chapter is divided into seven parts. The first of these explores the context of urban regeneration from literature on the definitions of urban regeneration, the process of urban regeneration and stakeholders involved in urban regeneration. The second part focuses on community engagement by reviewing the definition of key terms relating to community engagement, the value and purpose and the level of participation, power and critiques on participation, and the participation process and methods. The third part moves the focus to urban design beginning by exploring the definitions of urban design, the significance and the value of urban design, and the roles of urban design(ers). This chapter then goes on to explore the practice of urban design by considering the scope of urban design, urban form and public realm, and the quality of urban design. This chapter also explores the process of urban design, actors involved in the urban design process, and its potential as a collaborative arena. It then explores the use of urban design guidance by reviewing the hierarchy of urban design guidance, and various tools of design guidance relating specific places. Finally, part seven discusses important issues on the key themes for developing the subsequent chapters and it reflects on the contribution of this study to plug a research gap between issues on literature and practice.

## 3.2 Urban regeneration

### 3.2.1 The definition of urban regeneration

Definitions of urban regeneration from literature have suggested that urban regeneration deals with various challenges against the processes of decline and needs long term integrated and holistic approaches and strategic objectives. According to Roberts and Sykes (2000, p. 17), urban regeneration refers to “comprehensive and integrated vision and action which leads to the resolution of urban problems and which seeks to bring about a lasting improvement in the economic, physical, social and environmental condition of an area that has been subject to change”. Urban regeneration as an elastic term observed by Allan Cochrane (2007) is based on multi dimensional perspective of urban regeneration and its wide application.

*The definition of the ‘urban’ being ‘regenerated’ and, indeed, the understanding of ‘regeneration’ have varied according to the initiative being pursued, even if this has rarely been acknowledged by those making or implementing the policies. So, for example in some approaches, it is local communities or neighbourhoods that are being regenerated or renewed. In others, it is the urban economies that are being revitalised or restructured with a view to achieving the economic well-being of residents and in order to make cities competitive. In yet others it is the physical and commercial infrastructure that is being regenerated, in order to make urban land economically productive once again. And there has also been a drive towards place marketing (and even ‘branding’), in which it is the image (both self-image and external perception) of cities that has to be transformed (pp. 3-4).*

### 3.2.2 The process of urban regeneration

Academic literature has conceptualised the process of urban regeneration. Peter Roberts (2000) provides a conceptual urban regeneration process with the wider scope of urban regeneration actions-1) economic, social, and environmental analysis as input; 2) application to an individual urban area forced by external and internal drivers of change; and 3) implementation and outputs. This process encompasses the variety of themes and

topics involved in urban regeneration and the multiplicity of interrelated outputs. This urban regeneration process recognises the uniqueness of place, the reflection of wider circumstances and requirements of the city or of the region and a need to reduce social exclusion and to enhance the economic reintegration of disadvantaged areas. He underlined that urban regeneration is supported by the desirability of ensuring that urban areas make a positive contribution to national economic performance and to the attainment of a range of other social and environmental goals.

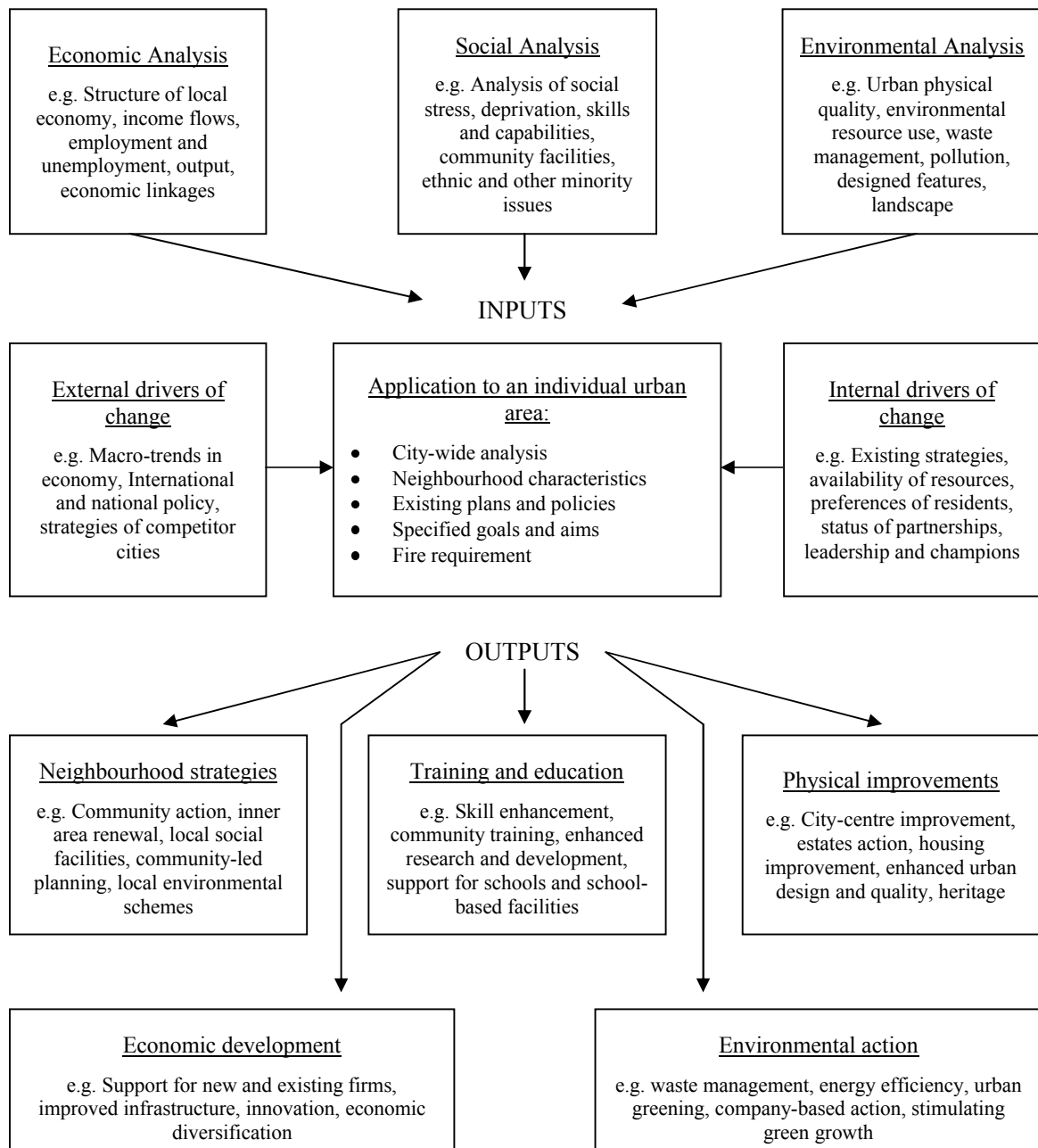


Figure 3.1 Urban regeneration process (After (Roberts, 2000, p.20))

Mary Rhodes and John Murray (2007) identified four processes in urban regeneration from British urban regeneration case studies and observed significant nonlinearities of the processes. The processes are 1) identifying the problem based on 'rules' as a agenda-setting activity; 2) creating agents to better negotiate with implementing agency around variations across neighbourhood; 3) agreeing and approving solutions overlapped with the definition of the problem, specifying alternatives and making decisions; and 4) acting and delivering the solutions(s) agreed as the implementation phase.

### **3.2.3 Site-based regeneration**

Although the vision of urban regeneration extends from community level to city level, site based actions for urban regeneration usually interconnected with the radical physical, economic, and social transformation of a brownfield site are an essential component to the achievement of urban regeneration (Pediaditi et al., 2006; Williams and Dair, 2007). The term 'brownfield' refers to:

*..... any land or premises which has previously been used or developed and is not currently fully in use, although it may be partially occupied or utilised It may also be vacant, derelict or contaminated. Therefore a brownfield site is not necessarily available for immediate use without intervention (Alker et al., 2000, p. 43).*

The UK government used a similar definition of brownfield referring to any previously developed land that is or was occupied by a permanent structure (DETR, 2006). A brownfield site is normally experiencing continuous dereliction and requires radical physical, economic, and social transformation to tackle the dereliction. Bringing brownfield back into beneficial use relieves development pressure on greenfield site (Williams and Dair, 2007).

In site-based urban regeneration focusing upon the land use life cycle of the brownfield redevelopment, a redevelopment process is observed as a sequence of planning stage, remediation, construction, and operation stage (in other words, the future land-use stage) (Pediaditi et al., 2006). Although the remediation and reconstruction of the site is a shorter period than the final land-use, careful site design in the planning stage controls the important linkage between the remediation and operation stage. Williams and Dair (2007) identified three main spheres of activity in the development process of brownfield site as 1) land-use planning and regulation, 2) development and construction, and 3) end use. They considered that development activities rarely fit into these simplified categories, and there is considerable interaction between the three spheres.

### ***3.2.4 Stakeholders involved in urban regeneration***

A wide range of actors and stakeholders are involved and their different interests form the complexity in the urban regeneration process. Williams and Dair (2006, 2007) explored stakeholders involved in the development and the use of brownfield site. Five identified key groups include 1) regulators, statutory consultees, service providers and councillors, 2) the non-statutory consultees, interest groups and individuals, 3) property developers and developer interests, 4) professional advisors, and 5) end users. Group one and group two are involved in land-use planning and regulation activities. Group three and group four are involved in development and construction activities and Group five, end users use the development after it is completed (Table 3.1). They also pointed out some stakeholders have more influence or power in practice, although each group has its own ideas and influences. Key decision makers involve councillors, public sector and private developers, investors (e.g. banks, pension funds), land owners, and clients of developers (e.g. manufacturers, business entrepreneurs, retailers, home buyers, public service providers) (2006).

Stakeholder groups	Examples of types of stakeholder within each group
Stakeholders involved in land-use planning and regulation	
Group 1. Regulators, statutory consultees, service providers and councillors	Environment Agency (EA) regulators (e.g. pollution control regulators, drainage and flood defence regulators, biodiversity protection regulators) Local authority regulators (e.g. planners, urban designers, highways and transport regulators, landscape architects)



	<p><b>Councillors</b></p> <p>Health and safety executive regulators</p> <p>Building control (Local authority or approved inspectors such as National House Building Council)</p> <p>Utility regulators and service providers (gas, electricity, water and drainage)</p> <p>Central government departments and regional authorities</p>
Group 2. Non-statutory consultees, interest groups, and individuals	<p>Business interests</p> <p>Pressure groups</p> <p>Community group interests</p> <p>Individuals</p>
Stakeholders involved in development and construction	
Group 3. Property developers and developer interests	<p><b>Public sector and private developers</b></p> <p><b>Investors</b> (e.g. banks, pension funds)</p> <p><b>Land owners</b></p> <p>Shareholders of investing institutions and developers</p> <p>Construction workers</p> <p>Suppliers</p>
Group 4. Professional advisors	<p>Lawyers</p> <p>Architects, planning consultants, conservationists and archaeologists</p> <p>Urban designers</p> <p>Civil and environmental engineers</p> <p>Transport consultants</p> <p>Surveyors</p> <p>Insurers and valuers</p> <p>Landscaping consultants</p>
Stakeholders involved in end use	
Group 5. End users	<p><b>Clients of developers</b> (e.g. manufacturers, business entrepreneurs, retailers, home buyers, public service providers)</p> <p>Residents of dwellings and residential homes</p> <p>Proprietors of commercial businesses including, offices, shops; restaurants, and their suppliers, employees and customers</p> <p>Manufacturers and their suppliers, employees and customers</p> <p>Managers and proprietors, of public/private institutions including schools, hospitals, and leisure centres and their employees and visitors</p> <p>Landowners of public/private open space, parks, gardens, woodland and the public that uses those areas</p>

**Table 3.1 Stakeholders involved in the development and use of brownfield sites, adapted from (Dair and Williams, 2006)**

**Note: Group 6, consisting of the key decision makers, is shown in bold italics, Urban designers and transport consultants are added in group 4**

### 3.3 Community engagement

#### *3.3.1 Definitions of key terms related with community in planning*

Community can refer either to communities of place where people have in common that they share a geographical space or to communities of interest sometimes called communities of identity, where people belong to groups that have common concerns, such as environmental groups, or have a shared identity such as their faith or ethnic background (Russell, 2008, p. 11). In the spatial or virtual concept of community on the basis of its 'boundaries' or its 'cultures' (Atkinson, 2003), people belong to many overlapping communities (Steward and Taylor, 1996; Taylor, 1998). To realize community in social relation, 'locality' and 'neighbourhood' is closely related with 'community' (Amit, 2002). Following to Appadurai (1996), locality is defined as primarily rational and contextual, a phenomenological aspect of social life, categorical rather than either scalar or spatial; on the other hand, neighbourhood refers to actually existing social forms in which locality is realized. He explained neighbourhoods in this usage, are situated communities characterized by their actuality, whether spatial or virtual, and their potential for social reproduction (1996).

The terms, 'community participation' and 'community engagement' are widely used in current planning. Community participation narrowly defined is involvement in governance. More widely, it can refer to involvement in a broader range of activities such as volunteering and taking part in voluntary and community organizations (Russell, 2008, p. 11). Community engagement refers to the mechanisms for identifying community views and the channels for undertaking engagement (Russell, 2008, p. 11). The terms, 'community empowerment' and 'capacity building' are currently used and discussed in some literature and policies, particularly emphasised in the British regeneration policies. Community empowerment refers to a process through which a community gains increasing control of its own affairs, and increasing initiative regarding its own destiny (Bull and Jones, 2006; Lyons et al., 2001; Somerville, 1998). Bull and Jones (2006) addressed that there are two ways towards community empowerment: 1) increasing the ability of community to negotiate with external agency and institutions and 2) increasing its ability to manage its internal affairs.

Lyons et al (2001) consider empowerment as being an increase in influence and control through an acquisition of knowledge and skills. Community empowerment is used in relation to building the capacity of individuals (Freidmann, 1996) and groups and developing the necessary infrastructure for the voluntary and community sector to be able to participate effectively in governance structures (Russell, 2008). Capacity building is usually considered in relation to community and voluntary groups but can also refer to public agencies and the need for them and their staff to be adequately equipped for community engagement (Russell, 2008). Marilyn Taylor (1998) pointed out that ‘capacity building’ does convey a sense of the potential to be realized at individual and organizational level and it is important that people have many different ways in. She argues that a local tradition of organising builds the capacity: experience, skills and networks from which further action can flow. It may be small-scale, but more high profile initiatives grow from the small-scale organizing traditions (Putnam, 1993; Taylor, 1998).

Ranges of literature have recognized ‘social capital’ that is used as a means to the end of social inclusion, particular adopted in the current British policy. Social capital is subject to different conceptual definitions (Kawachi et al., 1997; MacGillivray, 2002; Putnam, 1995), but usually refers to the concepts of trust and understanding, shared values, networks and behaviours that can enable co-operative action (Russell, 2008). Putnam’s definition (1995) provides components of social capital: the social networks used by people; social norms adhered to in people’s behaviour; and levels of trust people have either in their neighbours, in people in general, or in the institutions of government. Social capital covers three scales to operate: 1) bonding capital, that is, strong ties between individuals often located in the same neighbourhood; 2) bridging capital, that is, weaker, less dense, cross-cutting social ties as the recognition of shared ‘public values’ between heterogeneous individuals; and 3) linking capital referring to vertical rather than horizontal connections, such as relation between the powerful and the less powerful, the political elite and the public, or between social classes, enabling communities to connect with the power and resources within formal institutions and governance structures (Kearns, 2003; Russell, 2008).

### *3.3.2 Values, types and degrees of community participation*

Lach and Hixson (1996) identified the various values of participation: opening the process to stakeholders, understanding diversity of viewpoints, integrating stakeholder concerns, information exchange, saving time and avoiding costs for a conflict solution after implementation, and enhancing project acceptability, enhancing mutual learning and mutual respect. Following Henry Sanoff (2000), participation reduces the feeling of anonymity and communicates to the individual a greater degree of concern on the part of the management or administration. He also claims that if residents are actively involved in the development process, there will be a better-maintained physical environment, greater public spirit, more user satisfaction, and significant financial savings. He identified the main purposes of participation as follows:

- To involve people in design decision-making processes and, as a result, increase their trust and confidence in organizations, making it more likely that they will accept decisions and plans and work within the established systems when seeking solutions to problems.
- To provide people with a voice in design and decision making in order to improve plans, decisions, and service delivery.
- To promote a sense of community by bringing people together who share common goals (pp. 9-10).

The types and degrees of participation depend on several factors and vary in accord with the circumstances. Oakley (1991) provides three broad interpretations of participation: 1) the contribution to make to predetermined programmes (means), 2) getting the organisations in place or the institutions right, and 3) the end of empowerment (ends). Burns (1979) classifies participation in four categories or ‘experiences’ that can lead to agreement about what the future should bring:

- Awareness: This experience involves discovering or rediscovering the realities of a given environment or situation so that everyone who takes part in the

process is speaking the same language, based on their experiences in the field in which change is proposed.

- Perception: This entails going from awareness of a situation to understanding it and its physical, social, cultural, and economical ramifications. It means people sharing with each other so that the understanding, objectives, and expectations of all participants become resources for planning, rather than hidden agendas that may disrupt the project at a later date.
- Decision making: This phase concentrates on participants working from awareness and perception to a program for the situation under consideration. At this point participants create actual physical designs, based on their priorities, for professionals to use as a resource to synthesize alternative and final plans.
- Implementation: Many community-based planning processes stop with awareness, perception, and decision making, often with fatal results to a project, because this ends people's responsibilities just when they could be of most value- when the how-to, where-to, when-to, and who-will-do-it must be added to what people want and how it will look. People must stay involved, throughout the process, and take responsibility with the professionals to see that there are results (Hurwitz, 1975, in Sanoff, 2000, pp. 10-11)

Analogies expressing the levels of participation have been identified in some literature. Common end point of analogies of the level of participation is 'independent control' or 'self mobilization' (Jones, 2003). Sherry Arnstein (1969)'s pioneering work provides a typology of eight levels of participation in a ladder pattern with each rung corresponding to the extent of citizens' power in determining the end product. The bottom rungs of the ladder are (1) 'manipulation' and (2) 'therapy'. These two rungs describe levels of 'non-participation'. Rung 3 and 4 progress to levels of 'tokenism' than allow the have-nots to hear and to have a voice: (3) 'informing' and (4) 'consultation'. Rung (5) 'placation' is simply a higher level tokenism because the ground rules allow have-nots to advise, but retain for the powerholders the continued right to decide. Further up the ladder are levels of citizen power with increasing degrees of decision-making clout. Citizens can enter into a (6) 'partnership' that enables them to negotiate and engage in trade-offs with traditional power holders. At the top most rungs,

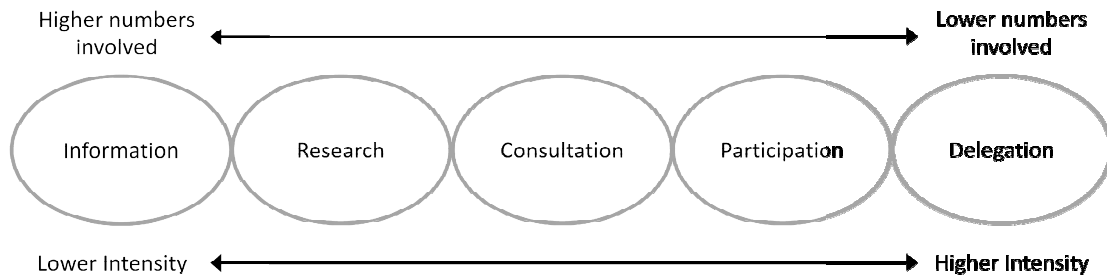
(7) 'delegated power' and (8) 'citizen control', have-not citizens obtain the majority of decision-making seats, or full managerial power.

Similar ladder type analogies by Pretty (1995) provides a typology consisting of 1) manipulative participation, 2) passive participation, 3) participation by consultation, 4) participation for material incentives, 5) functional participation, 6) interactive participation, and 7) self-mobilization. Deshler and Sock (1985) simplified the Arnstein's ladder of participation and identified two levels of participation as 1) pseudo participation and 2) genuine participation. Pseudo participation was categorized as domestication which involves informing, therapy, manipulation; and assistencialism which includes placation and consultation. Genuine participation was categorized as cooperation referring to partnership and delegation of power and citizen control which means empowerment.

Sanoff (2000) claims that people's participation wherein control of a project rests with administrators is pseudo participation. He argued that here the level of participation is that of people being present to listen to what is being planned for them and this is definitely nonparticipatory. Genuine participation occurs when people are empowered to control the action taken. The distinction between forms of participation is important, because it requires careful consideration of communication behaviours throughout the process to bring about knowledge sharing and learning by all participants (White et al., 1994).

The engagement spectrum (ODPM, 2004) based upon Sherry Arnstein (1969)'s ladder of participation categorizes the different forms of engagement and shows progression in terms of levels of intensity involved: 1) giving information to people for the sake of communicating or to enable them to make more informed decisions, which might be through newsletters, websites, roadshows, etc., and might be targeted on specific groups; 2) research which may be structured (through surveys, interviews or focus groups) or unstructured (such as gathering feedback from service users, for example through

suggestion boxed); 3) consultation through a variety of techniques, such as conferences, workshops, asking for written responses to policies, provision or proposals; 4) participation that may cover, inter alia, involvement in partnership structures or representative involvement on boards; and 5) delegation of responsibilities, powers, management/ownership or budget holding.



**Figure 3.2 The engagement spectrum (after ODPM, 2004)**

### ***3.3.3 Power and critiques of participation***

Participation involves mechanisms that delegate and channel power (Cooke and Kothari, 2001). Participation is linked with a redistribution of power in which social obstacles including skills, leadership and experience may be overcome (Jones, 2003). Excluded communities often experience a lack of money, work and morale which continue a lack of power, voice and empowering political participation (Levitas, 1998). Participation and supplying ‘novel co-operation processes’ with non-hierarchical, round-table partnership structures and a co-operative style of policy-making (Mayer, 1994) are advocated to minimize the domination of the powerful ‘included’ against the powerless, passive ‘excluded’ in games of power (Amin, 2000; Jones, 2003).

White (1996), however, points out that communities are not involved in sharing power despite some degree of involvement in sharing and a degree of negotiation. Some literature has also been concerned that participation is complicit in games of power which do not always produce the desired effects and even (re)produce inequality. Cooke and Kothari (2001) claim that the participatory project *per se* should be abandoned because it reflects an ‘unjust exercise of power’ with a real and potential capacity for tyranny.

Some critical literature argued that participation may not achieve local social solidarity, social inclusion and democratic decision making, or power sharing, but instead may subordinate civil society groups (Bull and Jones, 2006; Jones, 2003; Lowndes and Wilson, 2001). Lowndes & Wilson (2001, p. 639) address that public participation is a necessary but not sufficient condition for democracy. Institutional arrangements that ensure access for interest groups and individual citizens to the processes of government do not necessarily guarantee democratic decision making. Jones (2003) explores community-led participation in urban regeneration as a process addressing 'means' which can transform into one tackling politicised 'ends'. His concern is that better-placed or 'recruited' community members are able to take advantage for their own sometimes 'tyrannical' end. He also accepts that participatory processes are therefore unlikely to alter social stratification within communities and may even reproduce it. He concludes that participation is not the only tool in successful regeneration and highlights renewed focus upon social justice and citizenship through promoting capabilities and rights as well as socialization into collective responsibilities, citizenship and even experimental democratic programmes (Amin, 2000).

Bull and Jones (2006) argue that the issue of community trust and participation cannot be considered in isolation from the issue of the uneven distribution of power and resources.

*The often uncritical advocacy of pluralistic participation tends to underestimate the many different forms that social capital can exhibit, not all of which necessarily lead to more inclusive and democratic practices. (p. 782)*

Blakeley & Evans (2008) suggest that genuine community participation in urban regeneration is unrealistic to plug the gap in solving economic and social problems because of social and economic inequalities and political constraint.

*...As the state changes its role and markets are recognized as being unable to solve all economic and social problems, it sometimes appears that there is an unrealistic expectation that community participation can plug the gap. Given the structural limitations on participation by local residents, the burdens that such*



*engagement imposes and the few and ambiguous benefits that it can provide, it is interesting that so much engagement actually occurs, particularly among those people who have the fewest resources which are the lifeblood of participation (p. 111)*

### **3.3.4 Seeking a consensus in the participation process**

Literature has discussed about seeking a consensus in the participation process. Manzo and Perkins (2006) explored the importance of place attachment to community participation and highlighted consensus building strategies to form common ground of shared values. Lichfield (1996) highlighted seeking a consensus on what should be offered as acceptable to the community in the public interest, in offering maximum net benefit overall, or the least minimum damage overall, or damage with equalizing compensation. However, he points out the difficulty to reach a general agreement as following:

*Effective public participation requires involvement with the public at various stages in the planning process. For this purpose there needs to be suitable communication. The results of the participation could generate comment on any of the matters raised, and in certain respects will lead to a reformulation of the analysis, as for example a restatement of the sectoral objectives and what flows from them. But that apart, it is not to be expected that there will be general agreement, simply because of the underlying conflicts of interests that must exist in relation to any project or plan (p. 199).*

Additionally, Lichfield (1996) emphasised negotiation, mediation and bargaining in the process of seeking a consensus in participation as the planning can be seen as a process of complex bargaining between a large variety of actors.

*Such bargaining proceeds whatever the level of communication. In essence it often amounts to sectoral views being expressed against (and rarely for) any proposed change, be it by local residents against intrusion into a residential*

*area or by statutory consultees in respect of water, drainage, roads and so on. Whatever the stage for the bargaining in the planning process (comment on planning application, presentation of planning application, public inquiry, public participation generally), the bargaining will achieve greater efficiency and clarity if it takes place around a central statement that lends itself to the purpose, for otherwise the discussion and argument typically result in a mass of conflicting statements, points of view, values, and so on, through which it is difficult to see a satisfactory conclusion (p. 200).*

Healey(2006) discussed that an agreement of ‘consensus’ may disadvantage some, and may well be put under pressure as circumstances change, new stakeholders appear, and new fractures appear among them (p. 279). She explained that by ‘consensus’ she means some kind of shared appreciation of the parameters of a problem situation, the values and ways of understanding at stake, the distributive consequences and how to address them, and a recognition that decisions reached were legitimately arrived at, at least by those involved in collaborative processes (p. 320).

Sanoff (2000) pointed out the significance of individual learning through increased awareness of a problem in the participatory process. He claims the process should be clear, communicable, and open in order to maximize learning, and it should encourage dialogue, debate, and collaboration.

### **3.4 The definition and the role of urban design**

#### ***3.4.1 The various definitions of urban design***

Taking into account of the definitions of urban design helps to understand the role and the use of urban design in its relation to urban regeneration. Although ambiguities and inconsistency in preceding definitions of urban design have been argued, numerous attempts to definite urban design have focused on ‘dynamic multiplicity’, the threshold of urban design, process and product, and visual and spatial aspects (Madanipour, 1997,

2006). Broadly speaking , urban design ... *draws together the many strands of place making- environmental responsibility, social equity and economic viability, for example – into the creation of places of beauty and distinct identity. Urban design is derived from but transcends related matters such as planning and transportation policy, architectural design, development economics, landscape and engineering. It is about creating a vision for an area and then deploying the skills and resources to realize that vision* (Llewelyn-Davies, 2000, p.12).

Kevin Lynch (1981) used the term, ‘city design’. He defined city design as “the art of creating possibilities for the use, management, and form of settlements or their significant parts” (1981, p. 291).

*City design concerns itself with objects, with human activity, with institutions of management, and with processes of change* (1981, p. 291).

Jonathan Barnett defined urban design as ‘the designing of cities without designing buildings’ (Barnett, 1982).

*Urban design is generally accepted name for the process of giving physical design direction to urban growth, conservation, and change. It is understood to include landscape as well as buildings, both preservation and new construction, and rural areas as well as cities* (Barnett, 1982, p. 12).

Alan Rowley defined urban design as the art and process of designing, creating, making and managing spaces and places for people (Rowley, 1994). The terms, ‘the art’ of Lynch’s definition and ‘the process’ of Barnett’s definition, were used in the Rowley’s definition. This definition implies that urban design as ‘the art’ and as ‘the process’ should contribute to providing and managing the products of urban design for users, in other words, ‘people’. Thomas Schurch (1999) followed Barnett’s definition (1982) of urban design as practised by the allied environmental design professions. Thomas Schurch (1999) grouped the preceding definitions of urban design into five categories of being 1) fundamental, superficial and cursory definitions, 2) qualitative and prescriptive, 3) historic, 4) proprietary, and 5) process oriented. He suggested that the preceding

definitions of urban design lack ‘breadth’, ‘cohesion’ and ‘consistency’, but common to each of definitions of urban design is the characteristic of practice which determines urban form.

Ali Madanipour (1997) pointed out ambiguities of urban design and provided a broad definition encompassing the range of interests and involvements of urban design. He discussed whether urban design refers to a process or a product and underlined that urban design can be seen as a process of shaping and managing urban environments and the products are closely intertwined with the process:

*Urban design is a process, whose product at the first instance is a set of ideas, policies, and images. Once implemented, they form a new or an altered part of urban space. Urban design, therefore, is a process that is interested in its product, the built environment (p. 17).*

*Rather than being confined in the differences and minutiae of these activities, it is still possible to see it as a process through which we consciously shape and manage our built environment (p. 22).*

*Urban design therefore can be defined as the multidisciplinary activity of shaping and managing urban environments, interested in both the process of this shaping and the spaces it helps shape (Madanipour, 1996, p. 117).*

Robert Cowan’s (2005) definition integrates the preceding definitions of urban design as “the collaborative and multi-disciplinary process of shaping the physical setting for life in cities, towns and villages; the art of making places; design in an urban context” (p. 416). Definitions of urban design have been adopted to meet the aims of urban policies. The Urban Task Force’s report, for example, contained a definition of urban design with the relation to urban renaissance:

*In this report, ‘design’ is defined as a product and a process. Design is a core problem-solving activity that not only determines the quality of the built environment – the buildings, public spaces, landscape and infrastructure – but*

*also delivers many of the instruments for the implementation of an urban renaissance (UTF, 1999, p. 39).*

Current English definitions of urban design seem to be expanded to include more recent understandings of environmental issues and the social dynamics of places (Walters, 2007) with the term ‘successful villages, towns and cities’ emphasized in its urban policy. The Government’s manual of urban design concepts, *By Design: Urban Design in the Planning System* (DETR, 2000), defined urban design as followings:

*Urban design is the art of making places for people. It includes the way places work and matters such as community safety, as well as how they look. It concerns the connections between people and places, movement and urban form, nature and the built fabric, and the processes for ensuring successful villages, towns and cities (DETR, 2000, p.8).*

*Urban design therefore involves the design of buildings, groups of buildings, spaces and landscapes in villages, towns and cities, and the establishment of frameworks and processes which facilitate successful development (DETR, 2000, p.93).*

The Urban Design Compendium 1 and 2 also used a similar definition of urban design as “*the art of shaping the interaction between people, places, urban form and nature, and influencing the processes which lead to successful villages, towns and cities*” (English Partnerships, 2000; 2007, p. 16).

Regarding the context of Korean urban policies, although the term of urban design is commonly used in practice, there is little definition of urban design used in the urban policies. In urban policies, urban design is likely to be applied as one aspect of processes in planning. Urban design was one name for processes for detailed planning dealing with public spaces in ‘the Act on Urban Planning’ before the Act was amended in 2000. After the amendment of Act, *District Unit Plan* (지구단위계획) was integrated with *Planning in Detail* (상세계획) and *Urban Design* (도시설계). District Unity Plan is

defined as “a process and a plan, which determines a proper and detailed land use, promotes functions and visuals of public places, enhances the better quality of the built environment, concerning infrastructures, buildings, public spaces including streets and open spaces for specific areas with the aim of sustainable urban development and sustainable urban management” (MLTM (Ministry of Land)).

### *3.4.2 The significance and the value of urban design*

The significance of urban design has been emphasized with the emerging issue of city competitiveness. Ali Madanipour (2006) addressed the rising significance of urban design for producers, regulators and users of urban environments. He underlined that urban design makes significant contributions to the urban development process for the producers: it addresses a new division of labour, shapes the product, co-operates in the production process, stabilizes the market conditions and contributes to the marketability of the product. From the regulators' perspective, the significance of urban design can be found in how it makes the city more competitive by helping shape the future of the city, managing change and helping develop better governance arrangements. Urban design improves the place functions and the symbolic value of the place from the users' perspective.

Aspa Gospodini (2002) explored ‘new uses of urban design’ across Europe, and asserted that urban design appears to be consciously used as a means of enhancing the competitiveness of cities. She recognizes that the emergence of these new uses of urban design will vary across the urban hierarchy and according to the economic centrality-peripherality of each city. In particular, urban design is seen as one means of handling the problems of marginalization and decline, by means of designing innovations for more disadvantaged cities.

Wansborough & Mageean (2000) explored the role of urban design in culture-led regeneration. They argued that urban design is integral to the process of cultural

regeneration, as such things as mixed-use development, environmental improvement schemes and, in particular, public art, aid in the expression and development of the culture of an area. By linking it to urban design, culture provides the necessary impetus and inspiration for urban regeneration and the sense of place can be developed in the established environment. It is essential to link urban design and improvements in the established environment with the political, economic and social processes implicit in the cultural planning approach.

Matthew Carmona et al. (2002) explored different stakeholder views on the value of urban design. They suggested that better urban design leads to significant long- and short-term benefits to investors, developers and designers and to largely long-term benefits for occupiers, public authorities and the community. According to the stakeholders' perceptions:

- *Investors primarily benefit through favourable returns on their investments and through satisfying an obvious occupier demand, although the full payoff may not be immediate;*
- *Developers, if they retain a stake in their developments for long enough, also benefit from good returns on their investments. Furthermore, developers benefit from enhanced company image, with successful schemes regularly used in company marketing, and through attracting investors and pre-lets more easily;*
- *Designers- design, if of good quality, benefits because better urban design is crucially dependent on their input and is more likely to receive planning permission without delay;*
- *Occupiers benefit from the better performance, loyalty, and health and satisfaction of their workforces, and from the increased prestige that their better-designed developments command with guests and clients;*

- *Public authorities benefit by meeting their clear obligation to deliver a well-designed, economically and socially viable environment and often by ripple effects to adjoining areas;*
- *Finally, everyday users benefit from the economic advantages of successful regeneration, including new and retained jobs, but also through access to a better-quality environment and an enhanced range of amenities and facilities.* (Carmona et al., 2002, pp. 164-165)

### **3.4.3 The role of urban designers**

Some studies have explored the role of urban designers emphasising that urban design is an integrative discipline and a profession (Lang, 1994; Lang, 2005). Lang's work (1994) provides significant understandings of the role of urban designers (refer to table 3.2). He discussed various roles of urban designer as 1) image maker and formal artist, 2) as applied ecologist, 3) as infrastructure designer, 4) and as a social force, and underlined that urban designers need an integrationist viewpoint with these roles. Lang (1994, 2005) also points out that urban designers have two distinctive clients: one is the paying clients and the other is the non-paying clients linked with the actual users, and the public interest. He discussed the different stances and approaches of urban designers as 1) an expert, as 2) a midwife and as 3) a collaborator. The stance of urban designer as an expert is a highly egocentric view of the design process, and often ends up as a 'give-em-what-I-want attitude' on the part of the urban designer. The stance of designer as a midwife can end up as a 'give-em-what-they-say-they-want approach' to design through working with a community to elicit its needs and values and to assist the community to turn these ideas into a design. The stance of designer as a collaborator requires low ego involvement in designing through cooperation in an argumentative process with an active process of user involvement. He emphasises an integrative approach and a stance for a collaborative design approach and concludes urban design is an ongoing process of shaping cities, their precincts, and their public realms (Lang, 1994, p. 462)



Professional expertise	<p>1) Urban designer as an image maker and formal artist</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-To set urban design guidelines</li> <li>-To present urban visions or design ideas on how to organize the special pattern of the city</li> </ul> <p>2) Urban designer as an applied ecologist (the landscape architectural view)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-To understand the role of the natural environment in the city, and the effect of the city on the natural world</li> <li>-To design public places to meet human well-being</li> </ul> <p>3) Urban designer as an infrastructure designer (the civil engineering view)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-To design infrastructure systems and related land uses</li> <li>-To enhance the quality of the capital web of settlements</li> </ul> <p>4) Urban designer as a social force (the city planning view)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-To improve the quality of people’s lives</li> <li>-To shape the future</li> <li>-To set a social agenda</li> </ul>
Stances of urban designer	<p>1) Urban designer as an expert (Etic approach, egocentric view of the design process, ‘Give-em-what-I-want’)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-To provide functions in city to meet human needs</li> </ul> <p>2) Urban designer as a midwife (Emic approach to design, ‘Give-em-what-they-say-what-they-want’)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-To see the process through eliminating problems that arise and suggesting ways of easing pains with the community to elicit its needs and values</li> <li>-To work with community to elicit its needs and values and to assist the community to turn these ideas into a design</li> </ul> <p>3) As a collaborator</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-To cooperate with other design professionals, users, and sponsors</li> <li>-To elicit a community’s goals and to bring attention to potential ways of achieving goals</li> <li>-To help the community evaluate the possibilities</li> <li>-To help the community to implement the agreed on solution</li> <li>-To evaluate the completed scheme</li> </ul>
Public and private sector	<p>1) Urban designers as a public employee and as a private consultant for the public sector (The public sector role)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-To provide guidelines</li> <li>-To cooperate and evaluate the work of designers with the community and with the potential needs of future generation</li> </ul> <p>2) Urban designers as a private employee (The private sector role)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>-To meet private interest and to avoid public interest constraints</li> <li>-To meet their own professional obligations against developer’s ultimate control for public interest or against segregationist policies</li> </ul>

**Table 3.2 The roles of urban designers (Summarized after Lang, 1994)**

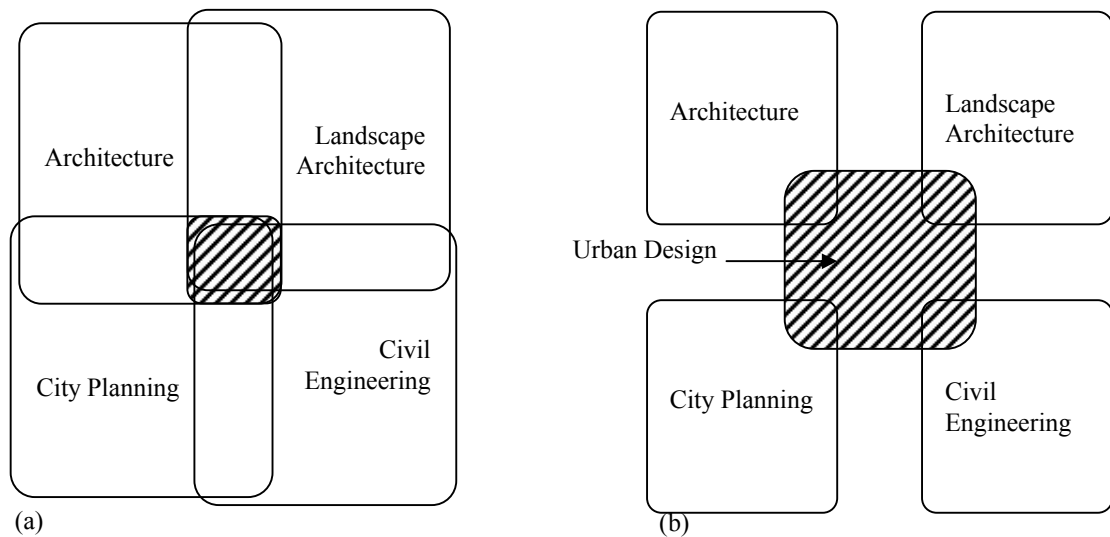
Carmona et al. (2003) identified ten types of urban designer which are not mutually exclusive and may be overlapped within the same project. Those roles include a total designer, an 'all-of-a-piece' urban designer, a vision maker (concept provider), an infrastructure designer, a policy maker, a guideline designer, an urban manager, a facilitator of urban events, a community motivator or catalyst, and an urban conservationist (p. 18). Matthew Carmona et al. (2003) explained that mainstream practice of urban design plays two basic roles, those of 'planner/urban designer' who guides and co-ordinates the activities of others by establishing long-term spatial or physical 'visions' for localities; and those of 'architect/urban designer' who is directly involved with the design of development.

Dair and Williams (2006) explored the influence of different stakeholders in achieving sustainable brownfield developments in England and addressed that urban designers are in a position to promote sustainability objectives. In their analysis, the influence of urban designers to help to achieve objectives is found on an economic objective to enable businesses to be efficient and competitive; on social objectives to provide dwellings to meet housing need, to integrate the development within the locality, and to conserve local culture and heritage; and on environmental objectives to minimize the use of resources, and to minimize pollution.

### **3.5 The practice of urban design**

#### ***3.5.1 The scope of urban design***

To demarcate the scope of urban design may need to take into account the characteristic of the field of urban design. Schurch (1999) observed urban design laying at the 'overlapping intersect of the interests' of other fields related with the layout of the environment— mainly architecture, landscape architecture, city planning and civil engineering. On the other hand, Lang (2005) inferred that urban design has developed its own area of expertise while overlapping these fields (refer to figure 3.3).



**Figure 3.3** The traditional view (a), (Schurch, 1999) and the present state, (b), (After Lang, 2005) of the field of urban design in relation to the other design fields (Lang added civil engineering.)

Schurch (1999) identified specific types of design venues as ‘thresholds of scale’ which are associated with the issue of “quality of life, particularly in terms of the public realm” (p. 17). The thresholds of scale of urban design practice are 1) the site-specific scale of an individual land parcel, 2) neighbourhood or district, 3) an entire city, 4) the region in which a city lies, and 5) corridors. He observed that urban design practice can be grouped into one or possibly a combination of five interrelated project scales or subject areas as thresholds of scale. He discussed qualities, goals and principles describing urban design as ‘common ground’ including place; density; mixed and compatible uses; pedestrianisation and human scale; human culture; public realm; built environment; and natural environment.

### ***3.5.2 The built environment, urban form, and public realm***

Urban design concerns issues of the built environment. The built environment means that “part of the physical surroundings which are man-made or man-organised” (Reekie, 1972, p. 1). Knox and Ozolins (2000) suggested that the roles for the built environment are stimulating economic consumption through product differentiation that is aimed at particular market segments; and legitimisation in helping to suggest stability amid change,

to create order amid uncertainty, and to make the social order appear natural and permanent (p. 3).

*The built environment gives expressions, meaning and identity to the entire sweep of forces involved in people's relation to their surroundings. It provides cues for all kinds of human behaviour, and it is symbolic of all kinds of political, social, and cultural elements. .... The built environment reflects the underlying relationship, tensions, and contradictions in society. Yet the built environment not only reflects the underlying structures of society- it also serves as one of the means through which they are sustained and legitimized (p. 3).*

Urban design determines 'urban form' (Schurch, 1999). Urban form can be defined as the spatial pattern of the large, inert, permanent physical objects in a city (Lynch, 1981) or the spatial pattern of human activity (Anderson et al., 1996) in a wider view. Urban form includes various spatial patterns of built environments. Overall, urban form can be classified into three categories: density, diversity, and spatial-structure pattern (Tsai, 2005). General urban form considerations in urban design include density, residential density, building height and massing, scale and building form, privacy, morphology and grain daylight/sunlight, siting, building line, overshadowing building spacing, site cover, over-development, and enclosure (Punter and Carmona, 1997). Layout of urban structure and urban grain, landscape, density & mix, scale of height and massing, and appearance of details and materials are included in the urban form of development (CABE and DETR, 2000).

Landmark literatures such as Jane Jacobs's work on *The Death and Life of Great American Cities* (1961) and William H. Whyte's book *The Social Life of Small Urban Spaces* (1980) have reaffirmed the importance of the public use and quality of space, especially lively activities, functions and facilities at street level. Urban design has more concern with public space, streets and pedestrian routes, commonly grouped under the concept of the 'public realm' (Punter and Carmona, 1997, p. 74). The public realm is defined as "all parts of the urban fabric to which the public has physical and visual access"(Tibbalds, 1993, p. 4). Punter and Carmona (1997) reaffirmed that the

importance of mixed use as a social public realm, security and safety, and accessibility are also key considerations of urban design as public realm which is directly related to urban form.

Lang (2005) explained the public realm, for professionals involved in any of the environmental design, is comprised of two parts:

*The first deals with the public components of the physical environment (artificial and natural) in which behaviour occurs and the second specifies how communal decisions are made by governments and in the marketplace as defined by a country's constitution. The first affects perceptions of the elements of urban design and the second, the process of urban designing (p.7).*

The controls for defining the public realm have covered design variables such as the nature of materials and patterns of the surfaces of the environment and the objects (natural and/or man-made) that the environment contains (Lang, 1996, p. 14). Urban design considerations for the public realm include building form, ambient quality of public space, streetscapes and squares, specifying or restricting certain uses, mechanisms to stimulate particular types of development, preserving existing buildings and precincts, and specifying the nature and location of public art (Lang, 1996).

### **3.5.3 The qualities of good urban design**

The quality of urban design has been discussed in urban design literature. In order to realize 'good' urban design in literature, certain qualities, goals and principles have explored. Jon Lang (1996) pointed out that the quality of any urban design depends on the quality of the design objectives set and on the quality of the design principles and design guidelines used to achieve them (p. 20). Objectives are statements of what a design is to achieve. Principles are statement describing and, ideally, explaining the link between a desired design objective and a pattern or layout of the environment. A guideline is a statement which specifies (for uninformed people) how to meet an objective. He also compared two types of guidelines: prescriptive guidelines which

specify the basic characteristic of the end product, and performance guidelines in which the performance required of the end product is specified(p. 9).

Jacobs(1961)'s *The Death and Life of Great American Cities* and Kevin Lynch(1981)'s *Good City Form* emphasise certain qualities as requisite for liveable cities or good urban form (table 3.3). Punter (1990) affirmed that Jacob's and Lynch's works are directly or indirectly the sources for the various principles he discussed as various 'fundamental principles', 'commandments' and 'checklists'.

Jane Jacobs (1961)	Kevin Lynch (1981)
(1) Appropriate activity before visual order	Vitality (includes biological and ecological)
(2) Mixed use, mixed age, mixed rent, concentration	(See Sense) (See fit)
(3) The street	(See Vitality)
(4) Permeability (short blocks)	Access
(5) Social mix and consultation	Control
(6) –	Sense (clarity with which it can be perceived)
(7) Robust spaces	Fit (adaptability)
(8) Gradual not cataclysmic money	(See efficiency)
(9) Activity richness	-
(10) Automobile attrition	Two meta criteria, efficiency
(11) Surveillance	(Relative cost)
(12) Safety	Justice (social equity)

**Table 3.3 Jacobs's and Lynch's requisite qualities for liveable cities or good urban form (after Punter, 1990)**

Bently et al. (1985) provided a set of syntheses for design consideration, which affects the choice people can make at many levels, towards 'responsive environments' based on "maximizing choice for the individual, but not at the expense of the collective" (McGlynn, 1994 #162', p. 123) as followings:

- *Permeability*: it affects where people can go, and where they cannot
- *Variety*: It affects the range of uses available to people
- *Legibility*: It affects how easily people can understand what opportunities it offer
- *Robustness*: It affects the degree to which people can use a given place for different purposes
- *Visual appropriateness*: It affects whether the detailed appearance of the place makes people aware of the choice available
- *Richness*: It affects people's choice of sensory experiences
- *Personalisation*: It affects the extent to which people can put their own stamp on a place (McGlynn and Murrain, 1994, p. 123)

Hayward & McGlynn (1993) reduced the above set of qualities to four fundamental qualities: permeability, variety (vitality, proximity and concentration), legibility and robustness (resilience). They emphasized that these four qualities, as the critical qualities in the achievement of 'democratic town form', that have the most fundamental impact on opportunities for personal choice and equity of access.

Alan Rowley (1998) pointed out urban designers have difficulty in agreeing what constitutes good urban design and he identified 50 urban design considerations grouped into four concerns– 1) functional and social use considerations, 2) natural environment and sustainable considerations, 3) visual considerations, and 4) considerations relating to the quality of the urban experience (p. 154). He argued that adequate time must be allowed for better urban design; not necessarily more costly design but certainly different design, within the development process. He also highlighted that the qualities of an environment are the product of the circumstances, values and times in which it was produced (p. 170).

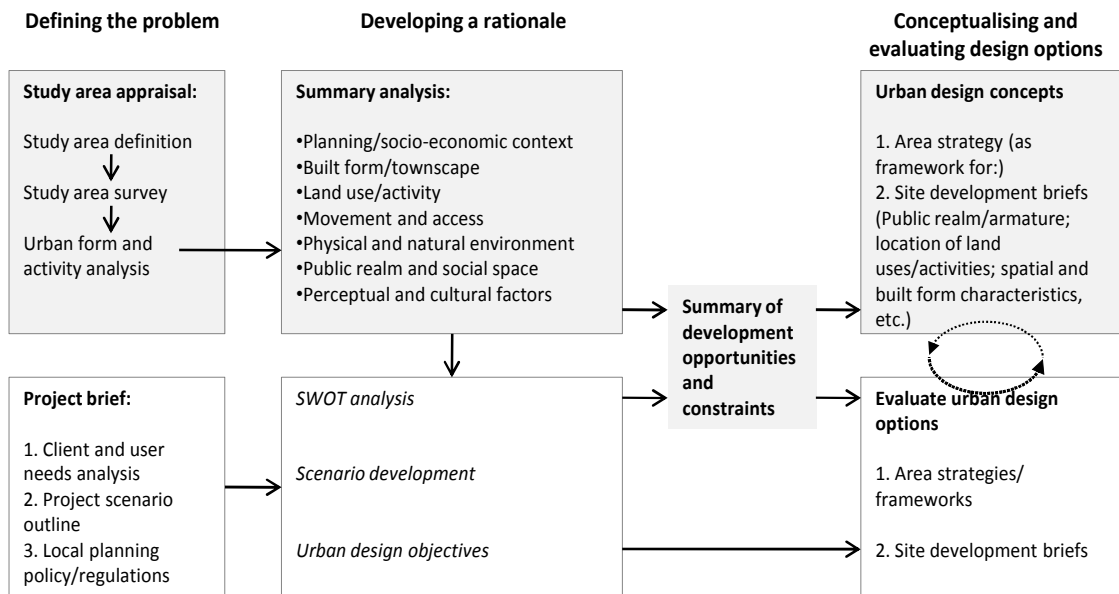
## 3.6 The process of urban design and its collaborative nature

### 3.6.1 *The process of urban design*

Literature on the process of urban design has developed rational design processes which are consisted of activity stages which are normally overlapped and iterative. Kevin Lynch (1976) provides the conceptions of the process of design with four modes of design action. Diagnosis (analysing the spirit of the place, including patterns of use and the meanings attached to the place); policy (developing principles of quality development and management); regulation (codes and standard to execute policy and their negotiation); and design (the development of a specific form) are included in the four modes of design action. Activities of each mode of design action reflect a sequence of the process of urban design. Analysing the contexts of place, developing objectives of design, setting out codes and standard of design, negotiating with stakeholders about design rules, and implementing the design can be considered as stages in urban design process.

Jones (2001) suggested a framework for the urban design process as a cyclic process of analysis-composition-evaluation. In the framework, urban design is developed in the process of three main phases: 1) defining the problem, 2) developing a rationale, and 3) conceptualising and evaluating design options (figure 3.4). He underlined that the suggested urban design process is an attempt to reconcile factors that relate to client or user needs, factors that relate to the site or area under study and its context, and factors that relate to the constraints of planning policy and local planning regulations.





**Figure 3.4 Developing an area rationale and strategy/concept diagram (shaded boxes show mainly drawing-based activities, Jones, 2001, p. 55)**

Jon Lang (2005) discussed a rational step-by-step design process including five stages of design process of intelligence, design, choice, implementation and operation (figure 3.5). He explained that the process of urban design is much more complicated than a linear sequential process.

*While the models give some structure to our thinking and to our design of the decision-making process appropriate to a job at hand, urban design does not take place in the neat sequential manner that the models suggest. (Lang, 2005, p. 26)*

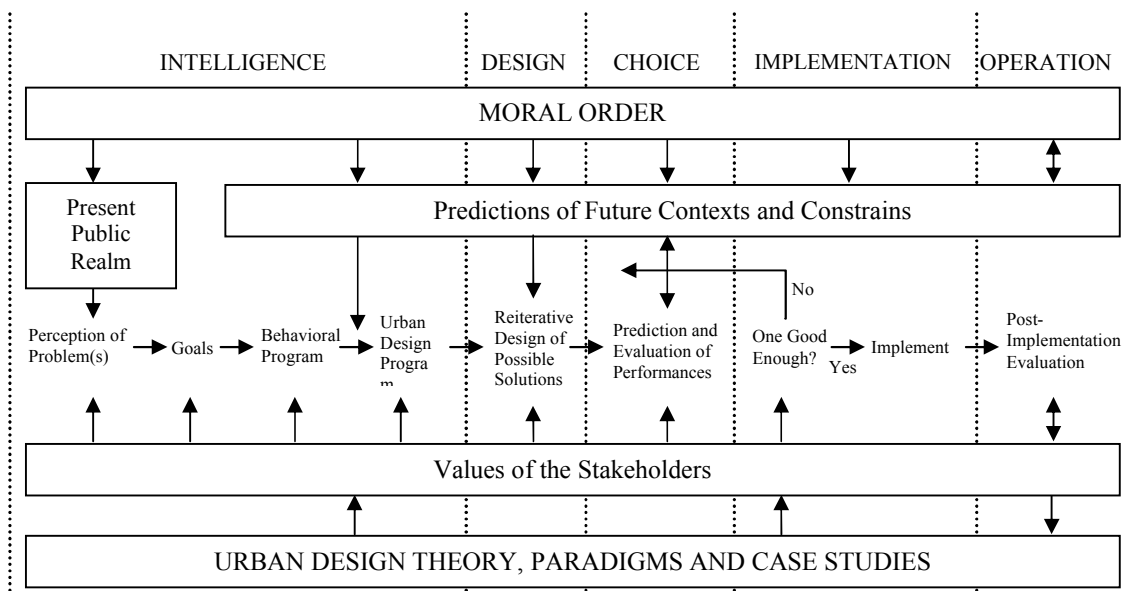


Figure 3.5 A model of the rational design process (Lang, 2005, p. 26)

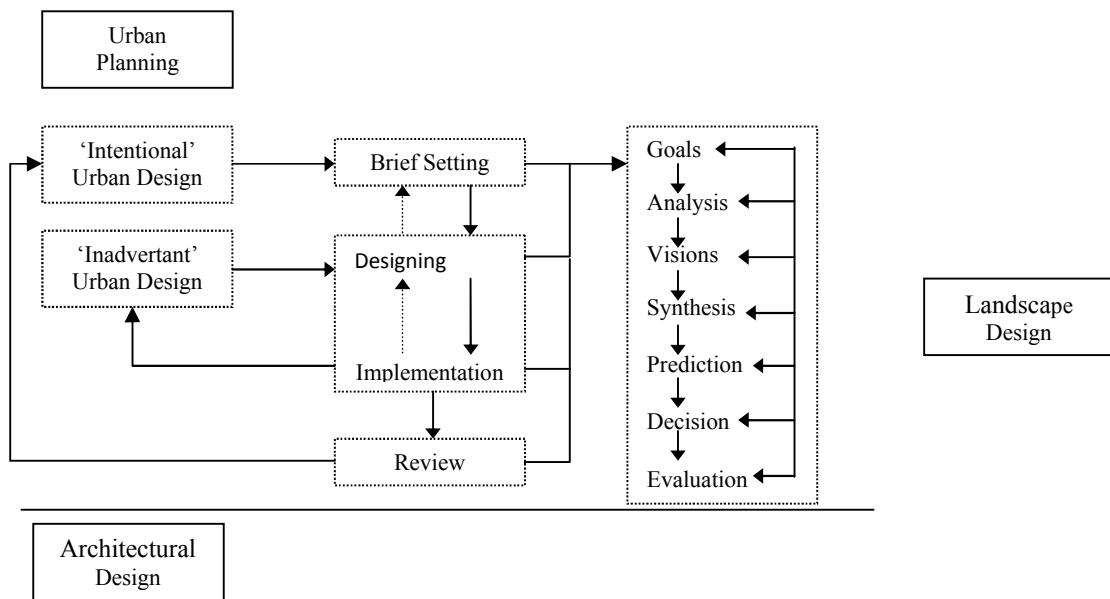
Lang (2005) argued that although all urban designing involves the basic steps of “deciding to engage in a situation, developing a brief and building programmes, finding the finances, and seeing that programme through to completion”, the difference of urban design procedure depends on how the overall process is handled and the way each step is carried out (p. 27). He developed four generic types of urban design work that vary in the procedures: 1) total urban design, 2) all-of-a-piece urban design, 3) piece-by-piece urban design, and 4) plug-in urban design.

Carmona et al (2003) distinguished urban design processes between unknowing design and knowing design.

1. *Unknowing design: the ongoing accumulation of relatively small-scale, often trial-and error, decisions and interventions. .... It also worked because the pace of change was relatively slow and the increments of change relatively small. For better or worse, many contemporary urban environments also happen in this ad hoc and piecemeal fashion without express planning or design.*

2. *Knowing design: the process by which different concerns are intentionally shaped, balanced and controlled through development and design proposals, plans and policies. (p. 55)*

They identified typical four key phases of knowing design: brief setting; design; implementation; and post-implementation review. In each of the four key development of design phases, a series of thought stages - setting goals; analysis; visioning; synthesis and prediction; decision-making; and evaluation (appraisal) - are in practice iterative and cyclical (figure 3.6).



**Figure 3.6 The integrated urban design process (Carmona et al., 2003, p. 56)**

Boyko et al (2006; 2005) suggested four major stages of the urban design process- 1) creating teams, appraising the situation and forming goals; 2) designing and developing; 3) evaluating, selecting and creating a plan; and 4) implementing, monitoring and following up (figure 3.7). They also draw four transition stages, which help actors to redefine the goals of previous stages and move forward to subsequent stages, located between each stage. They pointed out that there is a considerable overlapping among each stage in the four major stages of the urban design process.

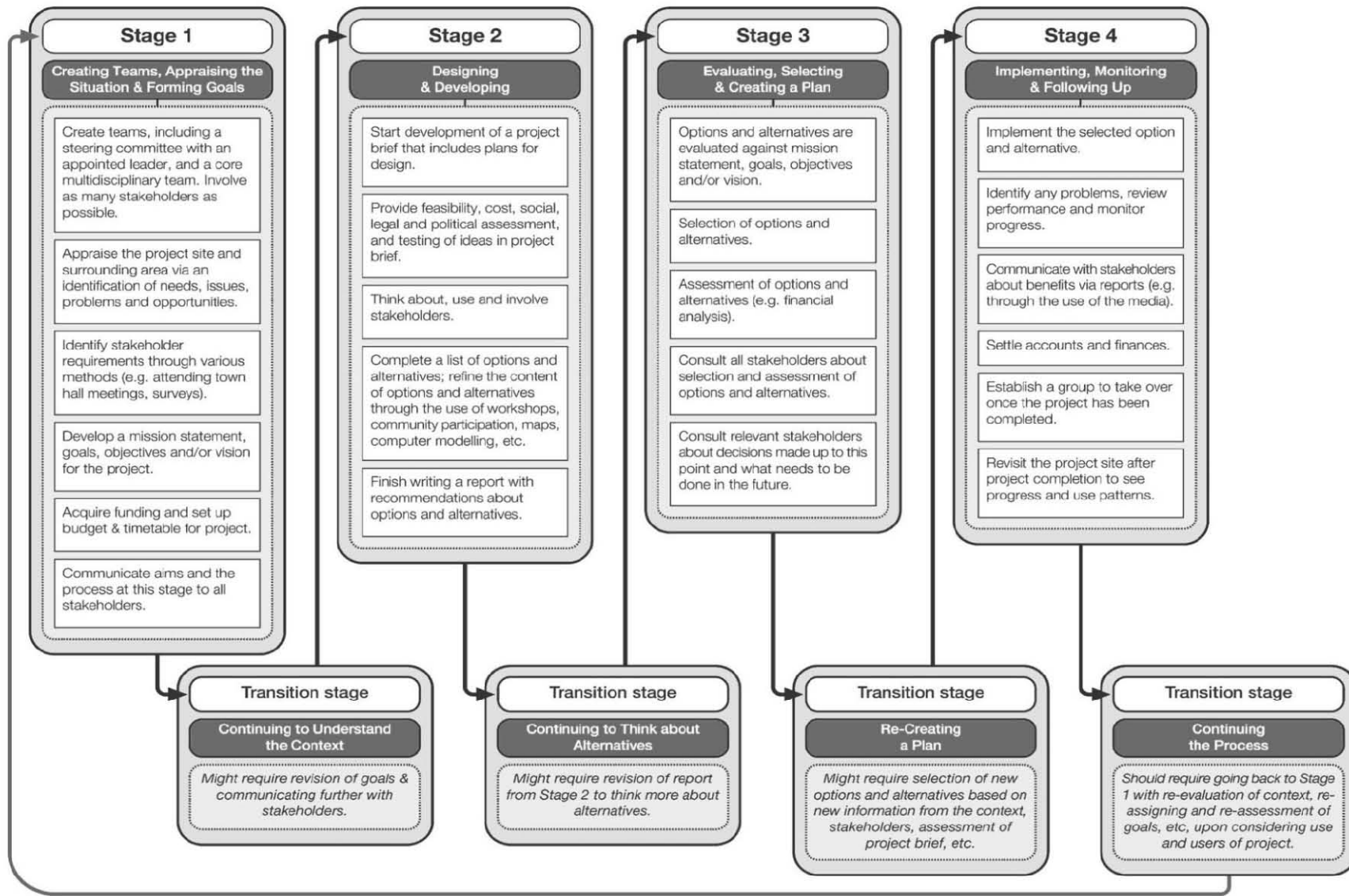


Figure 3.7 The process of urban design (After Bokyo et al., 2005)

Literature on urban design emphasises that the process of urban design is iterative (Boyko et al., 2005; Lang, 1994; Lang, 2005; Punter and Carmona, 1997). The process of urban design is a continuous process in terms of its concern of managing urban environment. The process of urban design is ongoing after the development is built; the iteration of the process of urban design continues for monitoring, assessment and management of the built environment throughout the lifecycle of the development.

### *3.6.2 Actors in the process of urban design*

A variety of actors or decision-makers, each with rather different goals and motivations are involved in the process of urban design and production of the built environment (Knox and Ozolins, 2000; Shin, 2006). George's (1997) procedural explanation of urban design provides the notion of second-order design to understand the complexity and the multi-dimensional dynamic perspective in urban design. Contemporary urban design is considered as a 'second-order design' in the sense that contemporary urban design is design that is one step removed from the designed object. He argued that "turbulent decision environment, distributed decision making, and multiple clients" promote the second-order design feature of urban design (George, 1997, p. 52).

*Urban designers are not authors of the built environment, rather they create a decision environment that enables others to author the built environment. The invisible web that urban designers spin is the decision environment within which designers make design decisions: urban design involves manipulating and structuring this environment (George, 1997, p. 53).*

The notion of multiple clients in a second-order design has been also emphasised in other literature (Barnett, 1982; Lang, 1994). A similar analysis by John Zeisel (1974) pointed out that urban designers have obligations to paying clients and to non-paying clients, mainly including end users as potential clients of urban design in the future.

Ali Madanipour (1997) provides an understanding of the stakeholders involved in urban design. His analysis focused on the significance of urban design from the perspectives of regulators, producers, and users of the urban space.

*Regulators mainly refer to the government and its role in regulating the economy, which in the urban development process is mainly reflected in planning. Producers include those who build the city, predominantly developers and their financiers and teams of professionals, including designers and construction companies. Users generally refer to those who visit, work or live in the city and use the urban space in some capacity (p. 174).*

He also emphasises that there are overlaps in the roles and functions of these groups and the broad categorized groups does not mean a mechanical separations or “narrowing down our relationship to urban space to an instrumental and economic one of mere production and consumption” (1997, pp. 174-175).

Knox and Ozolins (2000) explored a variety of agents in ‘the creation of the built environment’: landowners; speculators; developers; builders; consumers; real estate agents, financiers, and other professionals; government and regulatory agencies. They highlighted that a variety of agents have their own objectives, motivations, resources, and constraints, and all connected with one another in several different ways (p. 5).

Carmona et al. (2002) provided understanding of a variety motivations and concerns for better urban design of various stakeholders. They identified stakeholders with private interests, public interests, and community interests. They suggested that stakeholders with private interests have primary motivations of economic profitability; stakeholders with public interests have primary motivations in relation to broad public interest and planning policies; and stakeholders with community interests have primary motivations reflecting local preferences and protecting property values and compatibility in design and uses (p. 148).

Sue McGlynn (1993; McGlynn and Murrain, 1994) also provided the categorization of the major actors in urban design process. The ‘suppliers’ of the basic commodities of development such as land and capital; the ‘producers’ from developers through to local government, the professional groups and urban designers; and lastly the ‘consumers’- that is everyone who uses the environment.

The ‘powergram’ designed by Sue McGlynn (1993) shows the argumentative nature of urban design in shaping the built environments. The powergram highlights both the very real conflict of values in the development process, and the huge potential to disadvantage the user groups which is driven by the uneven distribution of power inherent in the political economy (figure 3.8). Urban designers are illustrated in the powergram as producers who are broadly involved but have limited influence over a final product.

Actors Elements of the built environment	Suppliers		Producers					Consumers
	Land owner	Funder	Developer	Local authority		Architects	Urban designers	Everyday users
				Planners	Highway engineers			
Street pattern	-	-	○	○	●	-	○	○
Blocks	-	-	-	-	-	-	○	-
Plots – subdivision & amalgamation	●	●	●	○ (in U.K.)	-	-	○	-
Land/building use	●	●	●	●	■	○	○	○
Building form - height/mass	-	●	●	●	-	■	○	○
- orientation to public space	-	-	○	■	-	-	○	○
- elevations	-	○	○	●	-	■	○	○
- elements of construction (details/materials)	-	○	●	■	-	■	○	○
Key: ● Power – either to initiate or control.      ○ Interest/influence – by argument or participation only ■ Responsibility – legislative or contractual      - No obvious interest								

Figure 3.8 A powergram for urban design (After McGlynn, 1993)

### *3.6.3 Urban design process as a collaborative arena and community participation in urban design*

The potential of the process of urban design as collaborative/negotiative arenas among various actors and stakeholders is encouraged by the argumentative nature of the process of contemporary urban design. In the perspective of urban design as a collaborative arena, the significant roles of urban designers have emerged. The broad involvement but limited influence of urban designers over a final product contributes to the role of urban designers as an intermediary in a collaborative process. The role of an intermediary of the urban designer demands the role of an enabler of user involvement. The powergram reveals “the close congruence of interest between urban designers and everyday users which each must exploit to increase their influence in the decision making and design process” (McGlynn, 1993, p. 320).

Jon Lang (1994) argued that urban design is as an ongoing highly value-laden argumentative process in which a society engages to shape its future. He emphasised urban designers’ social responsibility which needs an understanding of the social consequences of their work and their recognition of the political nature of their work. As a collaborative art concerning environmental change and public benefit, he argued that urban designers need to take the principles of democratic action and the recognition of individual rights and freedom of action.

*Urban designing has, however, to be a glass box process. To be successful glass box process, urban design must be based on clearly transparent bodies of substantive and procedural knowledge (p. 464).*

Punter and Carmona (1997) emphasised the role of the urban designer in the relation to disadvantaged groups. This responsibility of urban designer echoes a significant calling for developing a participative/collaborative approach in the process of urban design.

*This imposes an enormous responsibility on the role of the urban designer particularly in the current climate where interest groups which do not have*



*great political power are slowly but measurably demanding far greater input into the design process, wishing to scrutinize what is proposed by those with the power, and desiring to have someone to help them communicate their own responses via design alternatives (p. 86).*

Some research has expressed that designers' priorities and aspirations as 'misplaced certainty' which may not be congruent with those of users (Carmona et al., 2003; Vischer, 1985). In the discussion of the designer-user gap, Vischer (1985) compared two models between 'needs and preferences' model and 'adaptation and control' model. He highlights the conceptual shift from users as passive expressers of needs and preferences to users as active agents of change. In his definition, 'adaptation' refers to users' ability to change themselves and their behaviour in response to different environmental contexts, and 'control' refers to users' ability to change the physical dimensions of an environment without motivation to adapt. He explored three assumptions on needs and preferences model and concluded that giving users some control over their environment may be more effective than trying to design a direct response to their response to their needs as they express them.

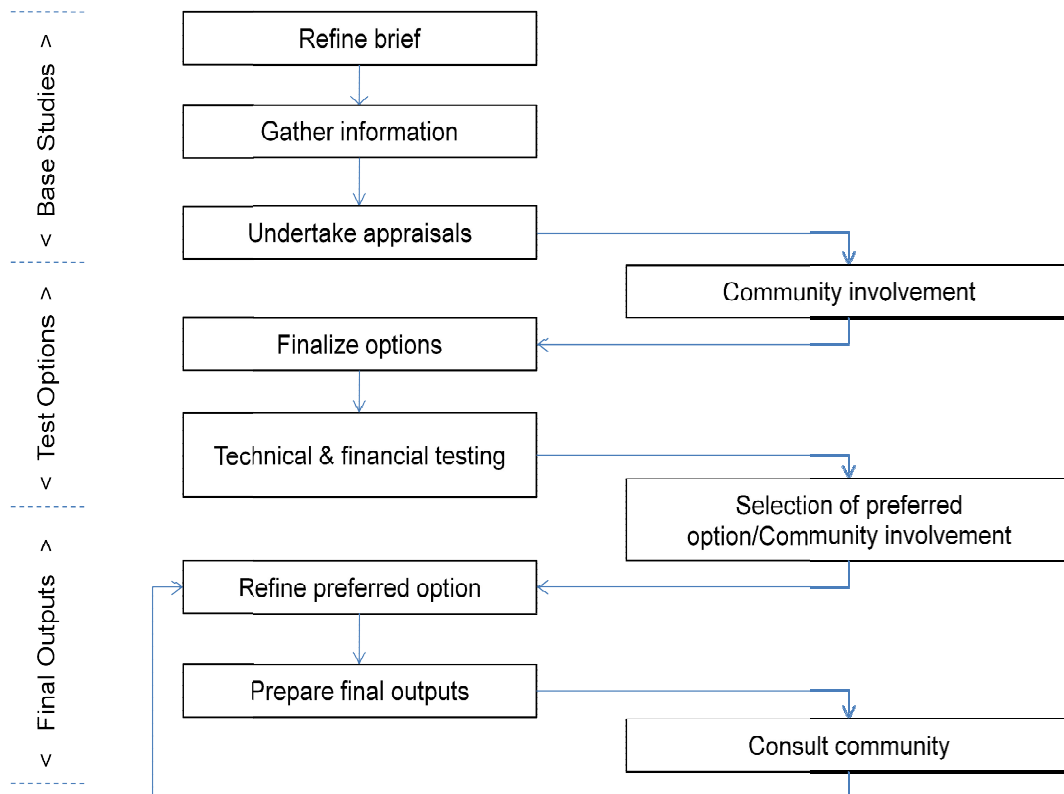
*Users are not passive and inert entities..... They take an active role in their environments, interacting with it and adjusting it to suit changing situations (pp. 293-4)*

Carmona et al (2003) explored the communication process in urban design dimension. They explained two types of communication - informative communication and persuasive communication - and argued that issues of power are an inevitable part of communication addressing the possibility of manipulated consent and seduction. They highlighted the significance of credibility based on 'trust' and 'respect' in communication. They also pointed out that there are typically communication gaps between other producers and consumers of urban environment; between designer and users; and between professionals and layperson. In order to bridge the communication gaps in the urban design process, they emphasized partnerships, as a form of power broking, increasing potential with collaborative and supportive arrangement and

enhancing broader ownership of the process. They clearly addressed that the effective communication is a two way process - 'speaking' and 'hearing'.

Punter and Carmona (1997) suggested that the development of a participative/collaborative approach has a number of advantages. The advantages are discovered in in-putting public values and preferences into policy; raising design awareness and environmental education amongst the public; increasing the sense of public ownership of resulting guidance or policies; and providing the necessary person-power to undertake surveys and assemble results. They also suggested that perspective of an urban design process provides useful procedures in encouraging design excellence (e.g. offering advice, consultation, application presentation and monitoring). Punter and Carmona (1997) highlighted that design appraisals can be deepened by public consultation, in the early stage, *"which may be particularly important in the case of large-scale or controversial developments, and these will provide important insights into public perceptions and values, which may redefine the key parameters"*(p. 300).

Early public consultation and community engagement has been encouraged in British urban policies as shown in a suggested process for an urban design framework in the English Partnerships' document, Urban Design Compendium 2 (2007). In the process, community engagement was suggested as three rounds and transition stages (figure 3.9). Community engagement, as the first round, is for setting out options with community involvement and their opinions after baseline studies. In the second round of community engagement, communities are involved in selecting preferred options between stages for testing options and finalising outputs. Community engagement, as the third round, includes consultation and getting feedback from communities on final outputs and the final outputs are refined with the communities' opinions.



**Figure 3.9 Typical programme for an urban design framework showing three rounds of community involvement (after English Partnerships, 2007)**

A range of more active participatory mechanisms to promote dialogue and two-way interaction, for examples, *planning for real* exercises; action planning events and community charrettes; and urban design assistance teams have been suggested (Carmona et al., 2003; Wates, 2000):

- *'Planning for Real' exercises*, utilising large-scale models to encourage non-confrontational community involvement in identifying and addressing problems. Participants are encouraged to make suggestions by filling out suggestion cards and attaching them to the model, to be pursued in detail at follow-up group meetings.
- *Action planning events/community charrettes*, collaborative events enabling sections of local communities to work with independent specialists from a variety of disciplines to produce proposals for action. Events, usually staged over several days, involve briefing from key stakeholders, analysis of the

- physical context, workshops and brainstorming sessions, synthesis and presentation of proposals, reporting back, and dissemination of results.
- *Urban design assistance teams (UDATs)* are a variation on action planning where multi-disciplinary teams from outside the area ‘parachute in’ to facilitate an event and, with the local community, ‘brainstorm’ and approach to a problem and thereby help the local community devise recommendations for actions (Carmona et al., 2003, pp. 268-9).

Henry Sanoff (2000) also introduced broader participation methods in urban design and planning as followings:

- *Charette*. A process that convenes interest groups in intensive, interactive meetings lasting several days.
- *Community action planning*. A process that empowers communities to design, implement, and manage their own community programs.
- *Focus groups*. A structured interview consisting of several individuals, permitting discussion of ideas.
- *Game simulation*. A technique of abstracting the essential elements of a problem without the normal constraints.
- *Group interaction*. A process in which interpersonal techniques are used to facilitate discussion and problem solving.
- *Participatory action research*. An empowerment process that involves participants in research and decision making
- *Public forum*. An open meeting held by an organization or agency to present information about a project at any time during the process
- *Strategic planning*. A process for developing strategies and action plans to identify and resolve issues.
- *Visioning*. A process to think about how the community should be and to find ways to identify, strengthen, and work toward that end.
- *Workshop*. Working sessions to discuss issues in order to reach an understanding of their importance. (p. 25).

### 3.7 Policy mechanisms for urban design

#### 3.7.1 Design control of the public sector

The public sector has a key role to play in the management of the ongoing processes of adaptation and change with urban regeneration (Carmona et al., 2003). Carmona et al. (2003) provided six modes of actions which the role of the public sector to encourage, secure and maintain high quality urban and environmental design can be encompassed in:

- *Appraisal/diagnosis* – analysis of context, to understanding the qualities and meanings of place.
- *Policy* – provision of policy instruments to guide, encourage and control appropriate design
- *Regulation* – the means of implementing policy objectives through negotiation, review and statutory processes.
- *Design* – development and promotion of specific design and development solutions, from large-scale infrastructure to site-specific solutions.
- *Education and participation* – ‘spreading the word’ and involving potential users in the process.
- *Management* – the ongoing management and maintenance of the urban fabric. (Carmona et al., 2003, p. 263)

Design control on design policy has been emphasised in the practice of urban development with the consideration that urban design has the potential to make an important contribution to urban regeneration. Regarding the procedures of design control on design policy, Punter and Carmona (1997) suggested a procedure including strategy and policy monitoring and writing set design policy and guidance in advance to control the urban design by setting design objectives, area appraisal, setting monitoring mechanisms, policy evaluation and revision, writing policy and supplementary design guidance, and public consultation and collaboration on plan or SDG. They also suggested that the phase of design control, with the design policy and guidance, is preceded by planning officer consultation, obtaining skilled/specialist advice, design briefing, application presentation, public consultation, and implementation.

### 3.7.2 The role and the hierarchy of urban design guidance

Urban design guidance is a generic term for documents that guide developers and their designers (and other agents) in planning and designing development (Cowan, 2002, p. 42). Robert Cowan (2002) explored the role of urban design guidance in supporting planning policy, facilitating collaboration, expressing visions, setting design standards and indicating the next steps. In order to manage and guide developments for the regeneration of particular areas, setting out design guidance by the public sector or development partnerships has become the dominant process. Literature advocates that the key to delivering good quality urban design relies heavily on design guidance and the hierarchy of tools of urban design guidance (Walters, 2007).

The variety of design guidance has been discussed in the urban regeneration process with different levels of spatial scales of advice, and different scales of intervention. Punter and Carmona (1997) developed a wider hierarchy of design guidance in the British context, beginning with the primary legislation and central government advice, moving through strategic forms of guidance, statutory policies, to district and city-wide guidance, sub-area, neighbourhood and site-specific forms.

National	Strategic	District	Area/site specific
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Primary Legislation</li> <li>• Government guidance</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Regional guidance (RPGs)</li> <li>• Structure Plan/UDP Part 1 policy</li> <li>• Landscape Character Assessment</li> <li>• County Design Guidance</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Local Plan/UDP Part 2 policy</li> <li>• Development control Guidelines</li> <li>• Design guides</li> <li>• Design Standards</li> <li>• Design Strategy</li> <li>• Landscape Strategy</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Area Appraisal</li> <li>• Design Appraisal</li> <li>• Conservation Area Assessments</li> <li>• Design Codes</li> <li>• Development Frameworks</li> <li>• Design Briefs</li> <li>• Master Plans</li> </ul>

**Table 3.4 The hierarchy of design guidance (Summarized after (Punter and Carmona, 1997, pp. 318-320)**

Considering design guidance as the part of a policy hierarchy, such guidance provides an important mechanism for local planning authorities to become proactive about design matters, and to promote or market the development of sites that are important to environmental improvement or regeneration. Similarly, design guidance can make a major contribution to the efficiency of the design control process (Punter and Carmona, 1997, p. 328). Punter and Carmona (1997) argued that fundamental to the successful operation of the guidance is the need for the development plan to act as an umbrella or coordinating framework for all supplementary design guidance. It must also be recognized that supplementary design guidance has a vital role to play in policy elaboration and implementation, and in solving problems in particular types of development (p. 317).

Cowan (2002) provides the distinction of four types of guidance, including 1) guidance relating to specific places (e.g. urban design frameworks, development briefs and master plans), 2) guidance relating to specific topics (e.g. design guides covering topics such as shopfronts, house extensions, lighting and cycling), 3) guidance relating to specific policies (e.g. policies on conservation areas, transport corridors, waterfronts, promenades, and green belts), and 4) general guidance relating to whole local authority areas. In the practice of the urban regeneration process, urban design guidance is generally applied at the site-specific level as the first of the above categories, guidance relating to specific places, to ensure the design principles in policies. Many public authorities provide a hierarchy of tools of design guidance at the area/site specific level, including area appraisal, urban design (development) frameworks, design (development) briefs, master plans, design codes, and site design briefs (CABE and DETR, 2000; Carmona et al., 2003; English Partnerships, 2007; Punter and Carmona, 1997; Walters, 2007). Urban Design Compendium 2 (2007) highlighted different tools for urban design guidance as “the bridge between policy and implementation” (p. 25).

Cowan (2002) focused on three main types of design guidance (urban design framework, development brief and master plan) relating to specific locations and the characteristics of the types of urban design guidance (figure 3.10).

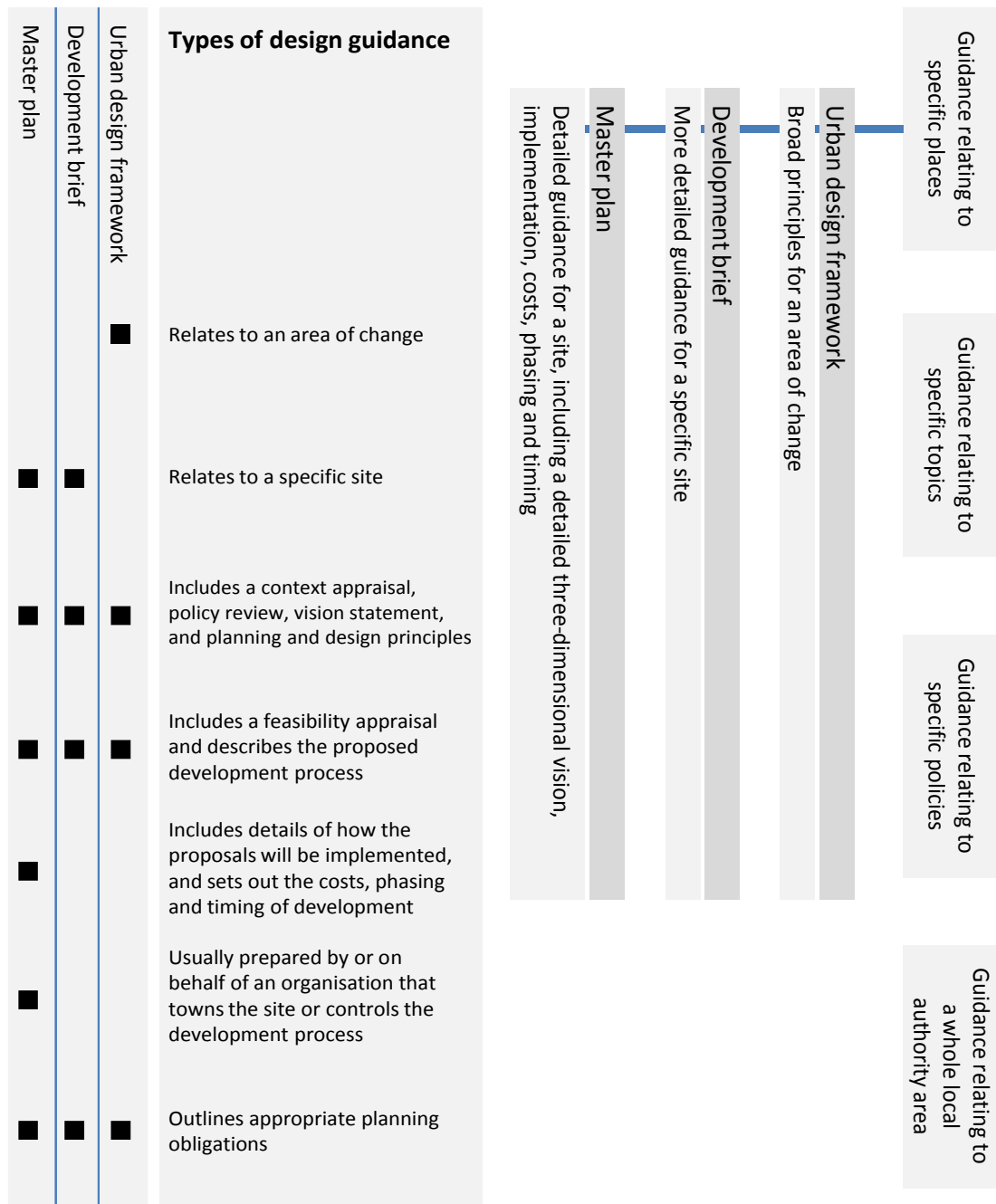


Figure 3.10 Design guidance relating to specific locations and characteristics (Cowan, 2002, p. 13)

### 3.7.3 Site/Area Appraisal

Some literature discusses area appraisal as design guidance at the site-specific level (Carmona et al., 2003; Punter and Carmona, 1997). Area appraisal is generally adopted into the part of the policy/guidance writing process as a prerequisite for design and



development. The area appraisal helps to ensure that proper regard is given to context, so raising design standards and it can be tied into the process of conservation area designation and ongoing enhancement. However, it has a tendency to focus on visual contexts only at the expense of social, functional and environmental concerns and to encourage replication of established form, rather than innovation (Punter and Carmona, 1997, p. 320). *By design* (DETR, 2000, pp. 36-40) suggested three elements in a site/area appraisal providing understanding the local context: 1) a qualitative assessment of how the area performs in terms of urban design objectives, 2) the characteristics of the area or site in terms of constraints, opportunities and capacity for development, and 3) those factors which overlay the local context, such as government advice.

### ***3.7.4 Urban Design (Development) Frameworks***

The urban design framework is usually a two-dimensional map that describes how planning and design policies should be implemented in areas where local government sees a need to control, guide or promote change, or where coordinated action is required by several different parties (Walters, 2007, p. 117). The urban design framework sets out a vision and proposals for an urban extension or new neighbourhood centre, district or neighbourhood regeneration; or the promotion of a centre or area and its opportunity sites. The urban design framework explains and illustrates how development plan policies will be applied in an area; sets out comprehensive design principles for the area; links strategy to practical proposals; and provides guidance for development control (CABE and DETR, 2000, p. 48). The level of detail in the urban design framework is an indicative strategy for a specified area or site, involving urban design concepts and informed by preliminary technical viability testing (English Partnerships, 2007, p. 26).

Punter and Carmona (1997) discussed how development frameworks have advantages as a flexible and readily adaptable approach to site planning, clearly defining the two and three dimensional forms of public space, whilst allowing developers/designers to be creative within an overall controlling framework. They can be used to coordinate the efforts of different land owners, as a framework for individual briefs, and as good for defining the ‘capital web’. However, they discussed the disadvantages of the

frameworks in uncertainty about final built form and problems with ensuring successful long term implementation (p. 320).

CABE/DETR's document (2000), *By Design* recommended stages in the preparation process for the urban design framework as: writing the brief, refining the brief, gathering information, undertaking appraisals, involving local communities, formulating options, carrying out technical and financial testing, selecting the preferred option, refining the preferred option, and preparing final options. The document also established specific topics to be included in urban design frameworks: appreciating the context, creating the structure, making the connections, and detailing the place (pp. 27-28).

### ***3.7.5 Development briefs***

Development brief is the generic term for design, planning and development briefs (Carmona et al., 2003). Development briefs set out a vision and specific requirements for the development of a site and are site specific and more detailed in terms of an illustrative design. Development briefs are prepared for sites where more specific and specialized guidance is required for major new developments due to particular circumstances such as significant historic, environmental or conservation issues (Walters, 2007). The level of detail in development briefs includes specific selected requirements for development proposals on the identified site with reference to relevant development plan policies (English Partnerships, 2007).

Punter and Carmona (1999) outlined the advantages and disadvantages of development briefs. Development briefs are a pro-active rather than reactive form of guidance, which is tailored to individual sites and so can readily respond to the context and to the character of the site. They can be used to coordinate the various design requirements of different consultees and to systematically assess design factors. Briefs are quick and easy to produce and are readily adaptable to changing circumstances. They possess

great potential for consultation and community participation, as well as for site promotion and for implementing plan policy. They can also be used to lever planning gain from a site. However, development briefs more commonly take the form of development rather than design briefs, with consequently little design input. They are often criticised as being divorced from economic realities. They have a short shelf life and are frequently ignored in practice even if adopted by an authority (p. 320).

Briefs generally include a mix of ‘descriptive’ elements (i.e. information on site characteristics and context), ‘procedural’ elements (i.e. outlining the application procedures) and ‘prescriptive’ elements (i.e. spelling out the authority’s intentions), covering background and statement of purpose, survey and analysis, planning and design requirements, engineering and construction requirements, procedures for application, and indicative design proposals (Carmona et al., 2003, p. 250). Punter and Carmona (1999) pointed out that briefs have a tendency to be either over prescriptive, or too vague and unresponsive to design context.

### *3.7.6 Master plans*

A master plan is a detailed, three-dimensional plan which sets out the intended layout of an area. Although the term master plan and urban design or development framework are often used in an interchangeable fashion and both are area-based design guidance, a master plan is the more prescriptive and illustrating the proposed urban form in three dimensions, describing how the proposal will be implemented, and setting out the costs, phasing and timing of development (Carmona et al., 2003, p 259). Master plans ensure development certainty by creating a vision of future form and can be used as marketing tools. However, master plans require large professional design inputs and they are inflexible and incapable of adjusting to changing circumstances (Punter and Carmona, 1997).

CABE's (2003) document providing a guide for master plans, *Creating successful masterplans*, identified the masterplanning process as: preparation for the masterplanning process, defining the project brief, design of the final master plan, and implementation (figure 3.11). The masterplanning process should be shaped by the particular physical, environmental, economic, and social conditions pertinent to the particular community under discussion rather than simply being a vehicle for the designer's preferred set of physical forms; and the master plan has to find the right balance between vision, prescription and flexibility (Walters, 2007).

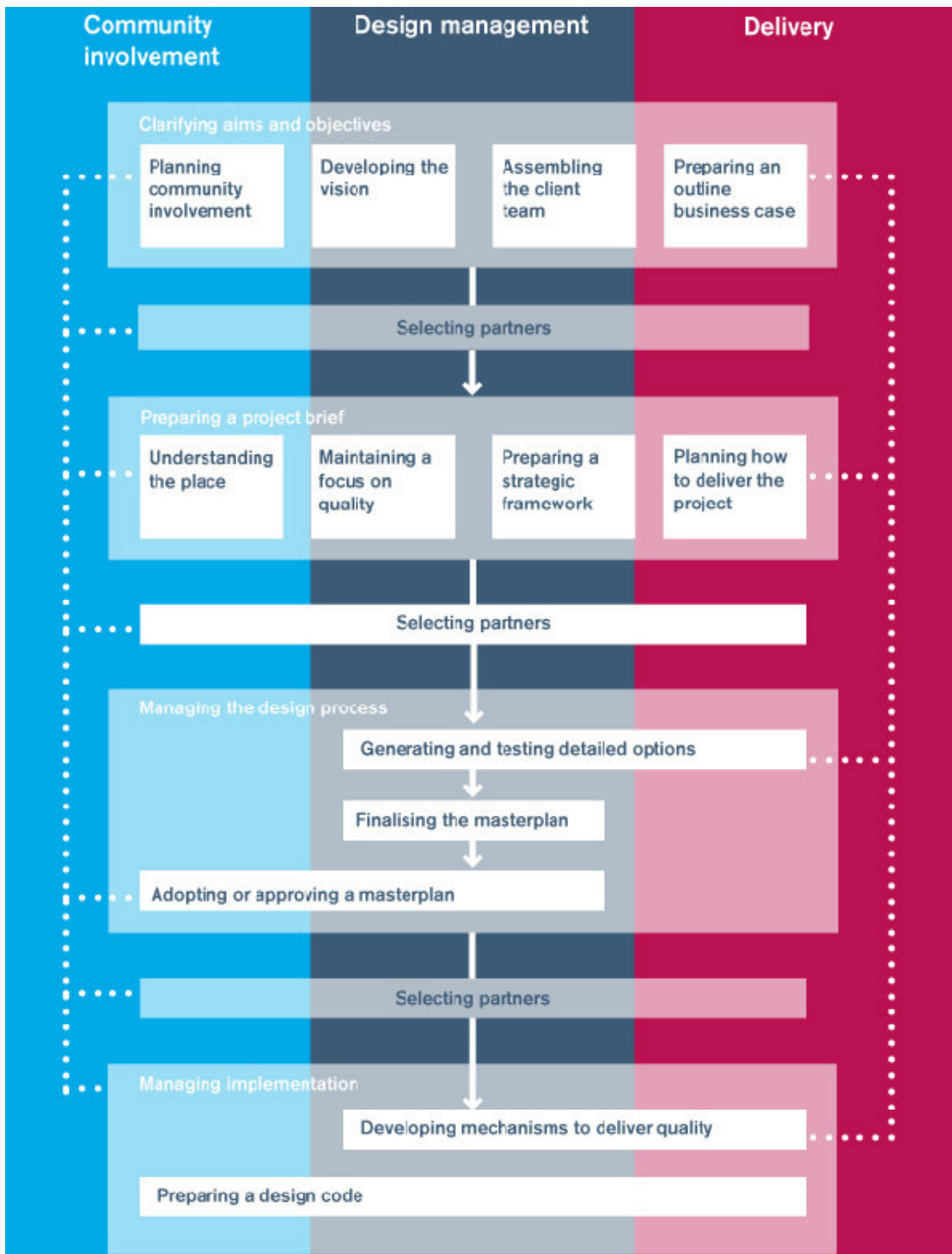


Figure 3.11 A diagram of master planning process (after CABE, 2003)

### 3.7.7 Design codes

A design code is a set of three-dimensional, site-specific illustrated design rules and requirements that precisely describe how the design and planning principles established in the urban design framework, development brief or master plan should be applied to a particular site (CABE, 2005, English Partnership, 2007, Walters, 2007). Design codes are detailed documents with drawings, photographs and diagrams that can be used in the design and the planning process, but are more regulatory and more detailed than other forms of guidance. The aim of design coding is to provide clarity as to what constitutes acceptable design quality and thereby a level of certainty for developers and the local community alike that can help accelerate the delivery of good quality new development (CABE, 2005b, p. 16).

Design codes should be tailored to the specifics of that place and community (Walters, p. 63). Design codes can be based on cues from the surrounding context, or used to define a totally new identity. Design codes can be provided on where long timespans for development are envisaged, where exact development processes are unclear. However, design codes usually, in practice, provide unclear three dimensional development pattern established to guide development, so reducing certainty for all concerned (Punter and Carmon, 1999). Design codes require long term will to implement as there is a tendency to abandon such codes in good times (Punter and Carmon, 1999).

A research into coding methods and content by CABE, *Design coding: testing its use in England*, has established a working methodology for a design code with the process of decision to prepare a design code, initial development, drafting, adopting the design code, implementation, monitoring a development against a design code, and using a design code to manage a development after completion (CABE, 2005a, p. 17). Design codes can extend from urban design principles aimed at delivering better quality places to requirements for streets, blocks, massing and so on, or may be focused more on architectural or building performance, for example aiming to increase energy efficiency. The CABE (2005) report also established seven specific topics to be covered by design

codes: “built form and townscape, landscape, streets and enclosure, parking, open space and landscape, land use mix, architectural design, and sustainability” (p. 35).

### **3.8 Discussion**

Discussion in this chapter focuses on drawing out the main issues relating the research questions of this study, which has been explored in each part of this chapter: urban regeneration, community engagement, the definition and the role of urban design, urban design process, and urban design guidance. The issues in the literature review in this chapter provide a foundation to link the different (but, interconnected) topics in this study. In the subsequent chapters, the linkage between topics extends and shifts the focus of this study onto community engagement in urban regeneration, urban design in urban regeneration, community engagement in urban design, the process of urban design in urban regeneration, and urban design guidance used in the urban design process.

Discussion in this chapter also provides initial and critical viewpoints to develop discussions in the subsequent chapters. Chapter four set out research method and a framework for analysis within the understanding of the extended topics. More intensive investigation with the case studies on the topics is developed in Chapters five, six, and seven. Chapters five, six, and seven focus on the contexts of three case studies on urban regeneration, the process of urban design, and community engagement in the planning process. Chapter eight concentrates on a comparative analysis of the three case studies. Chapter nine focuses on detailed discussion and recommendations on urban design in urban regeneration in the Korean context. Thus this literature review chapter provides the broader viewpoints for the developing chapters that follow. It also will be sources to review the findings of this study and to develop discussions with the findings in the concluding Chapter ten.

### ***3.8.1 Urban regeneration***

The definitions of urban regeneration are related to a lasting improvement tackling decline and the resolution of problems in areas. Urban regeneration needs to integrate a wider range of visions and actions on economical, physical, social, environmental, and cultural aspects. Regarding the process of urban regeneration, the wider urban regeneration process raises important issues on considerations of the drivers of changes, and on various outputs/actions, beyond just physical improvement or economic development, which needs a comprehensive and holistic approach. The view of urban regeneration as a rational process from literature underlines the process as problem solving and negotiative. Moreover, the process of Brownfield redevelopment from literature highlights a careful planning and the public control of the process, although it seems to focus on mainly physical intervention. The consideration of various stakeholders in the urban regeneration process is important. Different motivations and interests of various stakeholders bring complexity in the process. The issue of uneven influence and uneven power in practice may increase the risk of conflicts and the imbalance of benefits from urban regeneration.

### ***3.8.2 Community engagement***

The definition of key terms relating to community provides important insights for this study. Although the term, community may be applied mainly to the notion of the communities of place for the investigation, there is a fundamental need to extend the term to the notion of the communities of identity in further discussions. The definition of community engagement brings a need for close investigation of how community views are identified and incorporated in the process. The definitions of community empowerment and capacity building are directly linked with increasing control in the process of regeneration and they bring a question about community's own *destiny* within urban regeneration for this study. The definition of social capital implies the significance of the trust and shared values in the process of urban regeneration.



Although the values of participation have been dominantly advocated by a range of literature, there is a need to consider critical issues on participation in urban regeneration: unjust exercise of power; high risk of lack of representativeness of community representatives; and various constraints including social and economic inequalities, and political constraint. The classifications of participation and the analogies about the level of participation suggest a close investigation on how and when the community is engaged in the process, and how the process is adopted or managed by the community. The participation process on literature highlights the significance of consensus building and shared vision and its difficulty in practice. Therefore, a careful consideration of communication is needed in the process with negotiation, mediation, and bargaining.

### *3.8.3 The definitions and values of urban design, and the role of urban designers*

Despite of differences in various definitions of urban design, the definitions provide three significant implications for this study. First, urban design is a process and the emphasis on the urban design process is closely intertwined with the quality and values of products. Second, urban design is a multidisciplinary activity and it needs collaborative actions. Third, urban design is an ongoing process concerning not only shaping urban environments but the management of the shaped environments. The literature on the value of urban design implies that the value of urban design needs to be understood in relation to various stakeholders, such as producers, regulators, and users, because different stakeholders have different views on the value of urban design, different motivations and interests on urban design. The competitiveness of city can be a consideration for urban design in urban regeneration with different approaches in urban design depending on the urban hierarchy.

Urban designers are in a position in which they can play various roles and contributions in the development process, depending on how other stakeholders consider their roles, which stance they take, and what the purposes of their involvement are. Although it is difficult, urban designers need an integrationist viewpoint. The role of urban designers

also needs to be discussed in that urban designers have two distinctive clients including not only paying clients but also the non-paying clients: actual users, and the public interest.

### *3.8.4 The practice of urban design*

Regarding the practice of urban design, the scope of urban design lays at the interdisciplinary common grounds, mainly concerning urban form, public realm, and the quality of the built environment. The quality of the design objectives, design principles, and design guidelines is directly related to the quality of urban design. It brings a need to investigate how the design objectives, principles, and guidelines affect the quality of urban design for this study. The fundamental qualities of urban design and urban design considerations imply that urban design should provide opportunities for personal choice and social equity. There is a need to reaffirm that adequate time, supporting values, and the supporting circumstances are important for the quality of urban design.

### *3.8.5 The process of urban design*

A rational design process in urban design focuses on defining problems and analysis at the pre design stage, synthesis and design choice of options at the design stage, and the evaluation and adjustment of design at the post design stage. The urban design process is more complicated than a linear process and it is in practice iterative and cyclical. A variety of actors in the process of urban design and the notion of second-order design bring a careful consideration on various motivations and concerns in the urban design process. Uneven distribution of power is again an important issue in the practice of urban design with very real conflicts. The potential of the urban design process and urban designer's role in the relation to disadvantaged groups emerge for the process to suggest the need for a collaborative/negotiative arena in a development process.

In the urban design process, how users are considered seems to be an important issue. Depending on whether users are treated as passive receivers or active agents of change,

the process of urban design may be differentiated; and it may provide different chances and meanings to users and different approaches to urban designers. There is no doubt that communication, including informative, persuasive, or negotiable communication, in the urban design process is essential. However, there is a need to discuss the reality of communication in the design process in relation to credibility based on mutual trust and mutual respect.

### *3.8.6 Policy mechanisms for urban design*

Public control on urban design needs to be considered as a part of a policy hierarchy interconnected with different scales and different actions. Setting out design guidance is directly linked with the involvement and the role of the public sector in managing urban design quality and controlling the process. Design guidance relating to specific places is generally set out for the practice of urban regeneration. Various tools of design guidance, with a hierarchy of design guidance, can be used at a strategic level, a spatial application level, and an implementation level. There is a need to pay attention to how design guidance bridges between policy and implementation and how it reflects the particular physical, environmental, economic, and social conditions pertinent to the specifics of the particular place or community.

### *3.8.7 Research gap between issues on literature and practice*

The literature review in this chapter highlights that urban design in urban regeneration should be considered in the relation to the wider context of urban regeneration, the circumstances of the area, and the local community. In that sense, a research gap can be found in how to link the roles and the process of urban design to the different contexts in the practice of urban regeneration. Although the role/value of urban design has been explored in research literature, generally in relation to various stakeholders, there is a clear need to examine the role of urban design which can be differentiated in the practice of urban regeneration with different contexts of the circumstances in which the urban regeneration proceeds. Therefore, there is a need to discuss the role of urban design in urban regeneration within the specific contexts of the practice of urban

regeneration. Thus, exploring the roles, tensions, and challenges of urban design in urban regeneration, in this study, may plug the research gap.

On the other hand, literature on the process of urban design provides a conceptual urban design process and it brings a need of careful consideration of various actors in the process. In the practice of urban design in urban regeneration, urban design can be differentiated in its approach, focus, and communication methods in the process of urban regeneration, although the process may follow the phases of the conceptual process. Therefore, exploring practical issues in the process of urban design, including the control of the public sector on the quality of urban design, and community engagement in the process of urban regeneration, in this study, may plug the research gap. This study aims to provide better understanding of the social dimension of urban design in relation to community engagement in urban regeneration. Hence, this study provides insights into current academic debates on community engagement in urban regeneration, and on the role of urban design by developing the linkage of urban design to the practical contexts of urban regeneration and community engagement.

## Chapter 4 Research strategy and methods

### 4.1 Introduction and research strategy

This chapter proposes a research framework for addressing the research questions set out in Chapter one. This thesis focuses on the roles, and the process, of urban design in urban regeneration. Literature on urban design has associated the roles of urban design with a variety of stakeholders. A research by Madanipour (2006) provides a recent example. He explored the roles of urban design through a framework of an understanding of the changing context of cities and a context of shifting attitudes to urban design, and a consideration of the role of urban design in this changing context from the viewpoints of various actors: regulators, producers and users of the urban space. A research by Carmona et al. (2002) identified the values of urban design in relation to various stakeholders' views. They explored the stakeholders' motivations from literature, and undertook three pairs of case studies to investigate practical issues. For the research, interviews were conducted, to gather qualitative evidence in stakeholder aspirations, perceptions and motivations, with key stakeholder groups: the representatives of investors, developers and designer organizations, representatives from the local authority and occupier organizations; and a range of everyday users of the public/semi-public spaces. On the other hand, literature on the process of urban design has focused on providing conceptual models/diagrams of the process. A research by Bokyo et al. (2005), for example, developed a conceptual process with four stages and four transition stages, based on an amalgamation of different design and planning processes from the fields of urban design, planning, architecture, the manufacturing, construction and engineering industries, business, and nongovernmental organisations. Lang (2005) explored the process of urban design as a typology with a different approach based on the generic qualities of case studies. He analysed the similarities and differences amongst the decision-making processes used in the case studies.

The research questions of this thesis require another dimension of investigation on urban regeneration and community engagement. Although the majority of literature, on community engagement in urban regeneration and on urban regeneration issues, has

concentrated on exploring the generic contexts of case studies, there are differences in research methods. Blakeley and Evans (2008), for example, developed the arguments of constraints on community engagement in community regeneration, with the investigation of the urban regeneration area of east Manchester where community engagement has been a part of the regeneration strategy. They combined ethnography as a research method through the community, elite and mass interviewing, observing meetings and other events, and a survey with local residents. A research by Jones (2003) explored the reality of (community) participation-based policy on urban regeneration with a research framework consisting of understanding the changing institutional context of participation and partnership formation with literature review, the investigation of a range of contradictions underlying participation in literature, and grounding emerging issues in the literature within the context of a major regeneration programmes in Merseyside. A research by Cameron (2003) explored urban regeneration through a close investigation of a city-wide regeneration strategy of Newcastle City Council, Going for Growth. His research traced the development of the strategy and the protests against 'displacement of an existing lower income population and their replacement with more affluent households' (Cameron, 2003, p. 2372); and discussed Going for Growth as a gentrification and a housing redifferentiation with models of explanation and causation, large-scale demolition; and built explanation with the contexts of the strategy in relation to urban renaissance and neighbourhood renewal.

The review of research methods from other research literature provided an insight for this research to develop a research framework. First, the different viewpoints of various stakeholders involved in urban regeneration should be investigated to explore the roles of urban design. Second, the process of urban design should be investigated in different regeneration contexts in both countries in relation to the planning and the development process. Third, the practical contexts of urban regeneration and community engagement should be investigated in relation to practical urban design issues and case studies can be mainly used to investigate the practical issues. Fourth, the comparison of case studies and the analysis of differences and similarities in different contexts may be beneficial to integrate contextual investigation into the discussion of urban design in urban

regeneration. Fifth, there is a need to gather qualitative evidence within the context of urban regeneration.

A close investigation of the practical contexts of the roles, and the process, of urban design should be linked to other issues affecting on urban regeneration, for example, the perception of regeneration area, economic condition, the involvement of the public sector, and the changes in national policies on urban regeneration; and also to issues affecting on community engagement. Furthermore, the complexity, in the process of urban design in urban regeneration, requires sociological work understanding interaction between stakeholders and social changes in areas affected by urban regeneration with differing social/cultural contexts, policy/political analysis, and economic analysis beyond the physical analysis of urban design. These practical demands and exploratory nature of the investigation underpinned the choice of in-depth case studies strategy. This allowed this thesis to penetrate the complexity of the practical roles, and process of urban design embedded in urban regeneration. This research also entails a review of urban policies; a literature review on urban regeneration, community engagement, and urban design; and the interviews with academic scholars in Korean contexts with the completion of three in-depth case studies of fieldwork.

Research strategy for this thesis involved five main tasks:

- 1) Conceptualising ‘specific issues’ on the research questions of the thesis
- 2) The selection of the case studies
- 3) Mapping the comparative stakeholders involved in urban design or affected by urban design
- 4) Investigating particular issues which this thesis deals with, in relation to urban regeneration, urban design, and community engagement, and data gathering
- 5) Analysing data using an analysis framework for the case studies in both countries

## 4.2 Conceptualising specific issues relating to the research questions of this thesis

The first task to conceptualise specific issues relating to the research questions of this thesis was performed on the basis of the review of urban policies in Chapter two and the literature review in Chapter three. The discussions in Chapters two and three highlighted that it is important how the roles, and the process, of urban design link to the various contexts in the practice of urban regeneration, with an understanding of the wider context of urban policies as a background. Also, they highlighted understanding of urban design in urban regeneration needs to make a strong conceptual linkage between the process of urban design and major themes investigated in the literature review: various stakeholders, urban regeneration, and community engagement.

Therefore, conceptualising specific issues, relating to the research questions of this thesis, focused on to reflect various contexts in urban regeneration and community engagement. Reconsidering the research questions of the thesis, general research question is about the social role of urban design in urban regeneration. The ‘specific issues’ was posed to understand how urban design responds to the various contexts of urban regeneration and community engagement. The specific issues were identified as 1) tensions and challenges of urban design (SQ1), 2) the roles of urban design (SQ2), 3) factors affecting community engagement (SQ3), and channels for engaging community (SQ4):

Research question 1	What is the social role of urban design in facilitating community engagement in urban regeneration?	
↓		
Specific question 1	Urban design	What kind of tensions and challenges does urban design face in the practice of urban regeneration?
Specific question 2	in urban regeneration	What kind of role does urban design play in the practice of urban regeneration?
Specific question 3	Community engagement	What are factors affecting community engagement in the process of urban regeneration?
Specific question 4	and urban design	What channels for engaging community are used in the process of urban design in urban regeneration?



## 4.3 The selection of case studies

### 4.3.1 Comparison strategy

The second task was selecting urban regeneration cases for case studies for this thesis to explore the practical contexts of urban regeneration. The research strategy of this thesis is based on the comparison of urban design in urban regeneration in England and South Korea. Therefore, case studies for this thesis were needed to progress a detailed empirical investigation of urban design in both countries' urban regeneration practices within very different contexts. The English case studies were expected to provide contemporary issues in urban design as 'a learning lesson' for the Korean case study. A comparative analysis of differences and similarities of the different contexts of case studies in both countries contributed to construct a wider but thorough discussion on urban design in urban regeneration.

### 4.3.2 The method of selecting cases of urban regeneration

Urban regeneration cases were initially chosen to represent a range of urban regeneration types; different situations in physical, social and economic terms; different national urban policies on urban regeneration (explored in Chapter 2); and a range of local approaches both in England and South Korea to urban regeneration practices aiming at bringing improvement in the economic, physical, social and environmental condition of the regeneration area or wider area. In order to select urban regeneration cases, the following indicators have been adopted:

- Selected cases of urban regeneration should mainly contain residential developments, so that considerations of the impact on, and participation of, existing communities or end users of the shaped environments can be included in the analysis. The volume of regeneration project should be large enough to ensure a substantive impact on the built environment at the city level or at the local level with surrounding communities.

- The selected cases may be at different stages of development, but actual stage of planning and design should be advanced enough to ensure an adequate analysis of the roles, and the process, of urban design in urban regeneration.
- The selected cases should reflect the emphasis on urban regeneration in national policies in both countries. The selected cases in England should be planned after 1999 when urban regeneration was emphasised in national policies with the Urban Task Force's report. The selected cases in South Korea should be planned after 2002, when urban regeneration was emphasized in the national urban policies with Newtowns in City initiative, or possibly after 2006, when the 'Special Act on the Promotion of Urban Regeneration' was legislated.
- The selected cases may have different approaches of development and various characteristics of urban regeneration in order to enable a meaningful comparative evaluation between individual schemes.

In order to explore a variety of practical contexts in urban regeneration, three types of urban regeneration with residential development were identified for the initial selection of cases.

- Type one: Large scale brownfield or partly greenfield regeneration, as urban extension by the model development projects at the national level
- Type two: Urban regeneration, of residential area in inner city or old cores, driven by policies at the city level
- Type three: Urban regeneration, of residential area, focusing on the aspirations at the community level

#### *4.3.3 Initial selection of cases and initial investigation as stage one*

The following urban regeneration cases, including three cases in England and three cases in Korea, were initially chosen to represent each type of urban regeneration projects (Table 4.1):

- Greenwich Millenium Village, London, UK: Type 1

- Scotswood regeneration, Newcastle upon Tyne, UK: Type 2
- Walker regeneration, Newcastle upon Tyne, UK: Type3
- Enpyung ‘Newtown in city’, Seoul, Korea: Type 1
- Gajung Oguri regeneration (‘LUWON city’), Incheon, Korea, Type 2
- Singil Regeneration Promotion project, Yeoungdungpoku, Seoul, Korea: Type 3

	Type 1	Type 2	Type 3
U K	GMV, London	Scotswood, Newcastle	Walker, Newcastle
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A large scale model project of creating new communities led by the government and English Partnerships</li> <li>• Located near sub CBD and the edge of metropolitan city</li> <li>• The emphasis on urban design innovation and sustainability</li> <li>• Phase 1 &amp; 2: completed, Phase 3: after planning</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A large scale housing-led regeneration led by BNG (HMR pathfinder area)</li> <li>• Located near city centre</li> <li>• The emphasis on tenure mix and housing choice</li> <li>• Conflict on critical mass and a lack of community engagement</li> <li>• Delayed on implementation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Small scale housing redevelopment and housing refurbishments (HMR pathfinder area)</li> <li>• The emphasis on diversifying the housing offer and providing a new district centre</li> <li>• Joint working partnership and interactive community engagement</li> <li>• Providing a design code</li> <li>• Delayed on implementation</li> </ul>
K o r e a	Enpyung, Seoul	Gajung, Incheon	Singil, Seoul
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A mega scale ‘Newtown in city’ model project led by the government</li> <li>• Partly Greenfield development as urban extension</li> <li>• Located at the edge of Seoul metropolitan city</li> <li>• Mainly residential land use</li> <li>• Derestriction of Green Belt</li> <li>• Phase 1 &amp; 2: completed,</li> <li>• Phase 3: under construction</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A mega scale renewal project of old core near Incheon city centre</li> <li>• Planning mega scale mixed use structures</li> <li>• Conflict on compensation without any relocation plan of local residents</li> <li>• Delayed on planning due to a lack of feasibility</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A mega scale innercity regeneration project for residential area located near sub CBD in Seoul</li> <li>• A ‘residential centre type’ model project for Regeneration Promotion Projects</li> <li>• Planning process led by the public sector and Joint redevelopment project after the experts-led planning process</li> <li>• Under different phases before construction depending on the zones</li> </ul>

**Table 4.1 Selected cases as stage one and the characteristics of the initially selected cases**

The initial investigation of the selected six cases as stage one focused on understanding the different contexts of the selected cases in relation to urban regeneration, urban design, and community engagement at the wider level by reviewing planning literature,

mainly planning documents. The literature-based investigation, as the first stage, was initially intended to expand to in-depth case studies based on fieldwork as the second stage.

Appendix one contains the initial investigations, as stage one, of the selected case studies, including Greenwich Millenium Village, Enpyung Newtown, and Gajung Oguri regeneration project. The investigation of the regeneration cases in the first stage provided the basic understanding of various urban regeneration practices to develop in-depth case studies as stage two. Efforts were made to contact various stakeholders for six case studies and to collect relevant document, however, these proved to be impractical to undertake fieldwork on all six stage one case studies. Therefore, subsequent investigation was limited in-depth analysis in stage two to three case studies which were most relevant to the research subject of this thesis in the social dimension of urban design in urban regeneration

#### *4.3.4 The selection of cases for in-depth case studies as stage two*

The in-depth case studies for this thesis, as stage two, were chosen directly to explore the research questions of this study. Scotswood and Walker regeneration (UK), and Singil regeneration (Korea) were selected for the in-depth case studies as stage two. Singil regeneration is a case which was supported by the Newtown in City initiative and the Regeneration Promotion Project initiative. Also, Singil regeneration includes a Masterplanning process led by the public sector and the process of Joint Redevelopment Project led by Land Owners Committees. Therefore, the case of Singil regeneration enabled me to explore urban design issues in relation to urban regeneration policies and local communities.

The comparison of the two urban regeneration policies (HMR and Regeneration Promotion Project) facilitated the selection of in-depth case studies (Table 4.2). The HMR pathfinder programme in NewcastleGateshead (BNG) supported Scotswood and

Walker regeneration with the *urban renaissance* objective of bringing people back into cities with a focus on improving the quality and choice of housing, in response to social deprivation relating to the problem of low demand. The urban renaissance agenda emphasised urban design as a means of improving the quality of the physical environment. The HMR Pathfinder program was part of the Sustainable Communities Plan actions (ODPM, 2003b)—a long term action plan for delivering thriving communities with decent homes and good quality environments. The Sustainable Communities plan emphasised design quality to make “place where people want to live and will continue to want to live” (ODPM, p. 5). The emphasis on community involvement in the New Labour’s urban policies supported community engagement to be placed at the heart of HMR Pathfinder initiative. Therefore, the two case studies of Scotswood and Walker regeneration within the umbrella of the HMR programme provided a chance to explore the wider dimension of urban design in urban regeneration, in relation to communities and quality environment dealing with social problems and physical problems of regeneration areas. The reason for the selection of a pair of case study within the same HMR Pathfinder, was to compare different urban design approaches adopted for two areas and different outcome in the social dimension of urban design.

Housing Market Renewal programme (UK)	Regeneration Promotion Project (Korea)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Introduced in 2002, ended in 2011</li> <li>● Aiming to tackle low housing demand</li> <li>● 12 sub region areas in parts of the North and the Midlands</li> <li>● Long term (15-20years) financial support from the central government: Housing Market Renewal fund</li> <li>● Partnerships with the public sector-private developers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>● Introduced in 2006, with the legislation of ‘Special Act on the Promotion of Urban Regeneration’</li> <li>● Aiming to promote balanced urban development and to enhance the quality of life within decaying urban areas</li> <li>● Residential district, Downtown district</li> <li>● The public sector’s control in the planning process</li> <li>● Landowners’ Committee or Development agencies in the public sector</li> </ul>

**Table 4.2 Housing Market Renewal programme and Regeneration Promotion Projects**

The in-depth case studies focused on the empirical research on the three selected cases, including Scotswood and Walker regeneration in Newcastle upon Tyne, UK and Singil regeneration in Seoul, Korea. Comparison was facilitated by similarities in the political and economic circumstances and by widely differing approach on urban design and on urban regeneration in the three cases (Table 4.3).

Case study one	Case study two	Case study three
Singil (Seoul, Korea, Type 3)	HMR pathfinder (BNG) area (Newcastle, UK)	
	Scotswood (Type 2)	Walker Riverside (Type 3)
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Led by Newtown in city and Regeneration Promotion Projects initiatives</li> <li>• The planning process led by the public sector and the master planning team</li> <li>• A landowners-private sector partnership (JRP)</li> <li>• Had some physical problems, but high place attachment</li> <li>• Affected by the economic downturn</li> <li>• Mega scale renewal approach</li> <li>• Tensions between local residents</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Led by Going for Growth and HMR initiatives</li> <li>• A public-private partnership led by BNG</li> <li>• Had mainly social problems and the negative image of the area</li> <li>• Affected by the economic downturn</li> </ul>	
	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A radical approach with Scotswood Expo idea</li> <li>• Criticism on large scale demolition</li> <li>• The emphasis on tenure mix</li> <li>• A lack of community participation</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Small scale redevelopment approach</li> <li>• Joint working partnership</li> <li>• Active community engagement process</li> <li>• Public control on design quality: design code, Heart of Walker SPD</li> <li>• A lack of implementation</li> </ul>

**Table 4.3 Selected cases for stage two and the characteristics of the selected cases**

#### 4.4 Mapping the comparative stakeholders

The third task was the mapping of stakeholders involved in urban regeneration/urban design or affected by urban regeneration/urban design. This meant identifying the people and organisations involved in any relevant way in urban regeneration/urban design throughout its history, and the nature and relative position of their involvement. The mapping of major stakeholders was performed on the basis of academic literature on the stakeholders and actors in the urban design process or the brownfield

redevelopment process (McGlynn, 1999; Madanipour, 1997; Carmona et al., 2002; Williams and Dair, 2006). The research literature, that was used to support the identification of stakeholders in urban design/urban design, was a valuable source to apply on the identification of stakeholders with the three case studies (Table 4.4). Synthesising the classifications of stakeholders from literature, stakeholders in urban design in urban regeneration can be identified as 1) the stakeholders involved in regulation with public interests, 2) stakeholders involved in production, 3) stakeholders involved in current use, and 4) stakeholders involved in end use.

Madanipour (1997)	McGlynn (1999)	Carmona et al. (2002)	Williams and Dair (2006)
The urban design process			The redevelopment process
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Regulators</li> <li>• Producers</li> <li>• Users</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Suppliers</li> <li>• Producers</li> <li>• Consumers</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Stakeholders with private interests</li> <li>• Stakeholders with public interests</li> <li>• Stakeholders with community interests</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Stakeholders involved in land-use planning and regulation</li> <li>• Stakeholders involved in development and construction</li> <li>• Stakeholders involved in end use</li> </ul>

**Table 4.4 The stakeholders in the process of urban design and brownfield redevelopment from literature**

Considering the different contexts of the three selected cases, major stakeholders were identified in terms of both urban regeneration and urban design. In Scotswood and Walker regeneration, Bridging Newcastle Gateshead (BNG) and Newcastle City Council (NCC) are important stakeholders involved in regulation with public interests. In terms of urban regeneration, producers are development partnerships with private development partners. BNG has been dominantly played a role as a main stakeholder involved in development and construction (in other word, as a producer) in the partnerships, in terms of the large portion of funding. Stakeholders as users or consumers are considered to be divided into two stakeholders as current users and end users. Local residents are identified as major stakeholders with community interests in current use on urban design/urban regeneration; however, stakeholders involved in end

use include new residents after urban regeneration and local residents who stayed at the same area. Due to the specific focus on urban design in this thesis, an urban designer can be identified as an individual stakeholder who may play different roles depending on their stance, their position between the public and the private, and their involvement in the process. In terms of urban design, BNG and NCC are key stakeholders involved in regulation with public interests; however, urban designers who worked in NCC are also considered as the regulators of urban design and partly as the producers of urban design. Although urban design consultants or planning consultants as professional advisors are the producers of urban design, BNG is considered as a key producer with the consideration of their control on the process of urban design.

Singil's case shows different characteristics of key stakeholders due to its different contexts on the process of urban design/urban regeneration. In terms of urban regeneration, major stakeholders involved in regulation with public interests are Seoul city council, Yeoungdungpoku council, and urban redevelopment planning committees in the councils. A master planning team and the Project Conference also play a role as regulators. The development process after planning is led by a partnership between a land owners' committee and private construction companies, which are appointed by the land owners' committee. Therefore, the partnership is considered as a major producer. Stakeholders involved in end use are new residents and local residents who will resettle in Singil area after implementation. In terms of urban design, the role of the master planning team needs a close investigation. The team, especially a Senior Planner, provided draft plans and designs and developed a Regeneration Promotion Plan for Singil area as the products of planning/designing; therefore, the team is a key producer in terms of urban design. The team also plays a role as a key regulator with public interests in controlling site designs for each development zone. Block design architects can be considered as producers, because each development zone is designed by block design architects who are appointed by the development partnerships. Local residents are identified as major stakeholders with community interests in the current use on urban design; however, new residents and some local residents who will resettle in Singil are stakeholders involved in the end use of urban design.



	Scotswood	Walker	Singil
Key stakeholders involved in regulation with public interests	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• BNG, NCC (urban regeneration)</li> <li>• BNG, NCC, Urban designer in NCC (urban design)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• BNG, NCC (urban regeneration)</li> <li>• BNG, NCC, Urban designer in NCC (urban design)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Seoul City Council,</li> <li>• Yeoungdungpoku council,</li> <li>• Urban redevelopment planning committees,</li> <li>• The Project Conference (urban regeneration)</li> <li>• SCC, the master planning team (urban design)</li> </ul>
Key stakeholders involved in production	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• BNG, private development partners (urban regeneration)</li> <li>• Urban design consultants (urban design)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• BNG, private development partner (urban regeneration)</li> <li>• Urban designer in NCC, Design consultants (urban design)</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Land owners' committee, private construction companies (urban regeneration)</li> <li>• A senior planner and a master planning team, block design architects (urban design)</li> </ul>
Key stakeholders involved in current use,	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Local residents</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Local residents</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Local residents,</li> <li>• Shop owners</li> </ul>
Key stakeholders involved in end use	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Local residents who stays,</li> <li>• New residents</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Local residents who stays,</li> <li>• New residents</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Local residents who will resettle in Singil,</li> <li>• New residents</li> </ul>

**Table 4.5 Key stakeholders in urban regeneration and urban design of the selected case studies**

#### 4.5 Investigating urban design issues and data collection

The fourth task involved building and applying data gathering tools for the specific issues with the specific questions identified in the first task and the general research questions that this thesis deals with. Two dimensions of data collection were needed: 1) a literature-based investigation and 2) a fieldwork-based investigation. For the literature-based investigation, data collection with published research, secondary sources of information and official reports, comprising planning/design documents and the central/local governments' reports covering planning of the case areas, policy reports, design guidance including urban design frameworks, master plans and design

codes, consultation papers and policy statements, was performed. Simultaneously with the literature-based data collection, building and applying data gathering tools for the in-depth case studies required a number of contextual field work activities. The fieldwork-based investigation consisted of informal visits and a series of semi-structured interviews carried out from March 2010 to October 2010. Informal visits, for observing the regeneration areas for the case studies, were made twice or three times for each case. The design and application of in-depth interviews with different stakeholders were identified in the fourth task. Designing the interviews required exploring wider, but specific issues directly relevant to various stakeholders' experience.

The 'investigation issues', which were developed from the research questions, were defined with the nature of research dimension of this thesis, to link urban design aspects to urban regeneration and community engagement, and summarised in table 4.6. Investigation issues in relation to urban regeneration focus on why urban regeneration was needed, how urban regeneration has been processed so far, and how urban regeneration has been affected by changes in urban policies or political/economic condition. Investigation issues in relation to urban design aspects focus on how stakeholders perceive the role of urban design, how urban design has been proceeded in the wider process of regeneration, and what kind of tensions urban design faces in the designing process. Investigation issues in relation to community engagement focus on what local communities need and prefer for urban design in urban regeneration, how local communities has been involved in the process of urban design in urban regeneration and how urban design responds to community engagement.

Research Questions	Specific Questions	Investigation issues
The social dimension of urban design facilitating community engagement in urban regeneration	SQ1, The roles of urban design	<b>Urban regeneration</b> History of urban regeneration Vision and objectives The stages of urban regeneration The procedure of urban regeneration The characteristics of areas and communities Market condition Time scale Changes in urban policies <b>Urban design aspects</b> The role of urban design The procedure of urban design The relation between urban design and other aspects of regeneration Challenges and tensions The management of the products <b>Community engagement</b> Local needs and preferences Relation with local people/ tensions Changes in the process The involvement of local people in management
	SQ2, Tensions and challenges of urban design	
	SQ3, Factors affecting community engagement	
	SQ4, Channels for community engagement	

**Table 4.6 The identification of the investigation issues for data collection with the research questions**

The interview questions were designed on the basis of the investigation issues summarised above. The different proforma of interview sets for different stakeholders was set up with the relation to the degree and nature of involvement of each stakeholder (see appendix seven for the different proforma of interview questions). The interviews were designed to last about 30 minutes to 70 minutes. Interviews were recorded as mp3 files and transcribed verbatim. Altogether, a total of 13 interviews were carried out. The 13 interviews (6 in the UK and 7 in Korea, see appendix five and six for a list of the interviewees) were conducted by comparing the views and experiences of stakeholders in different positions.

Key stakeholders identified in the third task were contacted for the interviews. For the case of Scotswood, a representative of BNG-as a regulator and a producer-, an urban

designer who worked for NCC-as a regulator and partly a producer of urban design-, and local residents as users were targeted for the interviews. Similarly, for the case of Walker, a representative of BNG, an urban designer who are working for NCC, and local residents were targeted for the interviews. For the case of Singil, a representative of Yeongdengpoku council as a regulator of urban regeneration, the Senior planner as a regulator and a producer, an urban planner and an designer who participated in the master planning team as regulators and producers of urban design, and local residents as users were targeted. Although local residents were originally targeted for the interviews, I had problems achieving interviews, especially with respect to personal interests and a lack of understanding about urban design issues on urban regeneration. Instead of interviews with local residents, interviews with two representatives of voluntary community associations for each case of Newcastle upon Tyne, and interviews with four property agents in Singil area (two of them were local residents in Singil regeneration area) were conducted in order to investigate users' perspectives.

This strategy was continued by additional interviews with specialist academics in order to explore academic scholars' perspectives and implications on the Korean contexts. For these second round interviews, interviews with five academic scholars in Korea were conducted to discuss current issues on urban design, urban regeneration, and community engagement in Korean contexts. Three academic scholars for the interviews have had experiences in controlling the process of urban regeneration as a master planner or a master architect and other two academic scholars have academic interests relating to issues on current urban policies. The interviews included the following issues on the role of urban design, the involvement of local people, and the management of urban design products in Korean contexts (see appendix eight for the interview questions):

- The evaluation of current urban design in urban regeneration
- The roles of urban design in urban regeneration
- Opinions on the social role of urban design in urban regeneration
- Important considerations in the process of urban design in urban regeneration
- Opinions on the significance of community engagement in the process of urban design in urban regeneration

- The reality of community and community engagement in the current urban regeneration
- Suggestions for more effective community engagement in the process of urban design in urban regeneration
- Opinions on the management of urban design products
- Additional comment from the interviewees' experiences for implications

The interviews with academic scholars were valuable because they provided various viewpoints and a variety of suggestions on above issues. Chapter nine discusses the issues in the Korean contexts with the analysis of the interviews with academic scholars.

#### **4.6 Analysing data using an analysis framework for the case studies**

The fifth task was analysing data, which were collected by the fourth task, using an analysis framework. This task includes understanding the contexts of the case studies and discussing the findings from the case studies with analytical integration. The fifth task required a stage-by-stage approach (see figure 4.1). This came out of the need to handle the information provided by the interviews and document reviews of secondary data, with simplified and categorized analytical dimensions. This came out also of intention to integrate the collected data on the investigation issues, which were defined in the task four, into discussions on the research questions. The data analysis stages were as follows and figure 4.2 illustrates how the contexts of case studies are analysed for each analysis stage and how each stage of analysis fits into the next stage of analysis:

- 1) Data organisation: This involved arranging the raw interview and secondary data according to the substance of its content. The headings reflect the nature of the interview questions about interviewees' experiences and their understanding on the 'investigation issues'. The data from the interviews was consolidated with collected information from secondary data and the informed visits of case studies areas. A range of secondary data covering official documents complimented the information from the interviews.
- 2) Initial analysis: Data from the interviews and other sources was integrated into 'issues for understanding', including urban regeneration, the process of urban

design, community engagement in the regeneration process. One level of codification with initial letters relating each issue for understanding to collected data was used. The codified data was integrated and translated as understanding of the contexts of the case studies. This was not only an important step to understand various contexts of the case studies, but also a necessary intermediate step towards analysing the roles of urban design and evaluating community engagement of the case studies. The parts of chapters five, six, and seven contain the initial analysis of the issues for understanding.

3) Intermediate analysis: This stage of analysis intended to discuss the findings from initial analysis with the comparison of the similarities and differences of the contexts of the case studies. The comparison and contrast of three case studies was facilitated in a systematic way to enhance deeper understanding of the role of context:

- The characteristics of the study areas: tenure structure, problems which the areas has been experienced, and the sense of community or place attachment

- Urban regeneration in the case studies: the external and internal drivers of regeneration, urban regeneration actions, who leads the process of urban regeneration, and the effect of economic downturn on regeneration

- Urban design approaches in the case studies: aspirations in the city level and the community level, who leads the process of urban design, and major urban design considerations

- Community engagement in the case studies: the range of mechanisms for community engagement, the involvement of communities, the dialogue on urban design

Alongside the comparison of the case studies, the initial analysis on the roles of urban design and community engagement of the three case studies was integrated into discussions on specific research questions. The discussion chapter eight contain the intermediate analysis with the specific research questions of this thesis.

4) Final analysis: This final stage of analysis involved consolidating the intermediate analysis in chapter eight and discussing the social dimension of

urban design in facilitating community engagement in urban regeneration with the overall research question of this thesis. Concluding discussion in chapter ten contains the final analysis and provides constructive suggestions for urban design in urban regeneration in Korea.

Stage 1 Data organisation of 'investigation issues'	Stage 2 Initial Analysis of 'issues for understanding'	Stage 3 Specific Research Questions	Stage 4 Overall Research Questions
<p><b>Urban regeneration</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>●History of urban regeneration</li> <li>●Vision and objectives</li> <li>●The stages of urban regeneration</li> <li>●The procedure of urban regeneration</li> <li>●The characteristics of areas and communities</li> <li>●Market condition</li> <li>●Time scale</li> <li>●Changes in urban policies</li> </ul> <p><b>Urban design aspects</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>●The role of urban design</li> <li>●The procedure of urban design</li> <li>●The relation between urban design and other aspects of regeneration</li> <li>●Challenges and tensions</li> <li>●Management in the post production stage</li> </ul> <p><b>Community engagement</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>●Local needs and preferences</li> <li>●Relation with local people/ tensions</li> <li>●Changes in the process</li> </ul>	<p><b>Urban regeneration</b></p> <p><b>The process of urban design</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>●Setting the background of urban design</li> <li>●Application to regeneration area</li> <li>●Implementation and management</li> </ul> <p><b>Community engagement in the process</b></p> <p><b>Initial Analysis</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>●The role of urban design</li> <li>●The evaluation of community engagement</li> </ul>	<p><b>The comparison of the case studies</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>●The characteristics of the study areas</li> <li>●Urban regeneration in the case studies</li> <li>●Urban design approaches</li> <li>●Community engagement</li> </ul> <p><b>The integration of initial analysis</b></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>●The roles of urban design</li> <li>●Tensions and challenges in urban design</li> <li>●Factors affecting community engagement</li> <li>●Channels for community engagement</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>●<b>The social roles of urban design in facilitating community engagement in urban regeneration</b></li> </ul>

Figure 4.1 Methodology for data analysis

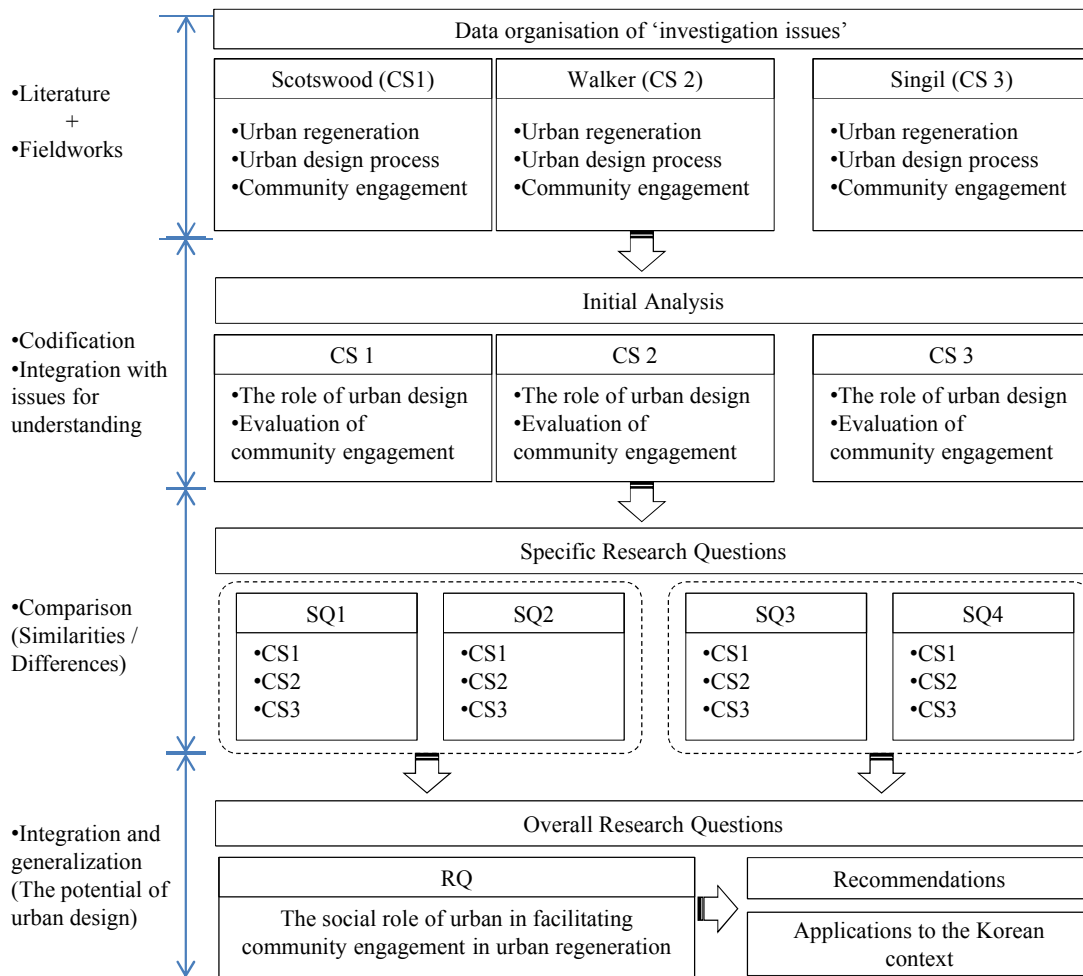


Figure 4.2 Analysis strategy

#### 4.7 Discussion

This chapter has provided a detailed research framework and how the framework was developed to understand urban design with the contexts of urban regeneration, and of community engagement, and to consider the social dimension of urban design in the various contexts with different viewpoints of various stakeholders. The concept of linking the roles of urban design with the practice of urban regeneration, and with community engagement, provides a strong framework for approaching the empirical data in chapters five, six and seven, and for using this data to draw wider discussions on the nature of the social dimension of urban design in urban regeneration practices. Chapters five, six, seven explores the initial analysis of understanding issues relating urban regeneration, urban design, and community engagement by tracing the



development of urban design in urban regeneration and community engagement in the process and discusses the specific issues relating to the roles of urban design in urban regeneration and the evaluation of community engagement. Chapter eight provides the discussion with the comparison of the similarities and differences of the contexts of the three case studies to respond to specific questions. Chapter nine provides the discussion and some suggestions on urban design in urban regeneration and community participation in the Korean contexts with the analysis of the interviews with academic scholars. Chapter ten provides and concludes the integrated final analysis on the social dimension of urban design in engendering community engagement in urban regeneration and discusses the potentials of urban design in urban regeneration.

## **Chapter 5 Case study 1: Singil regeneration**

### **5.1 Introduction**

Chapter two explored the contexts of urban policies in both countries on urban regeneration, urban design, community engagement, and the impact on urban regeneration of political changes and changes in economic condition. This chapter and subsequent chapters six and seven extends the thesis's investigation of urban regeneration by exploring the context of urban regeneration of three case studies, including Singil regeneration in Korea, and Scotswood and Walker regeneration in the UK. Understanding the contexts of each case needs to maintain awareness of wider contexts, which were explored in Chapter two, as a background for wider understanding to develop discussion; for example, policy/political changes and the changes in market condition, in which each case has been situated. Before developing the discussion on urban design in urban regeneration in chapter eight, these chapters five, six, and seven considers the context of urban regeneration in each case along three dimensions: understanding of urban regeneration, the process of urban design in urban regeneration, and community engagement in urban regeneration. Reviews of documentary materials and the interviews from the three case studies were mainly used. Also, these chapters discuss the roles of urban design and evaluate community engagement in urban regeneration.

### **5.2 Urban regeneration in Singil**

Singil covers 147 hectares, situated near Yeoido which is one of the sub-central business districts in Seoul, the capital city of South Korea. Around 56,730 people live in Singil. The main house type in Singil is low-rise (from two to four stories) flats and the ratio of letting tenants to home owners (approximately 7:1, 87.6%) is extremely high. Most house owners are elderly people who have lived for a long time in Singil. Seoul City Council proposed Singil as a 'residential district type Newtown in Seoul' in 2005 after site analysis during two years from 2003. In the site analysis, the image of Singil as a physically deprived area, with the narrow width of roads, the low connectivity of

community streets and the lack of open space and community facilities, was pointed out as a main problem. On the other hand, high opportunities of Singil were highlighted in its close location to Yeoido business area and the high accessibility to the CBD with excellent public transport including three subway lines through Singil and good local bus services.

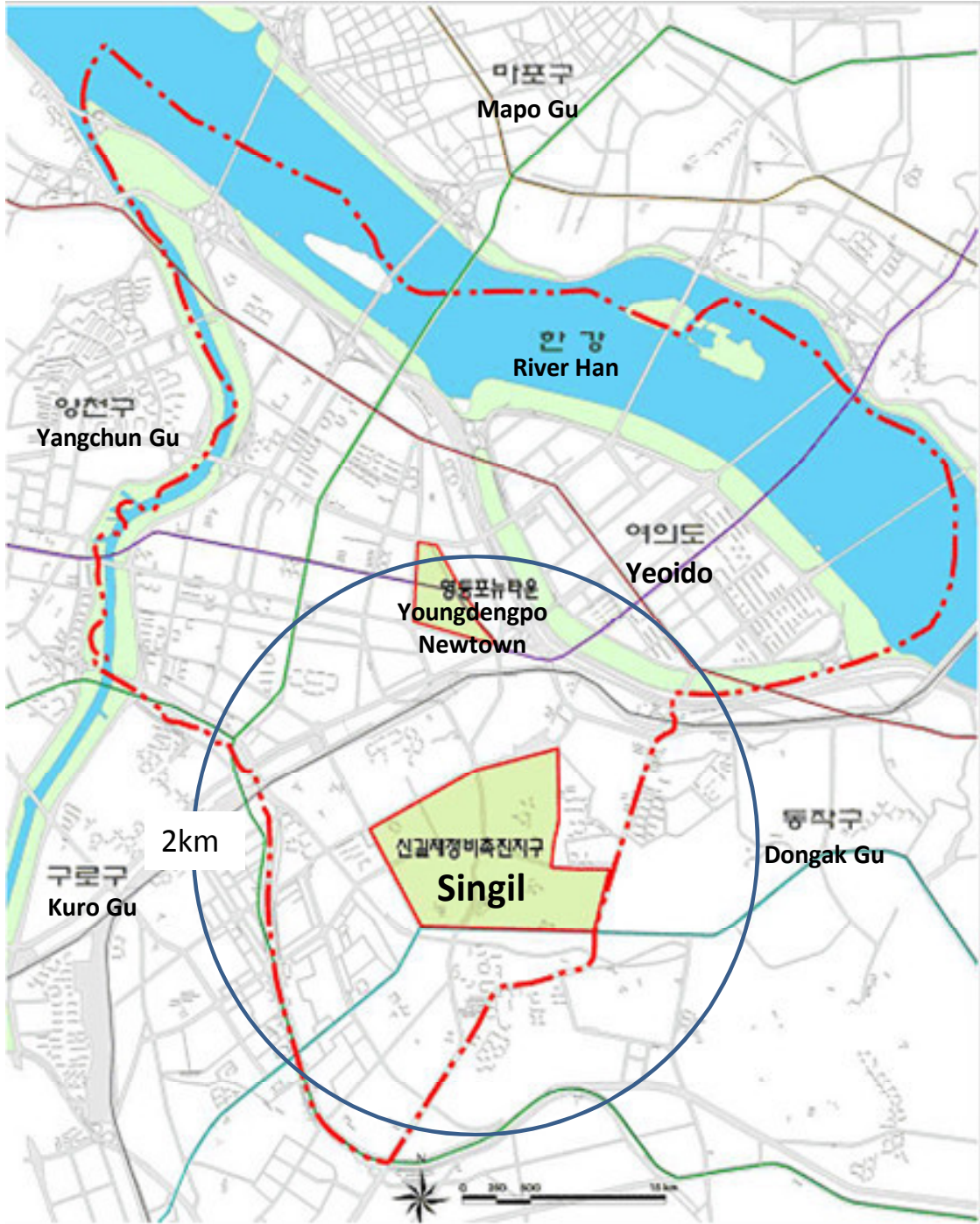


Figure 5.1 The location of Singil (Source: Yeoungdeungpo Gu Office)

Singil was designated as a Newtown in City in the third round by the Balanced Development Committee of Seoul (서울시 지역균형발전위원회) in December, 2005. Singil regeneration has been supported as a Regeneration Promotion Project, instead of a Newtown in City project, after the ‘Special Act on the Promotion of Urban Regeneration’ was adopted in December, 2005. The Act was to promote large scale regeneration and to control small scale redevelopments which would increase the capacity problem of infrastructure facilities and the disharmony in the landscape. Singil was selected as one of the exemplary projects for inner city regeneration as a residential district type in September 2006 and designated as a Regeneration Promotion District in October, 2006.

There was a positive agreement from most local residents with the regeneration scheme in the early stage when Singil was suggested as a Newtown project area. In a survey conducted in May 2004 for three weeks with 276 respondents, 81 percent of respondents wanted Singil to be designated as a Newtown in Seoul. In the survey, 33 percent of respondents surveyed were dissatisfied with the environments, for example, with parking areas; narrow streets; a lack of open spaces and parks, whereas 16 percent of respondents were satisfied. Most local residents were likely to want to stay at Singil after regeneration. In another survey with local residents carried out in June 2006, 74 percent of house owners surveyed wanted to resettle in Singil, 84 percent of letting tenants also wanted to resettle in Singil and 80 percent of them wanted to be provided with social housing in Singil.

However, the downturn of the real estate markets with the world economic bust starting from 2007 affected Singil regeneration. An interviewee who was involved in the urban planning team of Singil regeneration commented that “there was a high demand of local residents and market for the redevelopment of Singil in 2004, but the demand has totally decreased with the downturn of the real estate markets” (Urban planner 1, 2010). One property agent who was interviewed commented:

*If the current market hits the bottom and is recovering, this regeneration project will proceed faster; however, if it's not in recovering, development partners, including the steering committee, construction companies and more importantly local residents who own their houses, will not take any risk and will stay without any action for the development. Also, the local council could not support this regeneration. ... So, I would say that if the market condition does not recover, this regeneration project needs to be changed or cancelled (Property agent 2, 2010).*

Alongside the change of the market condition, disagreement from local residents with the regeneration has increased. A community representative explained why some local residents who own their houses in Singil are against the regeneration project:

*Some local people disagree with this regeneration project. Most people who own their houses in Singil have lived there for around 20 to 40 years and most of them are over 60 years old. So, they have a strong attachment to their houses. If someone lives in the same place for a long time, he or she will have lots of attachment to the place. In that sense, they want to live in Singil. On the other hand, they rent the rest of their houses and earn some money. But now, they are concerning how the regeneration will affect their lives in an economic way. So, they do not want to leave Singil as a result of this regeneration project (Local resident 1, 2010).*

The local representative who disagrees with this regeneration also commented about the economic concern after the regeneration:

*Now, my wife and I are living on a decent budget with the rent from my house, without any economic problem. With this regeneration project, it might be good to develop high rise apartments with some improvements of the physical environments at a city level. However, old people here have lived here for a long time and have expanded their houses for letting with their savings, but most of them might have to leave to other places after this regeneration. ... Supposing*

*that we resettle in Singil after this regeneration, we will have to find another economic source. Although we are living with the rent now, we will have to pay the management fee for a new apartment while losing monthly income. That's our main concern* (Local resident 1, 2010).

Singil regeneration will follow the process of Joint Redevelopment Projects (JRPs, called 정비사업 in Korea) for the implementation of development of each zone. As explained in chapter two, JRPs have been widely used for housing renewal based on the high demand for housing in large cities in Korea since the 1980's. In the process of JRP, owners form an association, which contracts with the construction company and takes responsibility for the project after government designates redevelopment areas. A redevelopment association is created to obtain the required approval of two-thirds of the landlords. Although the local government provides no public assistance, a high-density redevelopment is generally allowed to ensure reasonable profits instead of public assistance (Ha, 2004; Lee et al., 2003). For Singil regeneration, the local government can provide some public funding for infrastructure works from the Regeneration Promotion Special Fund as a regeneration promotion project. Despite the public support in the initial planning process, the demand for housing in Singil and the price of high-rise apartments near Singil have fallen and house owners in Singil are still concerning that the market condition cannot guarantee an economic return for them. The development process since 2009 in most development zones has been delayed in terms of creating redevelopment associations and creating partnerships with construction companies.

The Public Management Programme (공공관리제) has been introduced from September 2010. The programme is applied to Redevelopment Promotion Zones where partnerships between land owners' committee and private construction companies have not been agreed before June 2010<sup>1</sup>. The Public Management Programme is to assist the

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<sup>1</sup> Act on the redevelopment of urban and residential environment was reformed in June 2010 and the reform of the Act included the introduction of the Public Management Programme.

process of JRPs through the management of the process by local government instead of redevelopment associations. This programme aims to shorten the time scale of redevelopment process, to enhance the transparency of the process, and to alleviate conflicts in the redevelopment process. Interviews revealed a lot of interest in the public management programme by local residents. One local resident commented on the programme with a positive view:

*Many people wanted the process of regeneration to be transparent. I agree with the public management programme because I believe that local government will control the process with the notion of public benefit for local communities. ... I hope that the public management process will be a benefit for local people in reality (Local resident 1, 2010).*

On the other hand, another local resident mentioned with some concern:

*So far, there have been few regeneration practices where the public management programme was applied. So, local people have concerns whether the public management programme will benefit for them or not (Local resident 2, 2010).*



Figure 5.2 The current built environment of Singil regeneration area (2010)

### 5.3 The process of urban design

#### 5.3.1 Setting the background of urban design in urban regeneration

The regeneration of Singil was considered in the third round designation of the Newtown in City initiative by Seoul City Council (SCC). SCC requested a preliminary analysis of Singil for the designation of the 2004 round of Newtown in City projects by the local authority (Yeongdeungpoku Council) in November 2003. In February 2004, a planning team, which consisted of a master architect, Jaeil engineering planning consultant, and Kunwon architect company, was appointed. A conceptual plan for the designation of a residential type Newtown had been developed with 28 Master Architect



meetings by December 2004. Yeongdeungpoku Council was requested to organise a site visit in December 2004 and Seoul Balanced Development Committee members visited Singil for an inspection. After the visit, Yeongdeungpoku Council applied for the designation of a residential centre type Newtown in Cityfor Singil in October 2005 and Singil Newtown was designated in December 2005.

The legislation of ‘Special Act on the Promotion of Urban Regeneration’ in December 2005 has affected the planning process of Singil regeneration. Three consultations with Seoul Balanced Development Committee provided administrative advice in 2006. Between December 2005 and December 2006 when the Act started to operate, Singil Newtown project was transferred to a Regeneration Promotion Project by the Special Act. Seoul City Council informed the local council of a plan to designate Singil as an exemplary project in August 2006. Singil was finalised as an exemplary project in September 2006, and its designation as a Regeneration Promotion District was finalised in October 2006. With the support from the Act, the planning process of Singil was changed with the introduction of a planning team controlled by an appointed senior planner.

### *5.3.2 Singil Regeneration Promotion Plan (2007)*

After the designation of Singil Regeneration Promotion District, the senior planner controlled the planning and urban design process with the assistance of four sub-master planners and an urban planning/design team. Singil Regeneration Promotion Plan (Singil Masterplan) was developed by a senior planner through consultative meetings with an advisory committee which consisted of four sub-master planners including a landscape architect, a professional architect, an officer in Seoul city council, and an officer in the Korea Land and Housing Corporation (LH 공사). Jaeil Engineering Corporation as an engineering/planning team and Gunwon Architecture consultant as an urban design team were also involved in the master planning team. The Singil Regeneration Promotion Plan was developed with 34 Master planning team meetings and six consultations with Seoul Urban Redevelopment Committee in 2007. After a

statutory consultation with residents in May 2007 and consultations with Seoul Sustainability Committee and City Parks Committee, the Plan was adopted by Seoul City Council in November 2007.

The objective in the Plan was to set out the spatial plan that acts as a planning framework to control the development in each Regeneration Promotion zone to 2015. The plan was structured in six parts:

- 1) The first part briefly outlined backgrounds of planning, area, and the procedure of planning.
- 2) The second part analysed development conditions, present conditions and opportunities of Singil area.
- 3) The third part set out the vision and objectives, targeting aims, and basic concept for development (figure 5.3).
- 4) The fourth part dealt with detailed planning on issues concerning land use, housings, infrastructures, parks and greening, transport, landscape, the designation of regeneration promotion zones, zoning modification for each regeneration projects, buildings, the sharing of infrastructure costs, the provision of social housing, street signage, waste treatment, safety and infrastructures for disaster protection, information networks, energy circulation for sustainability, and the improvement of community (figure 5.4, figure 5.5).
- 5) The fifth part focused on project implementation. This part provided the phases of development, detailed development guidance for the implementation, planning details of 16 regeneration promotion zones, and a plan of funding for infrastructure costs.
- 6) The last part dealt with the modification of the urban management plan by the regeneration promotion plan.

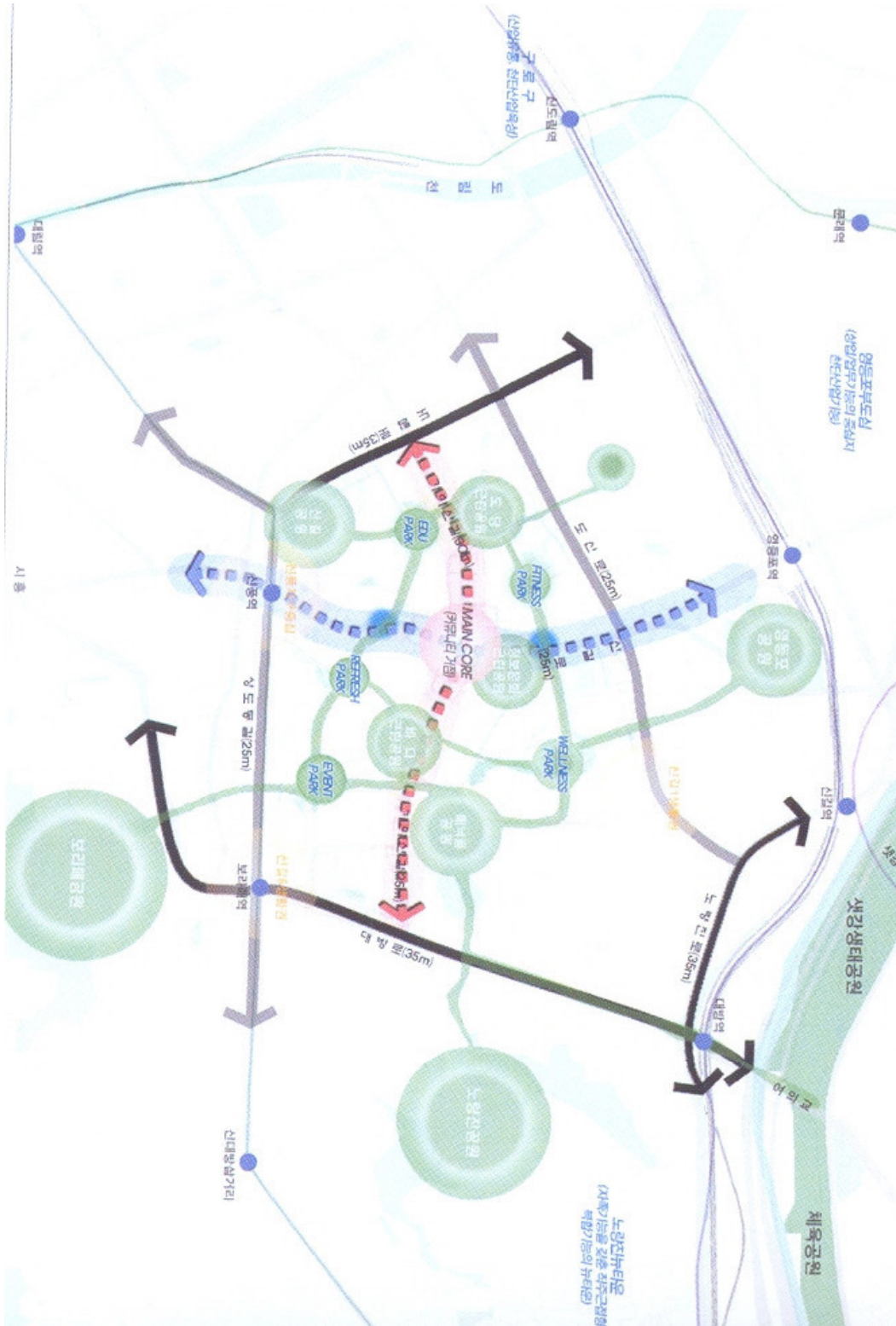


Figure 5.3 A diagram of development concepts in Singil Regeneration Promotion Plan (Yeoungdeungpoku Council, 2008); This diagram proposes a new community centre for Singil, two main axis and community streets and the green network connecting community parks.



Figure 5.4 Land use plan in Singil Regeneration Promotion Plan (Yeongdeungpoku Council, 2008); Land use includes residential use (apartments 52.6%, mixed use apartment 0.3%), office and commercial (9.3%), and facilities (community facilities 0.9%, schools 7.2%, parks 10.1%, roads 16.1%, and religious use 3.5%)



**Figure 5.5 Illustrations with models for Singil centre and a community park (Yeoungdeungpoku Council, 2008); (a) Singil centre includes the development of offices and commercials to support the long term growth of local economy and to connect Singil area to Yeoido sub CBD, (b) A green network was planned to connect 10-20m width green corridors and 5 main community parks.**

In the Plan, 18,845 new homes were planned with a large amount of demolition of housing (18,181 dwellings). 16 zones as separate Regeneration Promotion Zones for Joint Redevelopment Projects were designated. The Plan aimed to create a sustainable community as a residential-centred model of inner city regeneration. The vision was to be realized through seven objectives:

- improvement of physical environments with facilities
- supporting business districts and improving accessibility to business centres
- enhancing the sense of community
- supporting an active community participation in management of the built environment
- providing an open space network
- enhancing housing choice and tenure mix
- inducing the resettlement of local residents (Yeoungdeungpoku Council, 2008)



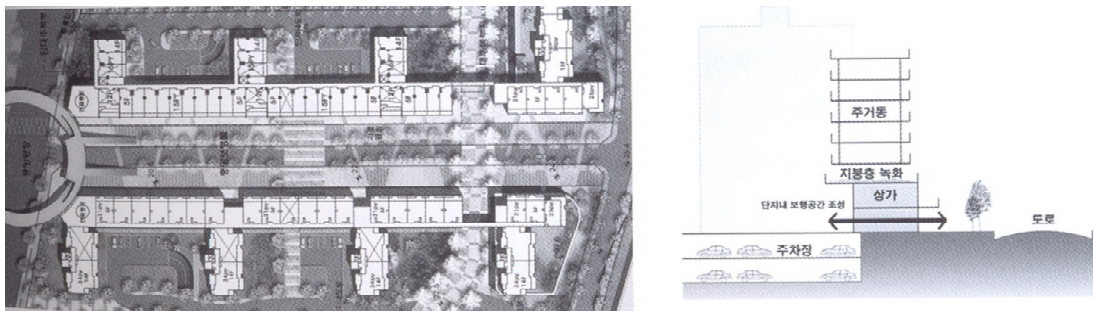
Figure 5.6 A perspective image in Singil Regeneration Promotion Plan (Yeoungdeungpoku Council, 2008)

### *5.3.3 Design guidance for implementation (2008)*

After the Masterplan was adopted, the planning/engineering team and architect team with advice from the master planners developed design guidance for implementation. The detailed guidance for the implementation which was provided in the fifth part of the Masterplan report (2008) will be a consideration when assessing planning applications within each regeneration promotion zone. The guidance provided compulsory requirements and recommendations for future development. The guidance set out the requirements and recommendations relating to five categories:

- First category deals with the requirements for buildings in terms of density (building coverage ratio, floor area ratio (FAR) standard ratio, maximum ratio, and incentives), building stories (average stories and maximum stories), land use, maximum heights, lay outs of buildings, application of limit lines of structure, and building façade and building colour (figure 5.8).

- Second category provides the characteristics of neighbourhood facilities and mall-type retail shops (heights, greening, pedestrian paths, façade, and pent roof) (figure 5.7).
- Third category focuses on community centres, cultural facilities, and schools in terms of basic principles (openness and mixed use), accessibility and greening.
- Fourth part provides requirements of bicycle sheds in terms of location and capacity.
- Fifth part deals with guidance for sustainability issues including renewable energy, the application of ecological area ratio standard, the installation of sustainable drainage system, CPTED design for safety, and the application of certificates (eco-friendly building certificate and barrier-free environment certificate (1<sup>st</sup> grade)).



**Figure 5.7 Images of design guidance for mall-type retail shops in Singil design guidance for implementation (Yeoungdeungpoku Council, 2008); The requirements of mall-type retail shops includes the maximum of stories (less than three stories), the provision of pedestrian paths with piloti for the malls with over 50m length, and the unified design of pent roofs and the size of pent roofs. The recommendations include the provision of pedestrian paths and green space in rooftop, the unification of color and materials, and façade design including show windows.**



Figure 5.8 Design guidance for the layout of buildings in Singil design guidance for implementation (Yeongdeungpoku Council, 2008); This guidance includes layouts for limit lines of structure, restricted areas of direct car access to buildings, layouts for tower-type high rise apartments, flat-type apartments (under 7 stories, 7-12 stories, and 13-15 stories), mall-type shops, and community facilities.



### 5.3.4 The process of Joint Redevelopment Project (JRP) in Regeneration Promotion zones

The Masterplan identified three phases for future developments. The first phase includes development zones which were included in the *Urban and Residential Environment Redevelopment Basic Plan* as redevelopment planning areas. The second phase includes development zones which were not included in the basic plan. The third phase includes retention zones not included in the demolition and rebuilding process. 16 development zones were identified in the Masterplan. The development of Regeneration Promotion Zones after the master planning process follows the JRP process (정비사업). The process of development for the Single Regeneration Promotion zones includes following stages:

- 1 The organisation of Development Steering Committees: Development Steering Committees are organised with more than 50 percent of agreement among land owners and permitted by the Mayor of Seoul City. The Committees have a contract with a redevelopment management company and architects for site design (generally, large construction companies were involved in the contact), prepare a draft of redevelopment implementation plan, and prepare the organisation of Land Owners Committees.
- 2 The organisation of Land Owners Committees: This needs an agreement with at least 75 percent of land owners and land owners who have more than 50 percent of whole area, and the Committees are permitted by the Mayor. The Committees should write articles of association (정관) with an agreement with two thirds of land owners. A Representative Board of land owners and a Board of residents' representatives are organised. Land Owners Committees discuss with a Board of residents' representatives on the issues concerning demolitions, relocation of local residents, compensation, and the provision of social housings.
- 3 Development Implementation Plan: This plan is submitted with the articles of association and related documents to the Mayor. The plan should include a land use plan and a building layout plan, a facilities provision plan, a relocation plan for local residents, a relocation plan for tenants, a social housing construction plan, building heights and FAR plans, a waste disposal plan during construction, and a protection plan for education facilities. After 14 days statutory public consultation, the Implementation Plans are permitted by the Mayor.

- 4 Management and Disposal plan: Within 60 days after the Development Implementation Plan is permitted, land owners apply for the disposal of their properties with new properties after development or paying off. After minimum 30 days consultation with land owners, the Disposal plan is permitted by the Mayor.
- 5 Demolition and construction: After the permission of the Disposal plan, contracted construction companies implement demolition and construction. The completion of construction is finalised by the Mayor.
- 6 Transfer of the property rights and end use: The rights of ownership of the properties are transferred to people who bought the properties and to the public sector in the case of public facilities (MLTM).

Depending on the location, current status, and the level of agreement among local residents, each Regeneration Promotion Zone in Singil is in a different stage of the process of JRP (see table 5.1 below). Steering Committees for 14 zones were permitted in 2008. Land Owners Committees were agreed to be organised for nine development zones in 2008 to 2010. The Development Implementation Plans for four development zones were permitted in 2009 and 2010. Two development zones (zone 7 and zone 11) obtained the permission for a Disposal Plan in 2011.



Figure 5.9 Development zones of Singil Regeneration Promotion project (Source: Yeongdengpoku council)

Development Zone	Area (m <sup>2</sup> )	Density, FAR (%)	Average height (Highest height) (Stories)	Steering Committee Permission	Land owners Committee Permission	Development Implementation Permission	Disposal Plan Permission
Zone 1 (Redevelopment)	62,696	229.39	22(35)	08.05.09	09.09.11	.	.
Zone 2 (Redevelopment)	61,971	229.83	18(25)	08.06.12	.	.	.
Zone 3 (Redevelopment)	38,502	Less than 229.97	20(32)	08.03.18	08.10.01	10.09.16	.
Zone 4 (Redevelopment)	52,112	229.91	18(31)	08.04.01	.	.	.
Zone 5 (Redevelopment)	76,601	Less than 239.59	20(26)	08.04.04	08.10.07	10.09.16	.
Zone 6 (Redevelopment)	36,266	239.90	18(26)	.	.	.	.
Zone 7 (Redevelopment)	93,728	Less than 239.98	22(27)	08.04.21	08.09.18	09.12.31	11.10.27
Zone 8 (Redevelopment)	32,168	Less than 236.99	22(25)	08.03.10	08.10.27	11.11.10	.
Zone 9 (Redevelopment)	73,135	234.55	22(29)	08.03.18	10.01.13	.	.
Zone 10 (Rebuilding)	36,635	249.91	-(26)	08.06.11	.	.	.
Zone 11 (Redevelopment)	50,759	Less than 232	19(25)	08.03.20	08.09.05	09.11.30	11.08.18
Zone 12 (Redevelopment)	52,716	Less than 240	19(29)	08.03.21	09.02.20	.	.
Zone 13 (Rebuilding)	15,120	248.61	-(22)	.	.	.	.
Zone 14 (Redevelopment)	27,848	228.91	20(26)	08.03.14	10.05.19	.	.
Zone 15 (Redevelopment)	105,733	229.63	22(34)	08.03.27	.	.	.
Zone 16 (Redevelopment)	80,272	229.82	20(30)	08.04.07	.	.	.

Table 6.1 A summary of JRP process in each Regeneration Promotion Zone in Singil (Source: Yeongdengpoku Council)

### 5.3.5 Implementation and management

It is difficult to discuss issues on implementation and management, because there is no redevelopment zone in Singil in the phase of implementation. However, the interviews with members of the urban planning team, when they asked about the management of Singil regeneration, focused on how the Regeneration Promotion Plan could have continuity to implementation. The interviews highlighted the public control in the process of JRPs for each development zone:

*One process to control the quality of urban design in the implementation phase is that any development implementation plan for each regeneration promotion zone should obtain advice from a regular meeting between Master planners and the master planning team for monitoring. With this process, the implementation of Singil regeneration could keep the objectives of Singil regeneration. Of course, although 100 percent of recommendations from the Masterplan and advices from the master planning team might not be accepted, detailed plans in the Masterplan for each zone are expected to be kept as much as possible with the Masterplan of Yeoungdeungpoku Council (Architect 1, 2010).*

*In the case of Singil, Yeoungdeungpoku Council organised a Development Committee including the members of the master planning team, master planners, the representatives of Land Owners Committees, and other experts. There is a process to check whether the development implementation plans for each development zone match with the Masterplan by the Development Committee before a review by the Architectural Committee of Seoul City Council. I agree with the process (Urban planner 1, 2010).*

Despite the process of a preliminary review for the Development Implementation Plans, the interviews revealed that the compulsory control on detailed design in each Regeneration Promotion Zone is impossible and that constraint may result in a gap between the Masterplan and implementation:

*At the stage of a review by the Architectural Committee of Seoul City Council, the implementation plans are often changed to totally different plans. ... Any*

*member of the master planning team in the Development Committee has no power to force change to the implementation plan although the implementation plan is not matched with the masterplan in detail. If the implementation plan meets the minimum requirement for the planning permission, totally different plans to the masterplan in each zone are often submitted. For example, if design guidance for implementation in the masterplan recommended a development keeping existing slopes, an implementation plan may ignore the recommendation and include a block development on a flat site because of lower construction cost. Therefore, although the compulsory requirements are met, there might be a huge gap between intentions included in the Masterplan and implementation, because the public sector cannot control the details because of the limitation of power over private owned properties (Urban planner 1, 2010).*

#### **5.4 Community engagement in the planning process**

In the planning process of Singil regeneration, surveys were commenced for gathering local information. The first survey was conducted in May, 2004 with 276 responses. This survey was used to obtain information regarding whether local residents want the designation of a Newtown in City, the satisfaction of local residents with the environment and facilities, housing type and housing size which they want, and whether they want to stay after regeneration. Another survey with 1,258 responses from house owners and 1,327 responses from letting tenants was carried out in June 2006. This survey was used to obtain information regarding households' income, housing size and tenure type, housing price and rent, demand for social housing, demand for small size housing, and demand to resettle in Singil or move to a nearby area.

Meetings with residents' representatives were held five times in October and November 2004. In the meetings, the master planning team explained the Newtown project and a draft plan, important issues for each development zone, the provision of facilities, and the boundary of Singil Newtown district.

Two sessions of meetings with residents' representatives were held in 2005 to discuss the division of development zones in the Singil Regeneration Promotion District. Another meeting with the representatives was held in 2006 to deliver information on the concepts of plan, main issues of each development zone, and to discuss the cost and interests of residents for the provision of infrastructures.

The statutory consultation included two weeks public consultation in 2007 and a public hearing with local people on the draft Masterplan which was held at Yeongdeungpoku community centre in May, 2007, involving around 1,300 residents.

## 5.5 Discussion

### 5.5.1 *The role of urban design in Singil regeneration*

It is apparent that urban design in Singil regeneration has been emphasised to enhance public control for regeneration as an exemplary project. The public control of urban design is emphasised in the planning process controlled by a senior planner and in setting out design guidance in the Regeneration Promotion Plan to control the design quality for implementation. The interviews with the urban design team highlighted that the masterplanning process of Singil regeneration played a role of improving design quality through public control. An interviewee who was involved in the urban design team illustrated the planning process of the Masterplan and evaluated that the process would improve the quality of urban design in urban regeneration:

*The Masterplan set out guidelines and frameworks for this project, so there is one more process in Singil than other in JRPs which are controlled by the Masterplan framework in Singil . It was more complicated in the design process with control by master planners... Urban design in Singil has been developed through a lot of discussions with the planning and design team. When the master planners or the urban planning team suggested frameworks, our design team discussed problems or opportunities in a further process and developed alternatives on a regular basis. Of course, opinions from Master Planner, sub-*

*master planners, Youngdengpoku Council, and a review of council members were quite different. So, urban design had to be developed with a lot of communication and the different opinions had to be discussed in the design process. That was quite complicated in the case of Singil ... Alongside regular meetings with the master planner and sub-Master planners, all of team members agreed that the Masterplan needs to control urban design for each development zone as a public plan. Although we did not suggest detailed designs, the detail of designs in each development zone is going to be controlled. It takes more time, but I believe it would be a better process for design quality in urban regeneration (Architect 1, 2010).*

However, public control for design quality is constrained in what the public control on urban design may achieve in implementation. The urban planner compared Singil regeneration with Enpyung Newtown<sup>2</sup> and explained why the urban design team tried to set out minimum standards and design guidance for better quality design:

*Singil regeneration is totally different from Enpyung in implementation. In the Enpyung's case, the Government has led the development of Enpyung and directly controlled the whole development process. Compared to the Enpyung regeneration, there is some dilemma in the process of Singil regeneration. That is because other processes for implementation are almost the same as with the previous JRPs, although public control is absolutely needed for Singil regeneration as a large scale transformation. Again, public control is absolutely needed for the quality of regeneration. In reality, local people are the owners and it is conceptually their development project. So, it would be meaningless if the public planning control is not agreeable to them or satisfactory to them. In that sense, urban design of Singil set out minimum standards and minimum architectural guidance. And we tried to suggest the possibility for better quality designs applied to some zones in communication with urban designers, planners,*

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<sup>2</sup> Enpyung is the largest area among sites designated as Newtowns in Seoul. See appendix one for the details of Enpyung Newtown project.

*architects, landscape designers, transport engineers and some local associations (Urban planner 1, 2010).*

However, there was a dilemma in deciding the level of detail of urban design in the masterplanning process as cited by the urban planner:

*Urban design in this regeneration was still in the stage of planning. Too much detail in this stage cannot be achieved in the implementation stage and detailed designs will be changed too much in the future, because there is no way to control details for each site design as a compulsory commitment. In that sense, seeking the meeting point between the planning stage and design stage was one problem (Urban planner 1, 2010).*

Although the details of urban design were often discussed in the masterplanning team meetings, the architect and the urban planner felt that just good looking drawings were produced. As the architect commented:

*In planning team meetings with master planners or the advisory committee, they usually talked about drawings and detailed architecture elements too much. For example, discussing about diversity in meetings, we sometimes had to draw nice drawings showing a variety of appearance or skylines in perspective instead of showing diversity in the social aspect, because this regeneration plan is a housing-led redevelopment with high rise apartments in reality. However, that is not about urban design which could be continued through the whole urban design process. ... Too much detailed urban design was sometimes discussed, and it also resulted in just drawings which look nice (Architect 1, 2010).*

Despite the high accessibility to Yeoido CBD and excellent public transport services of the Singil area, Singil was not perceived as a good place to live. Urban design focused on changing the image of Singil area to be a better place to live as the architect pointed out:



*I think that urban design plays an important role in raising aspirations. People perceived that Singil is not a nice place to live, compared to other areas adjacent to Singil, but they wanted to change the image of Singil by this regeneration (Architect 1, 2010).*

The Singil Masterplan identified 16 development zones. Therefore, how urban design improves connectivity between separated 16 zones was one of key design considerations. The master planning team recognised that physical design for improving connectivity may result in enhancing the sense of community. As the urban planner commented:

*Urban design in Singil plays a role in enhancing the sense of community through physical designs. In order to overcome the gap between levels in surrounding roads and the current lack of connectivity, physical connection between communities was focused on in urban design. Urban design in Singil tried to enhance the sense of community through the circulation of community streets and green networks as the Master Planner emphasised. Therefore, there is a role in responding to how to connect communities which might be considered as totally separated communities which previous JRPs resulted in. This role of urban design also includes responding to communities' needs and tensions in the economic aspect (Urban planner 1, 2010).*

In the perspective of local residents, it is likely that the roles of urban design are not clearly perceived. Local residents and property agents, who asked about the roles of urban design, responded that they don't know exactly what the roles of urban design are, and considered urban design as a very technical and professional process that experts can do.

### ***5.5.2 Community engagement in Singil regeneration***

It is clear that there have been tensions, which need to be discussed with community engagement in the process of the Singil Regeneration Promotion Project. From the interviews and documentary materials, substantive tensions focused on issues relating to market conditions and to the challenges of regeneration. The key substantive tensions were:

#### ***That between conservation and development***

This was the most obvious and has been the primary debate in the regeneration process. Besides some tensions with shop owners who wanted to keep their market area, the primary tension was between house owners who do not agree with the regeneration and those local residents who want it. A local resident commented:

*There are many old people who have lived for a long time in Singil and they are earning rent from their houses. Some of them do not really agree with this development. They think that they could not live again in Singil after this regeneration. They think: I could transfer my house to a new apartment, but I have to pay the amount of money for the gap between the compensation and the price for a new apartment. Also, it is hard for me to live without the rent. Of course, some people agree with this development and they have shared information. So, there has been a tension between local people from the starting point (Local resident 1, 2010). An interviewee described this tension as an unavoidable ambivalence between wishing to improve their place as a new place and wishing to keep their own houses without any change (Architect 1, 2010).*

#### ***That between local residents and the representatives of steering committees***

This tension surfaced in some regeneration promotion zones in relation to competition between different interest groups which wanted to lead the development and in relation to mistrusting the transparency of steering committees' activities. An interviewee commented:

*The representatives of the steering committee have led this regeneration for their business with developers as a private partner. Leaders of the steering*

*committee selected from local residents should represent our interests and our benefits; however, they are sometimes driven by developers (Local resident 1, 2010).*

### ***That between Yeungdeungpoku council and local residents***

In the cases of development zones where lots of local residents are critical of the regeneration after the downturn of real estate markets, for example, development zone 1, there were a lot of appeals from local residents to Youngdeungpoku Council. Some wanted the exclusion of their properties from the development sites because they were fearful of the threat of development to their properties or their living. Others wanted a small scale redevelopment led by local communities in the development process instead of a large scale of redevelopment. In this context, it is likely that the local Council could not sufficiently justify the regeneration plan as safeguarding the public interest. An interviewee commented on the attitude of local council officers:

*Many local people came and requested information from the council. Local people suggested their opinions, because they thought that local council and officers had to play a role in helping people who live in Singil and own their properties in Singil. However, council officers did not listen carefully to their opinions and did not provide enough information to them with a kind attitude (Local resident 2, 2010).*

For the masterplanning team, the important issues on community engagement were to deliver the objectives and visions of the Regeneration Promotion Project to local residents and to mediate tensions between local residents' interests:

*Like other Newtown in City projects in Seoul, local residents were highly interested in expected economic return after redevelopment in the early stage and they did not consider the objectives of Newtown projects. Therefore, the planning team focused on delivering information about the objectives and aims of Newtown projects and Regeneration Promotion projects and sharing the visions of Singil regeneration. ... The tensions between different interests of local residents were very complicated. Therefore, the planning team needed to*

*mediate the tensions and negotiate the different interests in the planning process for the realisation of the plan. In the statutory consultation and the final public hearing, local residents understood well about the detail of the plan and there were a variety of opinions and communications. The high level of understanding of local residents led to their sustaining interests and participation after the consultation (Cheil, 2008, p. 43).*

Five meetings with residents' representatives were used to explain the Newtown project and to engender their support. A report by Cheil engineering (2008) evaluated the significance of the meetings for delivering information:

*The meetings with the representatives of residents in 2005 had an important meaning meeting them directly in the early stage of planning. The meetings provided significant chances for the planning team to explain to local residents and discuss a Newtown project with them to deliver the objectives of the plan with their support (Cheil, 2008, p. 41)*

The report also evaluated the significance of the statutory consultation as a chance to hear local residents' individual opinions:

*The statutory consultation and a public hearing were important in providing chances to hear local residents' opinions concerning individual interests, whereas meetings with the representatives of residents were a way to discuss general direction of the plan. Therefore, the statutory consultation was a chance to promote a comprehensive participation. For this, a series of methods to promote the involvement of local residents, such as SNS and advertisements in newspapers, were used (Cheil, 2008, p. 42).*

Although there are different views from the interviews on whether the community engagement process was sufficient in the planning process of Singil regeneration, it is likely that local communities have not been actively engaged in the planning process.

An officer in Yeongdeungpoku Council pointed out a lack of community engagement in the planning process:

*The weak part of the planning process in Singil regeneration might be a lack of community engagement. Early community engagement was needed, but it was difficult to communicate with local people beyond the statutory process. There were some discussions with some representatives of local residents, but it was difficult to talk to residents directly due to different or sometimes opposite interests between them (Officer 1 in Youngdeungpoku Council, 2010).*

The interviews with property agents illustrated that local residents were not much interested in planning at the early stage, although most local people agreed with the regeneration due to the expectation of economic benefit from redevelopment before the downturn in real estate markets. Whereas one property agent, when asked about community engagement, argued that opinions from local residents were reflected in the masterplan due to public hearings and presentations in the planning process, other interviews with local residents and property agents focused on the lack of active involvement of local people and a lack of community engagement process:

*Local people were busy with their own business. So, they could not actively attend consultation events. ... There was limited ways to participate in planning for local people. Especially, for the elderly people, there was no process for enhancing their active involvement (Local resident 2, 2010).*

*I think that the process of providing information to local people was not sufficient. If there was a more active process to give information to local people, they could understand and could have more actively participated in the process (Local resident 2, 2010).*

*Although the statutory process for consultation was done and some people submitted their opinions, most local residents did not understand the details of the plan (Property agent 2, 2010).*

*Actually, there was little community engagement in the planning process. The planning process was developed by experts and Yeongdeungpoku council. ...*

*After the masterplan was adopted, steering committees or redevelopment associations explained the further process and plans to local people; however, the ratio of local people who were actively participated in that was quite low (Property agent 2, 2010).*

The difficulty of community engagement in the masterplanning process was cited by an urban designer in the planning team:

*The planning team interacted with local residents through public hearings and meetings with local representatives. Of course, there were some appeals from local residents to Yeongdengpoku council, but they were quite well negotiated. The planning team believed that community participation was necessary in the planning process, but it was difficult to be applied in the planning process, due to the legal constraints and the collision among local interests. ... We had to suggest and show at least the minimum of a plan to communicate with local people. ... In reality, local needs could not be discussed enough in the process. However, I felt that most local people were satisfied with the masterplan when the final public hearing was held (Architect 1, 2010).*

## Chapter 6 Case study 2: Scotswood regeneration

### 6.1 The background of urban regeneration in Scotswood and Walker (West End and East End, Newcastle Upon Tyne, UK)

#### 6.1.1 *Going for Growth*

Scotswood and Walker are located the West and East End near the city centre of Newcastle upon Tyne. The urban regeneration of the West and East End has been supported by Going for Growth which was a vision plan for 2020 adopted by Newcastle City Council (NCC) in July 1999. Going for Growth aimed to increase the wealth and population of Newcastle to create a creative, cohesive, and cosmopolitan regional capital of international significance (NCC, 2000b). The citywide vision plan aimed to increase the population from 275,000 to 290,500 and to provide 30,000 new jobs and 20,000 new houses by 2020 (NCC, 2000a, b). The policy was set out in a Green Paper published in January 2000 with draft master-plans for the East and West End of Newcastle and the master-plan for West End was published in July 2001 with some changes to the proposal after consultation (NCC, 2001).

The vitality and viability analysis of neighbourhoods in Going for Growth identified the West and East End as major areas which need intervention and support (NCC, 2000a, b). The existing state of communities in both areas was assessed as significant areas of poverty and continuing decline. City wide urban regeneration, especially in the West End and East End, was addressed as a key activity to achieve the vision of the city by tackling the long term decline of population, the relative decline of traditional economies, and the social exclusion of communities in Newcastle.

Especially, the urban regeneration of the West End was strongly linked with the aspiration of urban renaissance at city level. The objectives of Going for Growth aimed

to reverse the movement out from the city and the appointment of Richard Rogers<sup>1</sup> as a consultant on the master planning process of the West End plan showed that Newcastle City Council considered the urban regeneration strategy of the West End as part of a more challenging strategy for urban renaissance at the wider city level beyond the West End (Cameron, 2003):

*'Going for Growth' requires a rejuvenated and buoyant West End if the citywide population targets are to be achieved' (NCC, 2000b, p. 16).*

However, the community reactions against large scale housing demolition (6,600 dwellings, including 5,000 dwellings in the West End were proposed to be demolished in *the Green Paper*) raised a controversy. Alongside the controversy on the large scale demolition in West End, the conflict between a community-led approach and neighbourhood renewal arose from the aim of “rebalancing the population of unpopular neighbourhoods through an engineered gentrification process” of the Going for Growth strategy (Cameron, 2003; 2006, p. 4). The consultation process of Going for Growth without any alternatives was criticised in terms of community engagement and empowerment, comparing with the ‘people-focused’ approach of Westgate NDC in the West End (Cameron, 2003, 2006).

### ***6.1.2 Housing Market Renewal (HMR) programme in NewcastleGateshead***

The HMR programme in Newcastle and Gateshead, called Bridging NewcastleGateshead (BNG), was launched as one of nine HMR pathfinders in 2002. The programme aimed to tackle low housing demand, to improve quality and choice, and to develop a robust basis for building sustainable communities with central government’s long term (approximately 15 years) financial support. The resources of

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<sup>1</sup> Richard Rogers was chair of the commission on urban renaissance. He withdrew his position as a master planner of the West End Plan during consultation period of the masterplan. After his resignation, he stressed the independence of his work against proposals for demolition in the interview with *The Guardian*: *'The problem is that the council has blurred out draft – very much a draft – plan, with theirs. We have offered no solution yet. We made no specific proposals for demolition (Rogers in (Wainwright, 2000))'*.



the pathfinder provided the significant opportunity to deliver long term Going for Growth objectives. The pathfinder boundary was closely related to the ‘at risk’ neighbourhoods on either side of the River Tyne with interventions and support targeted at the most distressed neighbourhoods. It contained 77,000 properties and over 160,000 residents.

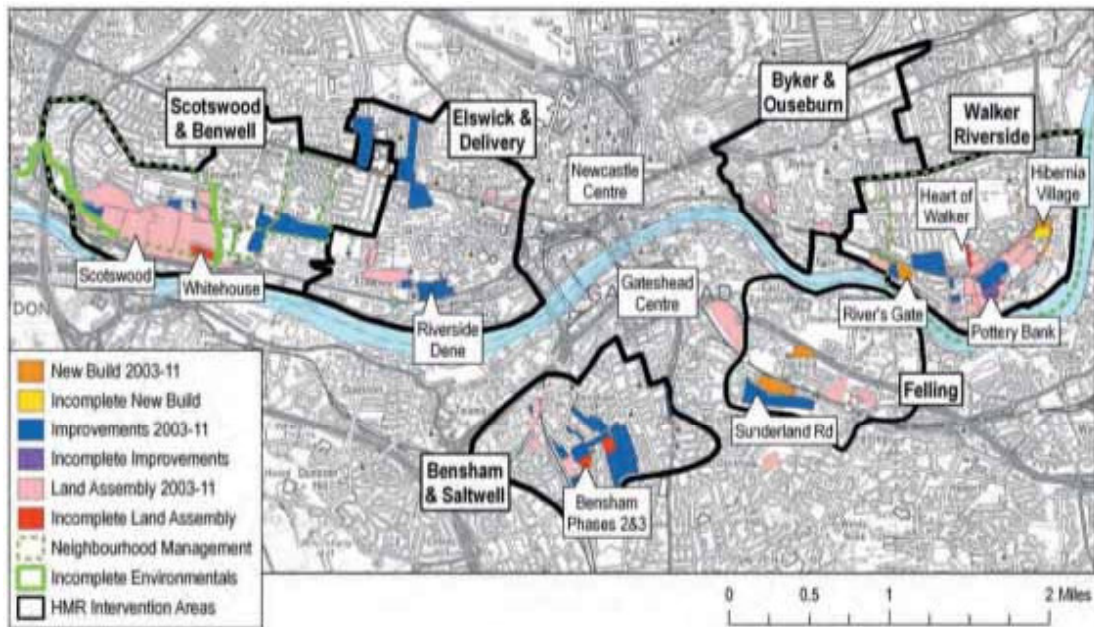


Figure 6.1 BNG Programme and remaining priorities (source: BNG, 2011, p. 13)

However, the Audit Commission was dubious about the supply-led growth of the Going for Growth strategy and the re-population of the West End in its Scrutiny Report published in 2003.

*... the pathfinder is seeking to achieve a significant increase in population within the inner core over the 15 year life of the programme. At least 6,000 additional homes are expected to be created, and the figure could be as high as 11,000. In the current context there is a significant risk that the pathfinder's strategy for supply-led growth may exacerbate market weakness rather than alleviate it. The existing evidence base does not indicate that re-population on the scale envisaged can be achieved without creating areas of over supply (Audit Commission, 2003, Summary, para 6).*

Some academics expressed concern of the approach of “restructuring the housing stock, in terms of tenure and value profile” (Cameron, 2006, p. 14) of the housing market renewal programme after BNG was set up in 2003. Cameron (2006) argued that the promise of housing market renewal can be simply the replacement of a substantial part of the existing population by households with higher incomes and social status, with less focus on improvement for the existing population. Robinson (2005) argued that the HMR should make it clear that it has faith in the area and the people, that the West End has a future, that demolition is seen as a last resort, and that it values the participation of people in the regeneration of the area. He also argued that ‘social cleansing’ of local people who have stayed to fight for their communities must not happen in the West End.

BNG’s capital and revenue programme for 2003-2004 to 2010-2011 was £224m to which £105.3m of other public resources and £31.3m of private funding were added as matched funding. Some 7,000 homes have been improved; 3,000 have been demolished, land has been acquired and prepared for the construction of over 4,500 new homes. Scotswood, Walker Riverside, and Bensham and Saltwell areas were identified as the priority areas for investment. The Housing Market Renewal fund finished in 2010 seven years earlier than planned when the Department of Communities and Local Government had the largest reduction in its capital programme as a result of Spending Review 2010<sup>2</sup>. BNG closed in April 2011 after eight years of work. BNG’s report (2011) discussed the immediate effects of the withdrawal of funding:

- Neighbourhoods will have to face incomplete investment activities – derelict and boarded up houses, homes not improved, demolition and new build not carried out;

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<sup>2</sup> The Spending Review sets out how the Coalition Government will carry out Britain’s deficit reduction plan. The Review suggested the reduction of CLG’s overall resource budget by 33 per cent in real terms by 2014-15, through reducing the size of the department and its Arms Length Bodies. To encourage private sector enterprise and economic growth, CLG will contribute £890 million to the £1.4 billion Regional Growth Fund by 2013-14. The fund will invest in projects and programmes with significant potential for growth and employment, and will in particular support those areas and communities that are currently too dependent on the public sector to make the transition to sustainable private sector led growth and prosperity (HM Treasury, 2010, Spending Review 2010, The Stationery Office Limited..

- Community reaction to perceived abandonment will be strong, especially as HMR has secured unprecedented levels of local engagement and support;
- The economic benefits of existing investment on jobs created and retained may wither away;
- Value for money for past public investment, and its ability to bring in other public and private finance, will be challenged and economic potential undermined;
- Regeneration skills and experiences with their emphasis on cross cutting professionalism and people engagement will be lost to the local community (pp. 6-7).

## 6.2 Urban regeneration in Scotswood

Scotswood was deemed as one of the most extreme examples of housing market collapse in the country, exhibiting abandonment, extensive clearance, dramatic population decline and a disadvantaged population and stigmatised housing areas. In the interviews, the negative image or reputation of Scotswood was addressed. A community representative commented that “high levels of unemployment and poverty, and low education achievement was always the characteristics of Scotswood” (Community representative 1, 2010). The approach of finding a radical solution to change the image of the stigmatised area was described in the interview with an urban designer who worked for Newcastle City Council:

*Scotswoods was an area of extreme market failure. It has a stigma attached to it; so, really radical solutions were needed.... We got to grips with looking at the whole of the West End, looking forward to an alternative model. Neighbouring areas were clearly running on the fears from social attitudes: people didn't want to live there, people didn't want to study there. Schools are awful with low reputations. But one thing really is that the stigma is...completely different from local people's perception (Urban designer 1, 2010).*

The Scotswood area was identified as one of major redevelopment areas in Going for Growth, and Scotswood regeneration was prioritised for the investment of the Housing Market Renewal fund. From 2003 onwards HMR funding supported plans for the assembly of a 60 hectare site for redevelopment in Scotswood. Proposals for the replacement housing offer in Scotswood were developed from 2004 after the Lib-Dems doubled their Council seats at the 2004 election, giving them an 18 seat majority. A master plan for the area including proposals for an exemplar housing site, referred to as the Expo, was developed in 2004. BNG proposed a Housing Expo as an opportunity to transform the image of the area and create a contemporary, distinctive family-oriented residential quarter that will provide a sustainable community, built to last (NCC, 2005). The Scotswood Housing Expo was planned to develop some 400 innovative homes to foster market interest, raise the profile, and change perceptions of the West End. Housing-led regeneration with up to 1,800 new homes was planned on the site of demolished council housing. An urban designer, when interviewed on this topic, talked about the background idea of getting a proper income mix from Going for Growth and a Housing Expo as a different approach in Scotswood:

*Going for Growth, one of the biggest ideas behind that was to present Newcastle again in a good way. We were trying to actually get a social mix back and trying to get a proper income mix. So, the challenge was largely related to that and to do that we did some significant scoping, an international scoping around the world. So the Expo model; we just didn't pick the Expo model, what we have is a dozen bit of communities across Newcastle and we are trying different approaches to regenerate each area (Urban designer 1, 2010).*



**Figure 6.2** The redevelopment area of Scotswood (source: Halcrow group)

A competitive dialogue process to form an urban regeneration vehicle began in 2007 and three consortia of developers negotiated with NCC in 2008. The Scotswood Housing Expo plan was organised around an architectural competition in 2008 with the aspirations to demonstrate high quality, sustainable design and construction. However, the economic downturn from 2007 has impacted the regeneration process. Sites in Scotswood were cleared, but struggled to attract developer interest, placing increasing pressures on the regeneration objectives. The recession has also affected the regeneration partnerships for Scotswood. One interviewee in BNG explained the increasing risk and their response to the risk.

*The recession kicked in, as we were going through a procurement process, and the city council has been involved now approximately for two years with two partners, two potential partners ....., Now the recession has obviously influenced how that partnership has worked and been developed through the competitive dialogue. Now obviously the risk, financial risk to the private sector has increased, the values have come down, certainty of mortgage accessibility, things like that are not the same as what we started out in 2007 on this, so yes, it has been affected by the recession. But one good thing about this, is in many ways, having a long term partnership for 15-20 years, it almost makes things recession proof in a way that you can share the risk and share the reward, and in our case where we are 'derisking' the development of Scotswood by doing these advanced infrastructural work which would otherwise be done by the private sector or by the sort of joint venture vehicle, so we are kind of 'derisking', and that's been a kind of a response, if you like, to part of recession because it eases the financial risks on the development model. ....So it has had an impact, part of the role of the public sector, ourselves, and Homes and Communities Agency have been drafting: how do we help our partners to reduce that risk (Officer 1 in BNG, 2010).*

On the other hand, criticism from local communities on large scale demolition and the top-down regeneration approach of Scotswood, has occurred, as seen in the example of the community-based protest against a large amount of demolition of social housing suggested in the Going for Growth Green Paper (Cameron, 2003). One community

representative when interviewed criticized the Scotswood regeneration programme as *a game for developers and a demolition programme*:

*There is no Expo. It's gone. It's now just a housing building programme really. .... It has always been a cynical exercise. It has been about gaining more new houses built in Newcastle. And that depends on the private sector building in the site of demolished social houses. It is a market driven scheme. .... All the stuff about community is tricky. It's mostly nonsense. It's really a game for developers. The Expo is the part of that. The Expo might be about rebranding the area. Since the credit crunch, ....it is just a demolition program. .... it has changed to build new housing and to increase subsidy for developers. .... No one in Scotswood believes any more. I mean, people might ... be hugely cynical about the whole thing. .... Now, nothing has happened for three years, ... The promise of community facilities may be realised...sometime in a future, but, it's not guaranteed. .... because it depends on the market (Community representative 1, 2010)*

*I think the Council is cleverer. It might look like improving everyone's lives; but it is developers' lives. .... It's about subsidizing profit to developers. It's about putting more money in their pocket (Community representative 1, 2010).*

BNG has invested over £53.9 million of HMR funding, spending on 427 acquisitions, 1,256 demolitions and household relocations to create a 60 hectare site for redevelopment in Scotswood and Benwell since the beginning of the programme. In May 2010, a consortium consisting of major house builders (Baratt, Keepmoat and Yuill) was selected as the preferred bidder. It was expected that new housing development in Scotswood could begin in 2011. Although a public sector funding package of over £60m was agreed by the HCA, BNG and NCC to remediate sites, provide new housings, and undertake physical improvements, prior to the 2010 Spending Review, the funding package has been in doubt after the coalition government's withdrawal of HMR funding.



Figure 6.3 The redevelopment site under site preparation works (2011)



Figure 6.4 The current built environment of Scotswood area

## 6.3 Urban design in urban regeneration

### *6.3.1 Setting the background of urban design in the regeneration of West Newcastle*

A citywide vision plan for Newcastle, *Going for Growth* (NCC, 2000b), set out the background of urban design in the West End regeneration. The initiative proposed that the ‘New West End’ had “opportunities for efficient flexible housing, district combined

heat and power and imaginative use of public space to connect communities” (NCC, 2000b, p. 17). The emphasis on high quality urban design in the West End regeneration is found in the document:

*Excellence in urban design, which integrates new transport systems and attractive public spaces, will bring massive investment in new forms from the private sector and Registered Social Landlord ... An urban design team is being established to work with community and coordinate the plans of key stakeholders (NCC, 2000b, pp. 16-17).*



Figure 6.5 An illustration for The New West End in *Going for Growth* (NCC, 2000b, p. 16),

The Urban Renaissance agenda highlighted the significance of master plans. The master plan for the West End was planned in accordance with the Urban Renaissance initiative. Richard Rogers Partnership and Andrew Wright Associates were appointed to undertake the draft Masterplan (NCC, 2000a) for the West End. The Draft Masterplan set a radical approach based on the vitality and viability analysis and population change:

*Our approach need to be radical .... New housing development needs to be large scale, joining up shopping, schools, transport and jobs and in a few area*



*will involve significant demolition. ... we need to change the housing mix (NCC, 2000a, p. 7).*

The Draft Masterplan set out the principle elements of future regeneration of the West End: clarify the community structure, a clear residential strategy, well-managed social structure, better transport linkages, employment opportunities and training initiatives, raising the quality of schooling, consolidate health and community provision, open space and recreational network, and an exciting urban invitation. The residential strategy for the West End focused on creating a better housing balance to support a more diverse population:

*To create a better balance we need to attract significant investment from the private housing and registered social landlord sectors, This will only occur if large-scale development sites can be identified (NCC, 2000a, p. 20).*

The possible actions for Scotswood suggested in the masterplan include the creation of a new urban village of 3000 homes, the development of a range of high quality housing, the development of social infrastructure, environmental improvements and increased provision of amenity open space (figure 6.6). The masterplan provided implications for the actions on Scotswood, to ensure that the housing needs of the remaining 1600 households are provided for, and to develop a phased programme over three years for relocations.

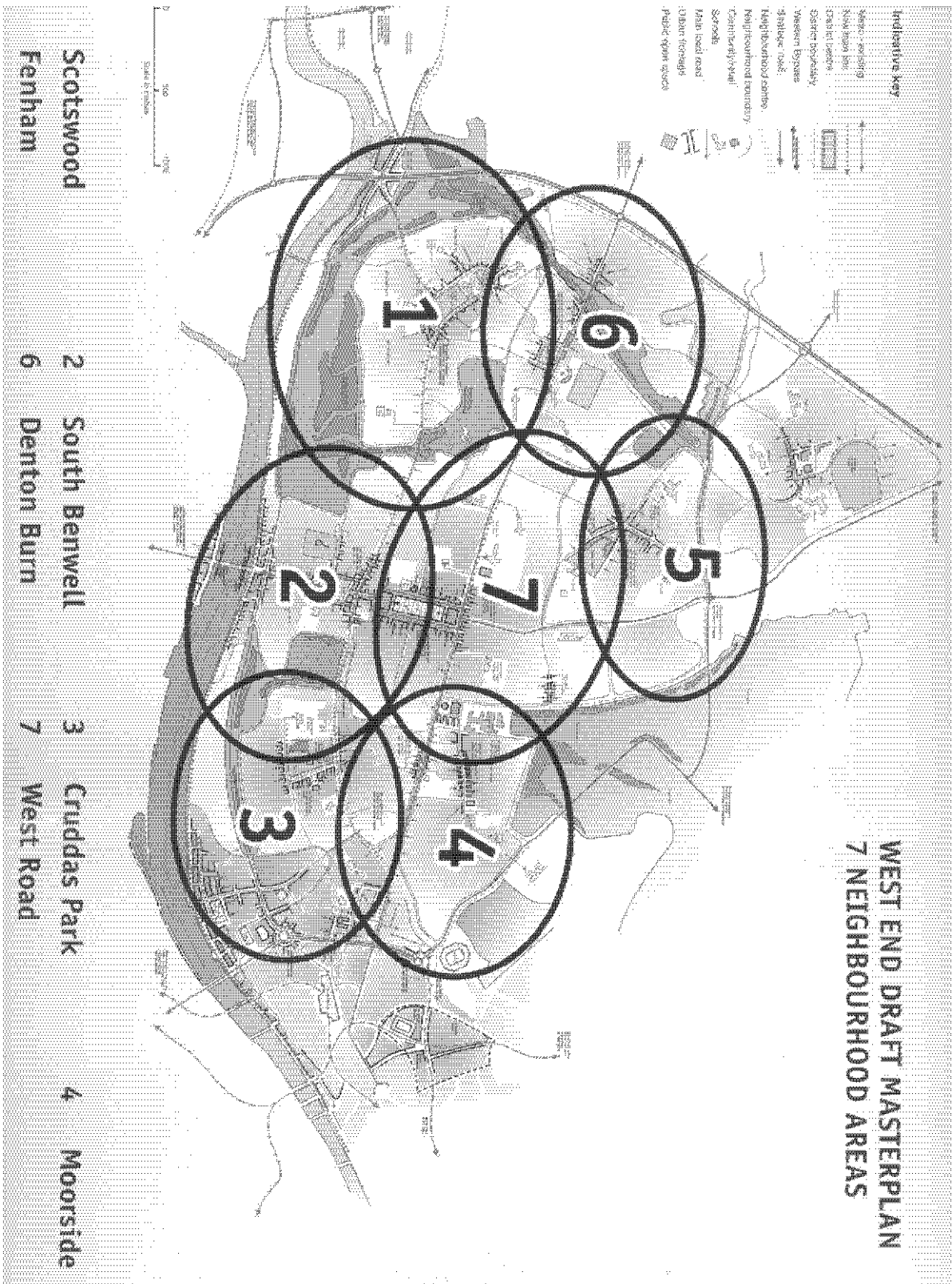


Figure 6.6 West End Draft Masterplan (source: NCC, 2000a); In this plan, seven neighbourhood areas were identified. The plan suggested to prepare a detailed masterplan for Scotswood area to create a new urban village of 3000 homes with a phased programme over three years for relocations.

A Regeneration Plan for the West End (2001), following the Draft Masterplan (2000), set out district-wide aims, targets and following key local actions for Scotswood and West Benwell:

- 1) Establish a regeneration partnership to prepare detailed plan for the area
- 2) Carry out surveys to find out peoples' views on the future of local housing areas where demand is low
- 3) Provide effective support for people and services as the area goes through major change (NCC, 2001, p. 42)

The plan also highlighted that the regeneration of Scotswood should provide a high quality mixed use environment.

### *6.3.2 The concept of the Scotswood Housing Expo*

HMR funding supported consolidated plans for the assembly of a 60 hectare site for redevelopment in Scotswood from 2003. A proposal of a Housing Expo in Scotswood was endorsed by the BNG Board. An allocation of funding was made within HMR programme for the preparation of the Masterplan and implementation plan. From 2004, proposals for the replacement housing offer in Scotswood were developed under the Housing Expo concept replacing the original urban village concept. The Scotswood Housing Expo idea was developed as a catalyst for urban regeneration in the West End of Newcastle. The Housing Expo concept in Scotswood regeneration was adopted as an innovative approach after a benchmarking exercise (RyderHKS, 2004) of north European Expos in October 2004. The benchmarking report set out the following key aims for an Expo in Newcastle:

- To bring new housing into the West End of the city
- To generate new sustainable market values
- To design more environmentally, sustainable housing pioneering new national standards
- To attract new housing designs giving the West End and the city and a new profile
- To create a new, balanced, integrated and sustainable community; and

- To learn lessons for the benefit of other regeneration and housing schemes (RyderHKS, 2004)

The report pointed out that the examples of successful housing Expos, including Hannover Housing Expo (Kronsberg, Germany) in 2000, Malmo Housing Expo<sup>3</sup> (Sweden) in 2001, and Stockholm Bo02 (Sweden) in 2002, have recognised the potential for a substantive legacy beyond the time scale of the event. The housing Expos aimed to exhibit international best practice and innovation; to incorporate a temporary exhibition attracting visitors; to raise the profile of the city and create new housing markets; and to leave a permanent physical legacy for the regeneration of parts of the city (RyderHKS, 2004). The aims were similarly reflected in the Scotswood Housing Expo idea as seen in the Invitation to Tender prepared by NCC in June 2005:

*A Housing Expo for Newcastle is an excellent opportunity to continue and further develop its renaissance as a dynamic and creative city. More importantly it is an exciting challenge to address urban decline and to regenerate a local neighbourhood and community through innovative approaches to urban living and development. The Expo is a real opportunity to stage a major cultural event attracting and inspiring hundreds of thousands of national and international visitors to the City, raising the City's national profile and changing perceptions*

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<sup>3</sup> Especially, Malmo Housing Expo was explained as a main bench marking case for the proposal of Scotswood Housing Expo as urban designer 1, when interviewed, pointed out. Malmo was once a major shipbuilding city but during the 1980's and 1990's it suffered a major decline in its economic fortunes, as traditional sectors of the economy declined. The regeneration strategy for the city included plans to transform the derelict docks by developing a new residential neighbourhood through the vehicle of a Housing Expo. The theme of the Expo was sustainability and the physical development the Expo was led by a strong, clear master plan, providing the framework within which design and development opportunities could be offered via competition. There was a total of seventeen developers and twenty-two development plots of different designs, providing a total of 356 dwellings.

The whole process was essentially 'design-led' with a 'brokering' of designers and developers after the designs have been chosen. Quality standards were established by a 'Developers Group, a tri-partite body made up of City Officials, Community Representatives and Developers. There were two major parts to the exhibition, the first was the addition of new housing, developed within existing market conditions. The second was the temporary exhibition that included aspects on the 'home' as diverse as garden design, artworks, through to 'interactive' carpets. The physical legacy of the Expo is impressive and is the start of creating a new 2,000 dwelling neighbourhood in the former docks. The Expo was held in 2001 and took five years in its planning and development. The temporary exhibition attracted over 500,000 visitors. The total public subsidy for site remediation and infrastructure was in the order of £18m. The Expo has been very successful at establishing strong values for the private sector stock, so much so that concerns have been raised about the 'exclusive' social mix now found in the area (RyderHKS, 2004;NCC, 2005) .

*of Scotswood and the West End of the city. Its physical legacy will establish new standards of development and act as a catalyst for the regeneration of the West End, addressing long term housing market failure and creating new sustainable communities.* (Project Development Manager, in NCC, 2005a)

The organisation of the project management team for the Scotswood Housing Expo included a project development manager who provides the coordination of work streams, and lead consultants who were planned to be appointed separately for each work stream. A lead artist was planned to be involved in the design team to create local identity and a sense of place. The Scotswood Housing Expo project was planned to be managed into three core work streams: 1) physical master plan, 2) implementation plan, and 3) marketing and event management. The suggested work plan stages for the *physical Master Plan core work stream* outlined the process of urban design for the Scotswood Housing Expo:

- 1) Work plan stage one includes undertaking a scoping exercise to determine the site, scale, density, tenure mix, infrastructure, access and temporary events/exhibition space for an Expo together with future development phases; to explore best practice for sustainable development, sustainable communities and its application to the Expo; and to prepare a detailed Project Development Brief.
- 2) Work plan stage two includes to undertake an options analysis, to explore options for various sustainable housing design themes within the Expo and options for sub division; to contribute to appraising the viability of each option and the analysis of delivery mechanisms; to undertake a community and stakeholder consultation exercise; and to develop a draft Master Plan.
- 3) Work plan stage three includes to refine the preferred option and to prepare a Master Plan, and to support the adoption of the Master Plan.
- 4) Work plan stage four includes to prepare a Regulatory Framework to deliver design quality, and to lead on the preparation of detailed designs and costs (NCC, 2005a).

For the implementation stage, work plan stages five, six, and seven require the planning or urban design team to lead on the project management and procurement of contractors to implement the infrastructure and environmental work and the public realm and communal area works, to prepare detailed development briefs and advice on the procurement of development partners and design teams, to appraise submitted individual development scheme designs, and to lead the management and coordination of the implementation and construction programme between development partners (NCC, 2005a). In order to procure an innovative design of the Housing Expo, the benchmarking report by RyderHKS (2004) suggested a number of different routes - design competitions, commissions of high profile architects with strong reputation, and design and build competitions.

### ***6.3.3 Scotswood Masterplan and design competition***

In 2006, NCC in association with BNG commissioned Urban Initiatives, a planning consultant, to develop a Masterplan for Scotswood (figure 6.7). The Scotswood Masterplan (Urban Initiatives, 2007) set out the following main concepts or objectives that were developed in response to the site: *new identity* to transform the image of Scotswood; *new neighbourhood* to create a sense of place; *new norm* referring to setting higher standards - a normative approach – to deliver quality volume housing; and *the civic play*, a programme of cultural and public arts associated with the physical masterplan to deliver early and ongoing change.

The second part of the Masterplan set out a series of six inter-related development frameworks setting out design strategies. Each framework contained performance standards to establish the development quality. The six development frameworks included the following urban design considerations for Scotswood regeneration:

- 1) Character: a place with a distinct identity. The Masterplan aims to create a distinctive new neighbourhood and this Framework establishes character areas to create a new sense of identity.

- 2) Land Use and Community: creating a sustainable neighbourhood. The redevelopment of Scotswood will be housing led, but will also include various mixed-use elements. This Framework sets out the quantum of planned development, including the balance and mix of dwelling typologies and tenure with the focus on family homes of 3 and 4 bedroom houses meeting Life Time Homes standards. There is a requirement for 25% affordable housing.
- 3) Urban form: network of streets, blocks and plots. The structure of the Masterplan is derived from the key elements of public streets, development blocks and housing plots and which are well connected to the surrounding neighbourhood. This Framework sets out design guidance for the development in terms of layout, scale, massing and appearance along with dwelling space standards.
- 4) Connections: improved movement and access. This Framework sets out the movement strategy, the hierarchy and function of streets together with public transport and parking provision. It proposes a number of hard and soft measures to improve accessibility and encourages travel by sustainable modes.
- 5) Public Life: quality of streets, public realm and parks. This Framework sets out design guidance for the hierarchy of streets, spaces, parks to establish an overall consistent design approach, but one which will achieve variety through creating defined character areas, adding richness and local interest to the neighbourhood.
- 6) Resources: use of energy, water, waste and materials. This Framework sets out the environmental targets for the development. All residential development will achieve a minimum of Code for Sustainable Homes Level 4 for phase 1 and 2 and Code for Sustainable Homes Level 6 for phases 3 to 5. The non-residential buildings will be required to meet BREEAM Excellent standards. (Urban Initiatives, 2007)



Figure 6.7 The Scotswood Expo masterplan (Source: Urban Initiatives, 2007); This Masterplan suggested housing led schemes which involves a range of demonstration housing types and the delivery of a major new housing led mixed use scheme. The house types range from one bed apartments to five bedroom houses, with a mix of types and phasing. In the plan, 2,300 sq m of retail floorspace, 3,000 sq m of commercial floorspace, 900 sq m of community floorspace were suggested.



Figure 6.8 Illustrations of Scotswood Expo (Source: Urban Initiatives, 2007); In the masterplan, the new neighbourhood at Scotswood was designed to transform the negative image of Scotswood. The quality of streets and public realm was highlighted to achieve variety through creating defined character areas, adding richness and local interest to the neighbourhood.



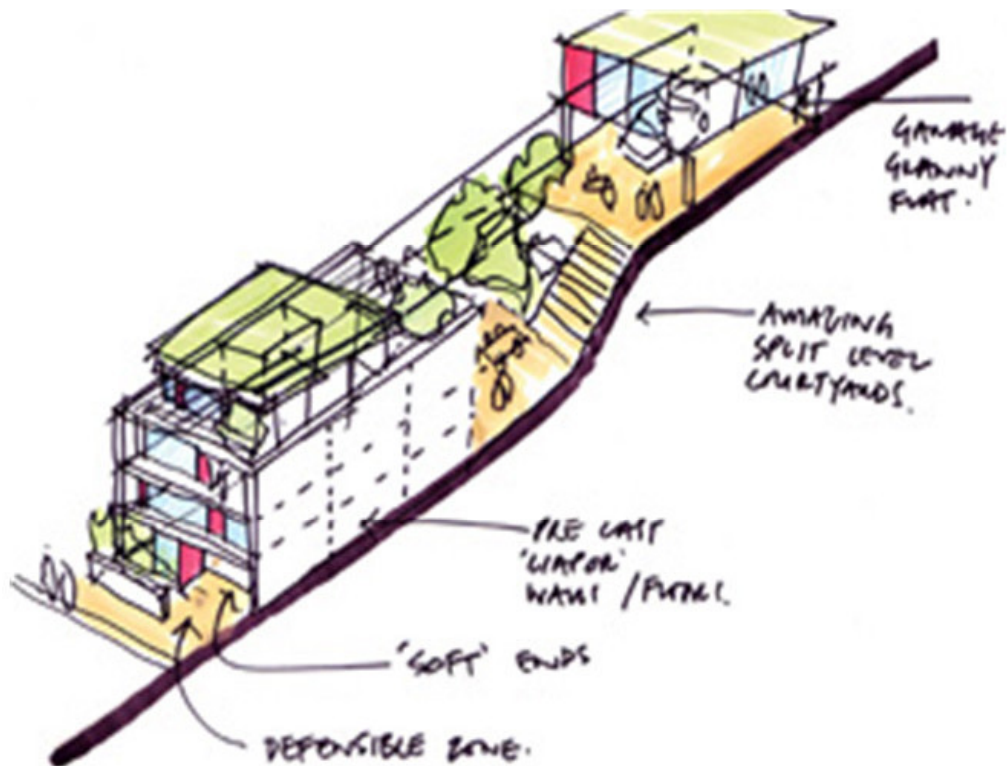


Figure 6.9 Artist's impression of Expo Link (Source: Urban Initiatives, 2007); At the centre of the Expo, the masterplan suggested a new set of terraced gardens (the Expo Link), a redesigned and refocused Hodgkin Park and linear park along Hadrian's Way forming part of a wider green space network. The landscape concept was designed to demonstrate adaptability to the changing needs of the local community and provide a tableau for their hopes, dreams and memories.

The Scotswood Expo Architectural Competition, aiming to select six design teams to develop innovative housing designs which respond to the challenges of environmental sustainability, adaptability, new ways of living, was run by the Royal Institute of British Architects (RIBA) in 2008. The six winners of the Scotswood Expo Architectural Competition were selected.

#### ***6.3.4 Benwell Scotswood Area Action Plan***

NCC and BNG commissioned a policy framework, an Area Action Plan for Scotswood. The AAP provided a strategic regeneration and development framework for the development of Benwell and Scotswood over the plan period to 2021. The AAP was developed with two stages: setting the Preferred Options Report (NCC, 2006c) was the

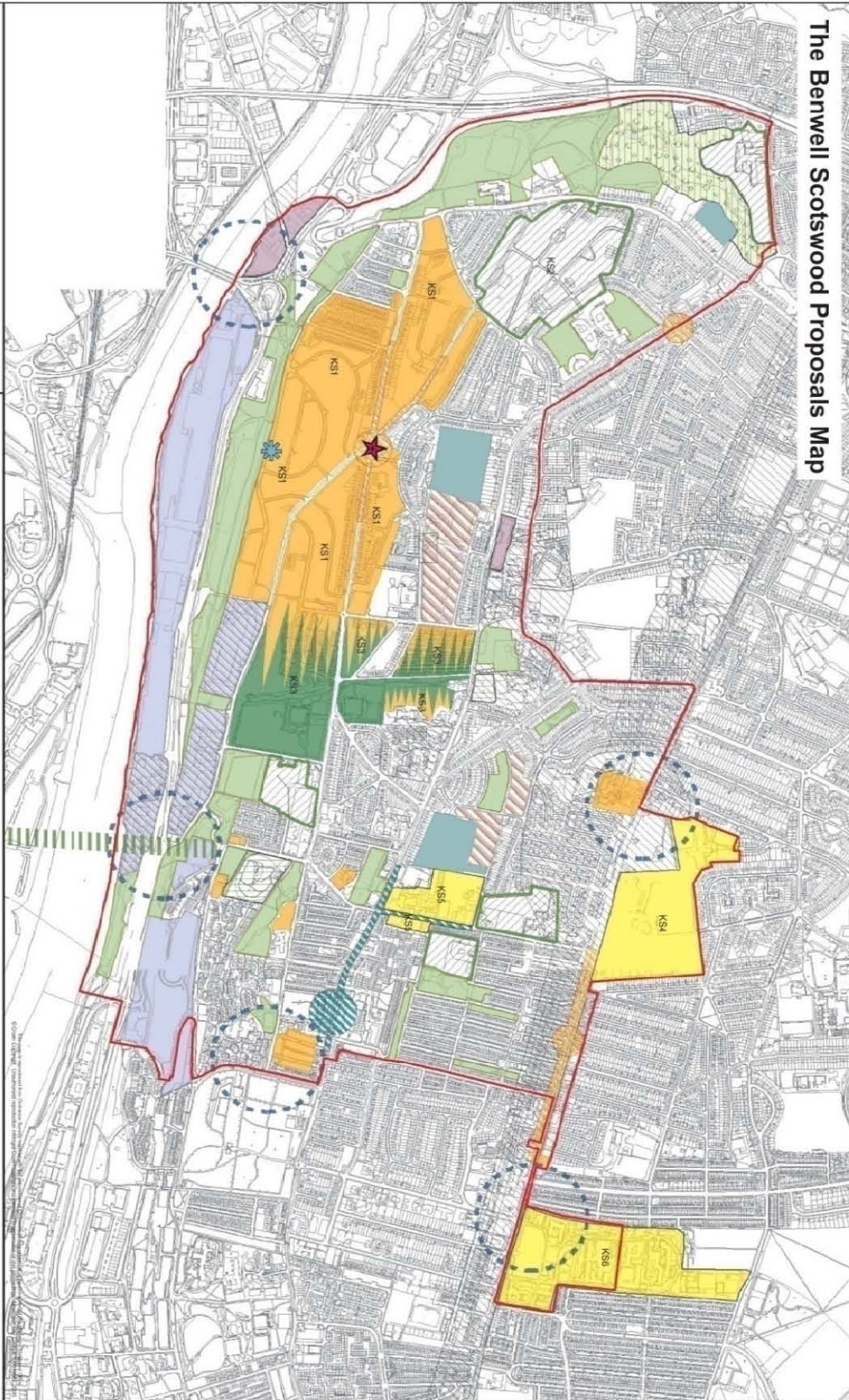
first stage in the preparation of the AAP and it set out NCC's proposed policy direction for consultation; and the drafting and publication of the final version of the AAP was the second stage. The Preferred Options Report and the results of the consultation informed the final AAP (NCC, 2009a).

The Preferred Options Report (2006) was divided into three sections. Section one provided an overview of the existing situation in Benwell and Scotswood and different growth options developed for the area. Four different growth options were considered: Option A-Stabilisation (Net additional dwellings taking account of clearance: -161), Option B-Progression (+589), Option C-Transformation (+1,379), and Option D-Re-invention (+1,839). The preferred option was C- transformation or family plus. Thematic policy options to deliver a diversity of housing type, tenure and affordability levels on the basis of the development capacities – Option A (alternative): assumes ratio of 75% full cost market housing and 25% subsidised home ownership, Option B (preferred): assumes ratio of 75% full costing market housing; 10% social rented; 15 subsidised home ownership, Option C: assumes ration of 60% full cost, market housing, 25% social rented, 15% subsidised home ownership - were also considered. With the preferred option B in 'Policy H3: Achieving affordability and tenure balance', NCC aimed to ensure that 25% of the proposed housing provision in additional homes will be affordable, including a minimum of 10% for rent from a social landlord. On sites comprising 25 dwellings or over the Council will negotiate a level of affordable housing that helps to achieve this target.

Section two detailed the preferred policies and provided links to the evidence base upon which the policies were formulated; and Section Three outlined the neighbourhood and site specific proposals. Regarding Scotswood, identified as key site 1, the AAP set out key principles and features as policy 'KS1', which the Masterplan for Scotswood Expo should include. A neighbourhood strategy for *New Scotswood* as 'N4' suggested spatial strategies and interventions, including the Housing Expo idea and urban design guidelines for new development in Scotswood. The Neighbourhood Strategy emphasised long term aspirations for the establishment of a new neighbourhood and identified the following objectives:

- To transform the image of Scotswood through new development of the highest quality and innovation
- To intensify development in the area in the long term to provide additional catchment for facilities and services
- To retain families within the area to allow the initial change of the Expo to be consolidated into a stable community by providing a range of attractive, adaptable housing types with low impact on the environment (NCC, 2006c, p.135)

# The Benwell Scotswood Proposals Map



## BENWELL SCOTSWOOD AAP Proposals Map Preferred Option

EDMW | AECOM

18/09/06

Key	
	Alignments
	Area Reserved For Industrial Use
	Area of Countryside Character
	District Centre
	Neighbourhood Centre
	District Park
	Educational Establishment With Attached Open Space
	Employment Space
	Employment Space With Significant Open Space
	Housing Development
	Housing Development With Significant Open Space
	Improved Gateways
	Mixed Use
	Indicative Alignment of New Tyne Crossing
	Open Space
	Site Or Area Of Archaeological Interest
	Site of Local Conservation Interest
	Site of Nature Conservation Importance
	Area of Search for Potential New School
	Expo Access & Pavilion
	Plan Boundary

Figure 6.10 Proposals map of the Preferred Option (source: NCC, 2006c); This option includes 'New Scotswood' strategy which highlights long term aspirations for the establishment of a new neighbourhood beyond the short/medium-term priorities of changing the image through the Housing Expo.

The objective of the final AAP (2009) was to set out the policy framework and the spatial plan that act as the key delivery vehicle for regeneration in Scotswood and Benwell to 2021. The final AAP was structured in three parts. The first part briefly set the scene; the second part addressed key challenges; the third part focused on delivery and implementation of regeneration. In its first part, the AAP introduced the planning policy context; recognised characteristics, key challenges and opportunity of the Scotswood-Benwell area; and outlined aims, vision, objectives and strategic policies. The vision of Scotswood was set out as a “family friendly area that will successfully compete with other parts of the city and region, which is characterised by distinctive neighbourhoods and sustainable communities that are built to last and will support economic growth” (NCC, 2009a, p. 14). The vision with objectives was accompanied by strategic policies which identified a spatial strategic approach to guide future developments in ‘Strategic Policy 1’ and provided approach to deliver sustainable development in ‘Strategic Policy 2’.

In the second part, the AAP organized the five themes of policies on challenges of the area. 1) *Securing housing market* focused on promoting housing choice, promoting an affordable, balanced housing ladder, and providing homes for all lifestyles. 2) The *education and employment* policies would promote schools as key drivers of transformation by provision of new educational opportunities; promote economic growth by the redevelopment of an employment area; support mixed use development; and contribute toward secure training and employment opportunities. 3) The *shops and services* policies focused on developing a network of shops and services, making a qualitative improvement in convenience shopping by providing new retail development and convenience store, and providing the social infrastructure for sustainable communities. 4) The *environment and culture* would be improved by policies which focused on providing balanced open space, utilising waterways for open space, protecting and enhancing culture and heritage, and developing culture and heritage. 5) The *accessibility and connectivity* would be improved by policies on creating a strong street hierarchy, transforming public transport, and making walking and cycling easier, and proposing a new Tyne river crossing.

The last part dealt with the delivery structure for the regeneration strategy. Five key priority sites, and key principles for the keys sites, were identified. ‘Scotswood Development Area’ was identified as one of the five key sites of priority. The following key principles were set out in ‘Policy KS1’ for Scotswood Development Area:

- Creation of a new urban neighbourhood, which will include an international exposition as its first phase, to transform the image of Scotswood at a city and regional scale
- Delivery of all the elements of a successful neighbourhood so as achieve a step change in the social and economic opportunities for the area
- Establishment of a new benchmark in the UK for the design and delivery of volume housing
- Integration of the new development into the existing neighbourhood, in terms of physical connections, community development and benefits, open space and ecological strategy, and design which responds to its context
- Creation of a well connected neighbourhood based on a network of streets that encourages people to move around on foot, bicycle and public transport
- Delivery of an inclusive, diverse and safe public realm and landscape, that complements the quality of the buildings and meets open space needs
- The use of artists to enhance the design and character of the development as part of a cultural programme
- Creation of a range of education, shopping (SS3), cultural, employment and healthy living opportunities (NCC, 2009a, p. 53)

The framework also focused on recommending developer contributions in Public Private Partnerships, delivering regeneration at the local level, and setting out funding and delivery of objectives. The framework thus set out a series of indicators and possible targets in relation to objectives and policies for monitoring and review.

The neighbourhood approach for Scotswood, which was included in appendix six in the AAP, suggested design guidelines related to urban design in Scotswood as follows:-

- All development will be guided by the need to improve the image of the area.
- Flexibility in terms of the design, massing and scale of residential development is required to meet varying housing requirements.
- Pedestrian and vehicle links will be established to existing neighbourhoods and key destinations to the north and east.
- There should be strong and attractive frontages along Armstrong Road and Woodstock Road.
- The neighbourhood should support the open space framework for the wider Plan area. (NCC, 2009a, pp. 126-127)

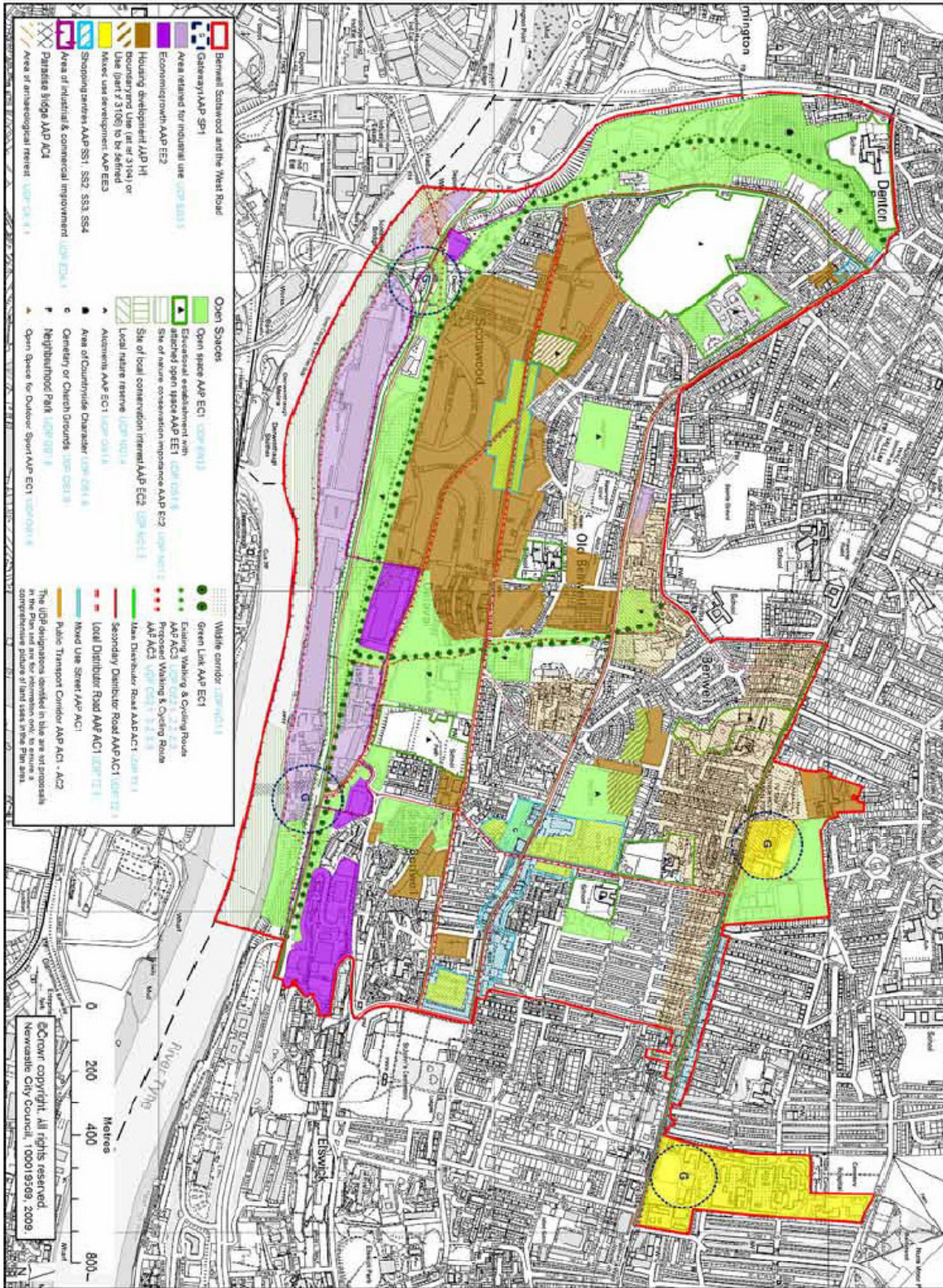


Figure 6.11 Benwell Scotswood Area Action Plan: Proposals map (source: NCC, 2009a); In the Plan, the provision of 2,200 additional homes planned to be located mainly in Scotswood was expected to be allocated over the Plan period until 2021. Housing policy in the Plan emphasises ‘achieving tenure choice and diversity (Policy H2)’ and promoting ‘choice of housing types (Policy H3)’.



### 6.3.6 Implementation and management

Housing Market Renewal funding was used for the assembly of a redevelopment site including the acquisition of 427 houses, 1,256 demolition works, house relocation, and remediation work in Scotswood. After delay in the process to form a URV with the economic downturn, a consortium consisting of private housing development companies (Baratt, Keepmoat and Yuill) was selected as the preferred bidder in May 2010. However, the discontinuity of HMR funding after 2010 has affected the implementation of new housing development because of the doubt of a public sector funding package of over £60m which was agreed by the HCA, BNG and NCC prior to 2010. Preparation works were delayed, but Scotswood remediation works has been started from September 2010 by Galliford Try, a construction group, with a £18.8m contract of NCC. Scotswood URV reached financial close in Feb 2011, ensuring start on site by end of 2011.



Figure 6.5 The preparation works in Scotswood Development area (source: [www.GallyfordTry.co.uk](http://www.GallyfordTry.co.uk))

Despite the close of BNG in April 2011 with the end of HMR funding, a report by BNG (2011) underlined remaining strong stakeholder support and a need to provide support to communities:

*Aspects of the funding package, such as funding for affordable housing from the HCA, are now in doubt, but there is strong stakeholder support and partners remain closer to realising the redevelopment of the area than at any point in the past. There will be a continuing need to provide support to communities during the process of redevelopment (p.19).*

It would be too early to discuss about the stage of management in urban regeneration/urban design within Scotswood regeneration. However, officer 1 in BNG, when asked about the management of the built environment in the post-production stage, provided general comments on the management and maintenance of urban design beyond development:

*Well, I came from a background in regeneration where it was designed for abandonment. You build something and really you designed it so you would never have to go back again and touch it, because local authorities or whoever don't have the money for on-going management and maintenance. That's not the case here, one of our key principles, in terms of when I am reviewing designs is to make sure that what's been put in can be maintained, so making sure that you have materials which can be, you know, easily sourced, yes you can put in the detailing, but if you are putting detailing, make sure it last for fifty years as opposed to a five years life span, and things like that. That's one of the key things that we look at to make sure that what we do is sustainable in the long term from a maintaining standpoint. But again, it's a bit like the bricks and mortar issue, you look at bricks and mortar and go: 'Yep, that will last a good length of time; but it relies on neighbourhood management too (Officer 1 in BNG, 2010).*

Officer 1 in BNG was also concerned about pressure on the public sector's funding for neighbourhood management and emphasised local people's behavioural support for the management:

*The one problem is, I think I have to be honest with you is, increasingly, there has been a pressure on public sector revenue funding for neighbourhood management and things like that and trying to mainstream it under local budget is absolutely central because it's part of our works to ensure that it happens, but there has to be a legacy, after we've been gone on the pathfinder programme, there has to be the legacy of on-going neighbourhood for years to be come, to make sure that the stability and the cohesion which maybe we know comes at the outset is maintained for a longer period of time, and I think you know, I am a great believer, I have faith in people and I think if you put in that investment at the early stages, Ok you are going to have to probably go on beyond the lifetime of the project, something like neighbourhood warden and things like that. But you might get to a point where those areas, the culture has changed, and people have that oh I don't want to drop litter out in the back lane; if I have bulky refuse to take away, I wouldn't fly tip it, I want the environment people to arrange a time for them to come and collect it. Hopefully you do reach at point where neighbourhood are far more sustainable and normally self regulated. People have higher aspiration for their quality of life and for the quality of place (Officer 1 in BNG, 2010).*

#### **6.4 Community engagement in the process of Scotswood regeneration**

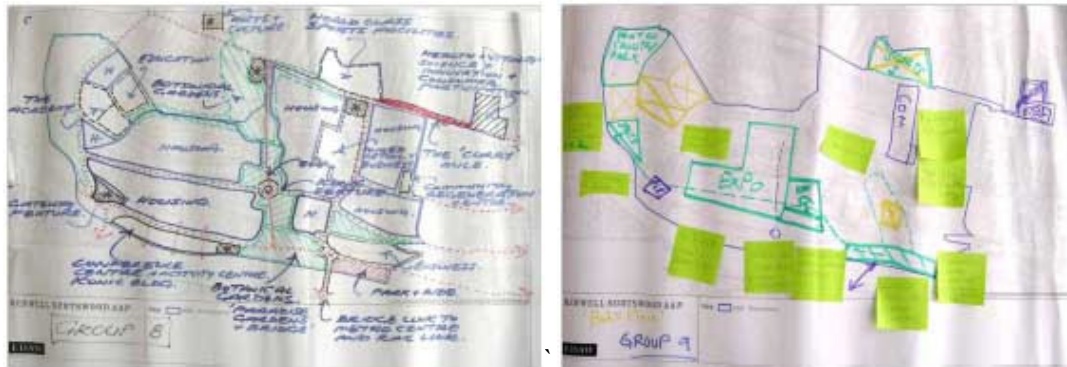
The consultation strategy for Benwell Scotswood AAP (NCC, 2006b) set out the principles of consultation as inclusiveness, local consultation within a wider exercise, feedback, maximum opportunities, maximum publicity, responsiveness, encouraging involvement, equal opportunities, and building an effective and long-term communication network. A consultation exercise, called 'One Big Week', was commenced in 2006 to obtain information concerning what people felt about where they live (NCC, 2006d). Newsletters, a postal survey with 650 responses, flyer, publication in the local press, and posters were used for the consultation event. A 'Big Ideas Bus'

was used for this purpose and over 160 people discussed their ideas with the consultation team. Feedbacks from residents was collected in three ways at the bus, by completing a postal survey, by telling what should happen to potential development sites through a mapping exercise - using map tokens and 'One Big Plan' - and by telling what things they would especially like to see in the area - an exercise called 'One Big Idea' (figure 6.9).



Figure 6.6 One Big Idea map (source: NCC, 2006d); In the Scotswood/Armstrong road area, a desire to retain some of the open spaces created by demolition and the need to create a community in the area with the necessary community facilities – things for young people, shops, health facilities- were reflected. Interestingly, very few residents identified any of the potential development sites for new employment developments. This result suggests that residents in Scotswood and Benwell, although keen to see jobs created in the area, see these largely confined to existing employment areas, or to smaller scale job creation through shops and less obviously business developments.

Three stakeholder workshops which were held in April, 2006 were a part of the consultation. Some community representatives were involved in the three stakeholder workshops. In the workshops, a series of presentations and group discussions about issues on negatives, problems, positives, opportunities and strengths of the area, and the vision were structured. The collective ideas of a spatial vision for the area were also discussed in each group of participants (figure 6.10).



**Figure 6.7** Examples of ideas for a spatial Action plan for Scotswood and Benwell in the stakeholder workshops (source: NCC, 2006a); Each of 10 groups including 85 individuals jointly produced a spatial Action plan. Although each of groups outlined a different detailed vision, a common theme was the need to differentiate Scotswood and Benwell from other areas of Newcastle. Many stakeholder, while anxious to see new people move into the area, were equally anxious that the area not simply be another bland new development or that the new areas become another “Yuppieville on Tyneside”.

In developing the preferred options of the AAP, asking community feedback on alternative options was used in the statutory consultation. From December 2006, an eight-week statutory period of consultation commenced to allow people the opportunity to comment on the proposed transformation spatial options for the AAP. Some recurring themes in the responses were expressed by respondents from all categories with a wide variety of views. For example, general comments on the draft AAP ranged from those who see it as *a useful document* to those who think it could *lead to disaster* (Planning Aid North, 2007).

## 6.5 Discussion

### *6.5.1 The role of urban design in Scotswood*

Interviews revealed that there is a controversial gap in views of different stakeholders (especially, between BNG and local communities) on the role of urban design in Scotswood regeneration.

#### *NCC's and BNG's views*

Providing high quality urban design was emphasised in Scotswood regeneration. For example, a study titled 'Value in Design' carried out for BNG in 2009 suggested that the pathfinder should use public sector funding to provide high quality urban design with 1) focusing development on placemaking, investing in place and public realm, 2) delivering high quality, well designed homes, 3) investing in the right design team including appropriate specialists, and 4) creating a clear vision that is shared by the whole development partnership. With the emphasis on high quality urban design, urban design seems to be considered to play an important role in regeneration of Scotswood for Housing Market Renewal. From the viewpoint of NCC and BNG, innovation in design quality was needed in Scotswood to compete effectively with other housing areas throughout the sub-region including locations, costs and design trends to counter the negative perceptions and stigma of the area. In order to transform the image of Scotswood, a design-led Housing Expo as an innovative approach was suggested as a tool to challenge the stereotypes of the area, to help to make the area integrated with the wider community, to project a positive, aspirational image, to generate better market values, and to create 'a fresh start' (Urban Initiatives, 2007). The design-led approach with a Housing Expo event was expected to promote the potential of Scotswood to act as a catalyst for the regeneration in the West End and to provide physical legacy with a combination of strategic infrastructure and opportunities for iconic development (RyderHKS, 2004; NCC, 2005; NCC, 2006). The design-led Housing Expo also aimed to raise the profile of the city at the wider level with changing perceptions and attracting new residents, visitors and investment through an international event, as an interviewee (Urban designer 1) pointed out with some explanation of exemplary Housing Expos like a Housing Expo in Malmo, Sweden in 2001.

From the viewpoint of BNG, the roles of urban design in Scotswood regeneration were closely related to the aims of HMR programme to tackle low demand housing, improve quality and choice, and develop a robust basis for building sustainable communities. Officer 1 in BNG commented that urban design plays a central role in BNG's activities about raising quality and improving standards:

*Central to our activities is providing improved housing choice and quality in our areas. Now that comes in two ways ... One of them is the qualities of the housing products, how big is it, how does it look, how does it perform from an environmental point of view. But the other thing, and this is the more important element, is about the whole place, the public realm, the quality of streetscapes, quality of open spaces, and complementary to that, it is also about providing services, retail commercial, leisure, community facilities as part of that overall package to ensure that we end up with cohesive and sustainable communities. One of the problems has been in many of our areas that infrastructure behind the housing has not necessarily been there, We are very much committed to what's called the whole place or total place solution.*

*So as far as urban design is concerned, it is absolutely central to our activities, it's about raising quality and improving standards. ... our design standards are for both new builds and refurbishments and they are aligned to the Homes and Communities Agency standards. It makes absolute sense, some of us worked on both sides of the fence, public and the private sector. ... (So as I say, absolute key to our activities.) ... But again, the design has been very much at the centre, to the point where the City Council provided the Scotswood Master Plan ... a very detailed document setting out a whole raft of standards, design, and sustainability, street patterns, etc (Officer 1 in BNG, 2010).'*

### **Other viewpoints**

However, some interviewees argued that the highly esteemed role of urban design has not properly worked for the aims of the project. A mismatch between the role of urban design in relation to communities and the practice of urban design in Scotswood was pointed out by urban designer 1:



*The urban design role was highly esteemed. ... but recently, it does not work properly. I think it is because designers have been treated as people who draw rather than the people who are interested in communities and think differently and worked differently. ...What's happened? The Housing Expo, the competition, was an interesting thing but people judging a competition in public particularly didn't have a kind of theme of capacity building. ...they are judging on the basis of visual effects again. ...It might be better picking designers on their ability to develop a dialogue (Urban designer 1, 2010).*

Urban designer 1 was also concerned that urban design in the design competition was separated from budget issues and the housing standard which people who are looking for living in Scotswood could afford:

*But, it undermines the questions at the present. We haven't built any of them. We are in a very uncertainty situation, because they were all too big; the sizes are too big, the cost weren't considered in the competition.... We picked an urban design process in a competition as a linear process, we took designs that ignored what staff considered sustainable designs in reality and pricing ... In the competition, we separated design from financing and the space standards. Probably most importantly, a lot of sustainability is about the manufacturing process. ... yet in the competition, this was completely ignored ... It was just a competition which chose the best visuals. Probably, it picked architects who do the best visuals rather than architects who understand a manufacturing design process and pricing behind the market (Urban designer 1, 2010).*

The urban designer also pointed out there is a weakness in setting publicly- controlled standards for better design quality because there is no competition between developers. As he underlined, a more effective way of controlling standards would keeping public control in Scotswood regeneration by holding land assets, and by keeping competition between developers as long as possible:

*One, the public sector should retain land ownership as soon as possible, not just because we have the potential to benefit from that and reinvest the profit. The public sector has to control the land because you can't achieve qualities for those who are in need. ... So, urban design – as regulation by the local authority – can't force people to do anything really. I think it is really engaged for minimum standards. But, the public sector has to retain ownership of the land and assets. Certainly it can seek to control the quality. A really basic principle on any design process is that if you lose your control of the after use of your buildings, there is nothing you can do to force people to maintain your low-carbon buildings or whatever standards you favour. Second point is, on top of land ownership, that you have to maintain competition as long as possible in the process. And comparatively, in the Malmo's example, they had a competition between 25 developers on the same site at the same time. They are competing for better quality. ... In the process of Scotswood, we were looking for single developer to work with us. It actually means there would be no competition (Urban designer 1, 2010).*

Local people were aware of the role of urban design in improving the environment around the place where they live. There was no doubt that local residents generally agreed that Scotswood needs to transform perceptions and the image of the area. As an example, as found in opinions expressed through public consultation and stakeholder workshops in 2006, many residents in Scotswood aspired to see their area rebuilt, with priority on creating new local shops and local facilities in the area. The aspirations of local residents were related to improving their liveability in Scotswood. The ideas and opinions of local people, from public consultation and stakeholder workshops in 2006, reflected their needs and their vision which could be achieved or provided through urban design for Scotswood regeneration. One local resident, for example, suggested the vision that Scotswood “should be a safe, green, well-connected place for people to live, with room for families to grow”. Another stated that “Scotswood should benefit from dramatic views over the Tyne and loads of green and open space to enjoy and undertake healthy exercise in” (NCC, 2006a). One important point is that the visions from local residents were about Scotswood as *their* living place.

It is likely that many local residents do not think that Scotswood regeneration will benefit them. From stakeholder workshops in 2006, local residents considered the Scotswood Expo idea as ‘just an idea’; they were also concerned that “it will achieve little without improving other areas alongside it” (NCC, 2006). An interviewee, when asked to comment on the role of urban design and Scotswood masterplan, questioned whether urban design is closely connected with local communities.

*I don't know any role of urban design for local communities. ... The masterplan is just hope (and) just dreams. ... It is not about the vision for local people, but investment for developers. But it looks good, it may look great on the surface (Community representative 1, 2010).*

### **6.5.2 Community engagement in Scotswood regeneration**

An interviewee in BNG, when asked about community engagement in the HMR pathfinder programme and Scotswood regeneration, commented that local residents were involved in decision making both in the strategic level and in smaller schemes in the HMR area including Scotswood.

*Newcastle is now set up in terms of this area of governance. This works in the kind of strategic level, and when we are doing smaller master plans and things like that, residents are again included on those steering groups, and master planning. There was a greater involvement of residents as well. These schemes are sometimes smaller public realm schemes, with engaging communities to help them to form their design, we often have artists working with the community to reflect their aspirations. So, there is, you know in a strategic level, yes, on a smaller project level, yes, people do have very strong influence on how those projects and schemes are developed (Officer in BNG, 2010).*

However, there were negative responses of local residents to the consultations in Scotswood regeneration. As a report by Planning Aid North (2007) on observations on the engagement processes pointed out:

*However it was not all good and positive news. There were some negative comments too. Feelings of distrust, disinterest and cynicism; the system being too technical with red tape; people feeling they are not being listened to and consequently, feeling frustrated, frustrated too that they had heard it all before. Not everyone is interested and it is not possible to please everyone all the time. There is some concern amongst groups that 'engagement' is trying to achieve several aims - raising awareness, providing a good service and, where possible, giving satisfaction to participants - and so need to be measured in these terms. On a more general point there is concern of the sheer wave of consultations may result in fatigue and confusion with the number of opportunities that individuals now have to engage with the planning system (Planning Aid North, 2007).*

It is likely that opposition to the mass demolition of social housing remained strong and widespread in Scotswood. For the majority of residents, an inevitable consequence was frustration and refusal to be involved in the Scotswood regeneration process. As the urban designer commented about a lack of local people's support for Scotswood regeneration:

*No people were involved in the beginning; nobody talked. And they expected a few rather than a large amount of demolition. So, the problem for Scotswood regeneration was people's support (Urban designer 1, 2010).*

It is likely that local residents' experience from the history of failed regenerations affected their high level of *consultation fatigue* in Scotswood. A consultation paper in 2006 also reported that "especially given the high level of 'consultation fatigue' reported in the area, the extensive previous consultation and the disaffection and scepticism some residents have with 'consultation' and 'regeneration'" (NCC, 2006b, p. 11). At one stakeholder workshop in February, 2006, some local people commented that

consultation events have taken place in the past and have not been followed up by delivery or results and argued that “previous attempts have ignored the underlying social problems and made no attempt to tackle them” (NCC, 2006a).

It seems that there was a lack of opportunity for local residents to be involved in decision making because of a top-down approach of the urban design process. As the community representative criticised community engagement in terms of uneven power in decision making:

*It is impossible to be actively involved. This is for them; this is their project. They organized consultation and talked to their people, gave them information. ... Consultations were very narrow. I think it is involvement for the matters which they want to use us for what they want to do. ... They don't give chances to give some power to local people in decision making because it's market driven. So, there is never any chance because it's not about the community. ...the community has no power. I don't think they had any consensus with the community. ... Community engagement was completely managed by them (Community representative 1, 2010).*

From the interviews, the tension from the top-down approach in Scotswood regeneration focused on the ‘mistrust’ in the process of Scotswood regeneration. As the urban designer commented:

*Probably, there was no trust. Building trust is a big element to get visible understanding in the design process coming from those sharing experiences, skills and knowledge. ...But, there was mistrust in Scotswood and there was not enough trust building (Urban designer 1, 2010).*

A community representative argued that the opportunity for community involvement was limited and passive for most local people. Although BNG has residents’ panels including a steering group and a working group, community representative 1 was still

concerned about the representativeness of panel members. He also criticised the community engagement of Scotswood regeneration, with a question on capacity building.

*They don't give any resources to communities. They think the community doesn't opt to do anything. ... The Council doesn't do any capacity building. Council staffs don't believe local people have capacity and aspirations. They want to control everything. ... The capacity should be balanced. The balance starts from listening to other's voices. They don't want to listen. The City Council does not listen to anything. It's not capacity building. ... People think people might get to be involved. But they are liars (Community representative 1, 2010).*

Also, the uncertainty of timescale on the implementation of urban regeneration seems to increase the feelings of distrust and cynicism of local communities on Scotswood regeneration.

## Chapter 7 Case study 3: Walker regeneration

### 7.1 Urban regeneration in Walker

Walker Riverside is a residential area which lies nearly three miles east of the city centre of Newcastle upon Tyne and contains approximately 6,600 properties. The area's population declined with a fall of over 40% between 1971 and 2001. BNG (2005) analysed the local housing market with oversupply of social rented housing as a key factor influencing the decline<sup>1</sup>. Walker has consistently ranked highly on deprivation indices<sup>2</sup>, and suffered the loss of a number of local shops and services from the area. With low levels of skills and income, high unemployment and poor access to jobs and services, residents of Walker Riverside have become increasingly excluded from the facilities taken for granted by the majority of Newcastle's residents.



Figure 7.1 Aerial photograph of the Western Walker Riverside (source: Walker Riverside AAP (NCC, 2007, p. 6)

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<sup>1</sup> 73% of homes in Walker Riverside are social rented, with owner occupation at 22% (NCC, 2007, Walker Riverside: Area Action Plan).

<sup>2</sup> In 2000, the Walker ward rated highest of all wards in the city and thirtieth worst of all the wards in England against the 2000 Index of Multiple Deprivation.

NCC identified the East End of Newcastle upon Tyne including Walker as an area in need of regeneration in its vision paper, Going for Growth in 2000. In 2001 NCC sought a developer partner for regeneration in the East End. Places for People (PfP), the development arm of North British Housing, was appointed as strategic regeneration partner. The PfP consortium won a contract to develop 61 ha of the Walker Riverside district into mixed use urban environment (In 2011, the agreement giving PfP exclusive right to redevelop most sites in Walker over a 15-year period was agreed with NCC).

NewcastleGateshead Housing Market Renewal Pathfinder (BNG) identified Walker regeneration as one of three priority areas with Scotswood, and Bensham and Saltwell, in Gateshead for investment. From 2004 the Pathfinder worked on Walker Riverside in partnership with NCC linking with the Going for Growth strategy. The strategy for Walker of BNG aimed to diversify the housing offer and provide a new district centre within the area. Intervention of BNG in Walker focused on clearance and redevelopment of new housing, improvements to parks, refurbishment of sustainable properties, and development of proposals for a new district centre- the Heart of Walker (BNG, 2011). A broad strategy for the area was set out in Walker Riverside Area Action Plan in 2006. The development of Walker Riverside was also supported by a Design Code adopted in 2007. The development of the Heart of Walker was supported by a Supplementary Planning Document (SPD) which was adopted in 2009. £32.0m of HMR funding had been invested in the area to 2010/2011 with 189 acquisitions, 599 demolitions and 497 refurbishments completed (BNG, 2011).

However, the economic recession has affected the implementation of Walker Riverside regeneration except for some small scale new housing developments. 156 new homes have been completed across three schemes, including Hibernia Village, Saffron Court, and River's Gate. The first phase of development at River's Gate has been completed, but units have not sold easily and it is unclear when construction of the second phase will start. The Heart of Walker plan was discontinued as NCC evaluated it difficult to realise. Although other improvement in the area such as a new primary school and



playing fields are progressing, the time schedule for delivery is still questionable (BNG, 2011).



Figure 7.2 The current built environment of Walker area



Figure 7.3 New developments in Walker area (Hibernia village and Cambrian village)

## 7.2 The process of urban design

### *7.2.1 Setting the background of urban design in urban regeneration*

The regeneration of the East End of Newcastle upon Tyne was considered in the city wide Going for Growth initiative in June 2000. A City Council Team prepared the Draft East End Masterplan (2000) working within the citywide vision plan for Newcastle, Going for Growth, and the Draft Masterplan was published with the West End Masterplan as one document. The Draft Masterplan pointed out that the Walker Riverside has great potential to be the focus of new regeneration for the East of Newcastle and to overcome declining population, high unemployment and underused and derelict sites (figure 7.4). The Masterplan suggested a new urban village at Walker Riverside location, and focused on the idea that a critical mass is required to ensure redevelopment of the area, with the provision of a range of housing type and tenure and a new Neighbourhood Centre.

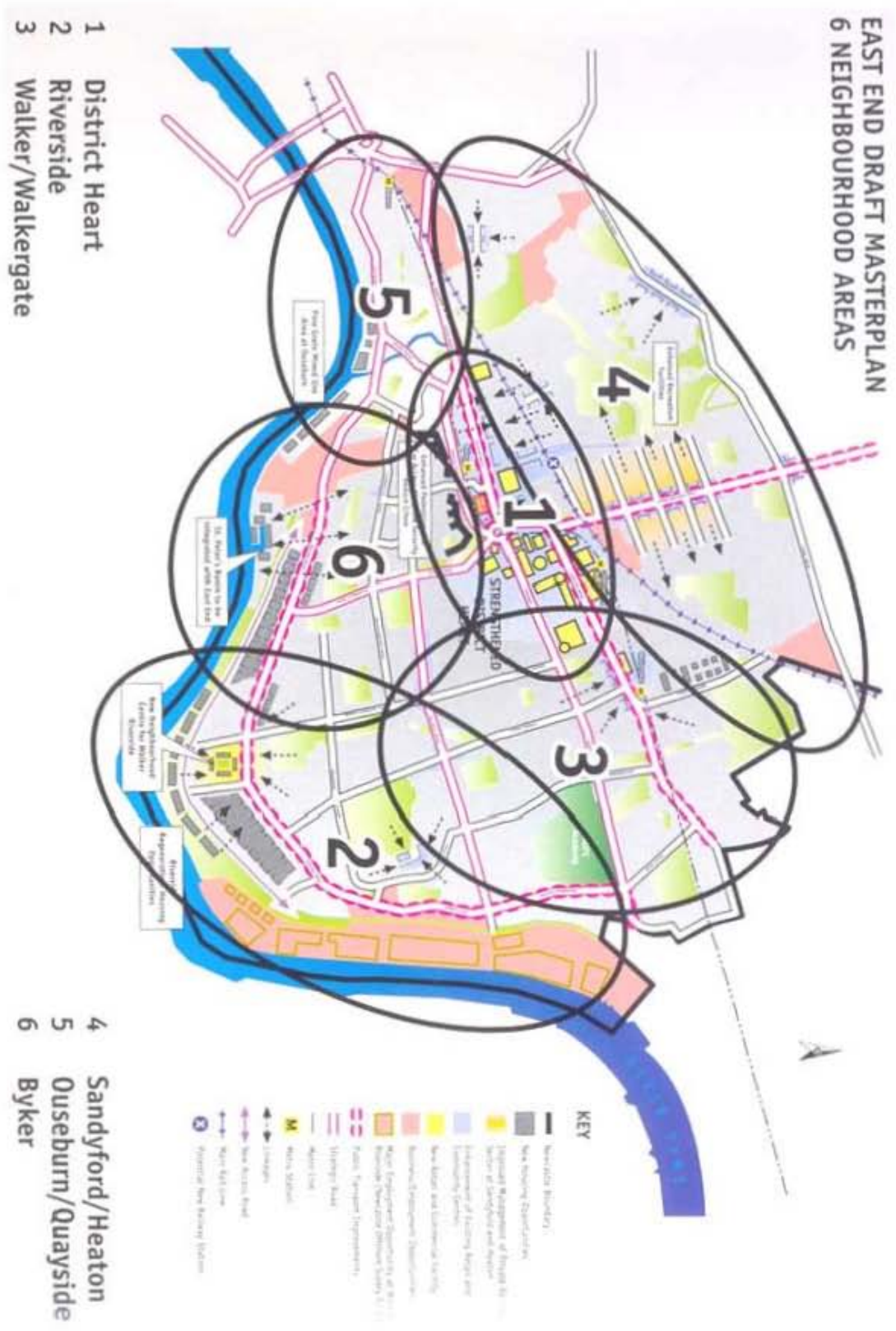


Figure 7.4 East End Draft Masterplan (NCC, 2000a); The masterplan aimed to expand and diversify the local economy, to strengthen and expand the main shopping area of Shields Road (“The District Heart”), to invest in and strengthen existing popular housing areas, and to create new housing opportunities at Walker Riverside (NCC, 2000a, p. 31).

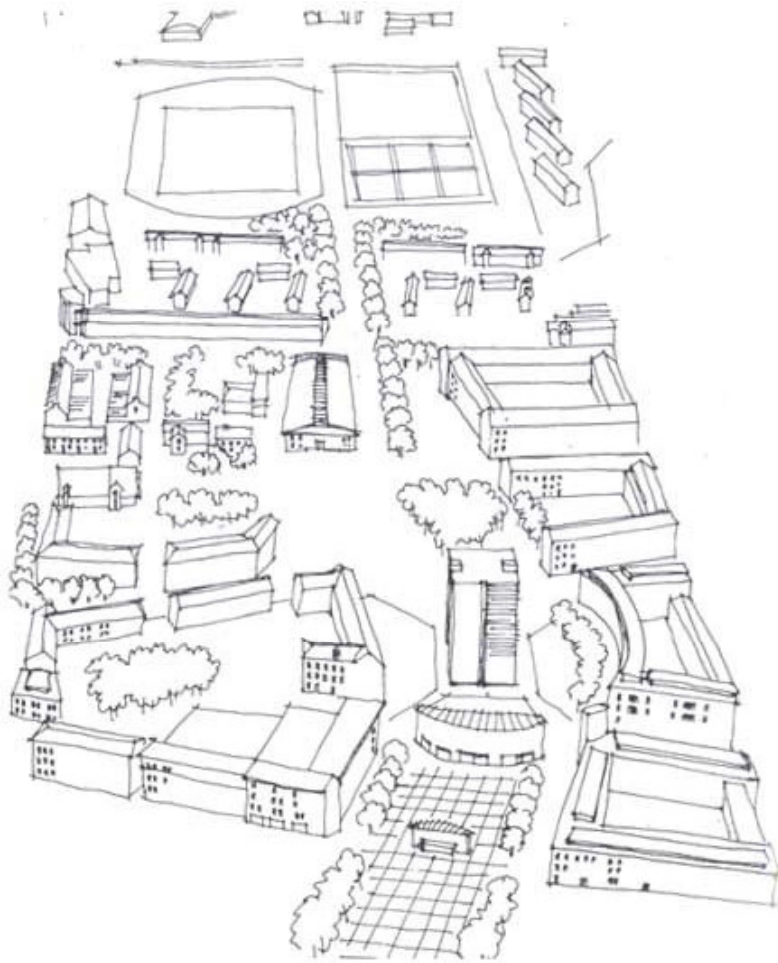


Figure 7.5 An illustration for a new neighbourhood centre at Walker (NCC, 2000a); The provision of a new Neighbourhood Centre (with shops, health, community facilities) linked to existing developing community infrastructure was suggested.

In 2002, NCC appointed Places for People (PfP) as its regeneration partner. The Newcastle Neighbourhood Information Service was developed to provide detailed information on issues and problems within neighbourhoods. PfP prepared the East End Going for Growth plan in July 2002 and took forward plans for Walker Riverside through their Development Framework Plan, released in November 2002. The Development Framework Plan set out the strategic locations for key sections of Walker Riverside regeneration, including a relocated local centre and an improved thoroughfare, or *boulevard* running through the area (figure 7.5).

### 7.2.2 Walker Riverside masterplan (2004)

In May 2003 NCC agreed to specific parts of Walker Riverside being designated as “early intervention areas” where regeneration work could start in advance of the approval of the final Masterplan. Designation of “Neighbourhood Development Areas” was the proposed method of formalising this decision consistent with the draft Masterplan. The Draft Walker Riverside Masterplan was accepted by NCC for consultation in July 2003. After the consultation, Walker Riverside Masterplan was approved by the Executive in July 2004. The Masterplan was provided under the terms of a Project Agreement between NCC and PfP as preferred developer partner for Walker regeneration. The Masterplan was prepared by the Llewelyn Davies planning consultancy, under the guidance of Pfp Project Team and a joint (NCC/PfP) Steering Group. The Development Framework Plan (figure 7.6) in the Masterplan illustrated the following key proposals for the radical action aiming to make Walker a *location of choice* (figure 7.7) (Llewelyn Davis, 2004a):

- A completely new *Community Focus* around the junction of Walker Road and Pottery Bank, with new schools, shopping, leisure and community services (figure 7.8);
- Development of strong *gateways* to Walker;
- Improved and focused public transport, with a protected reservation for the possible new tram/transit link to the City and West End;
- Improved job opportunities, both in the Riverside industrial belt and the new *Focus* including skills and training programmes to help local people benefit from them;
- Some 2500 new homes, over 15-20 years, partly on cleared or empty sites and partly where existing housing will be demolished. New houses to good modern design and with especially high standards with regards to space and environmental performance;
- Renewal of Walker’s parks and open spaces
- New *green fingers* running north/south through the housing areas to link the parks and open spaces to the people they should serve
- To improve community safety through creating a high quality built environment and addressing the causes of crime and disorder through the Delivery Plan (p. 12)

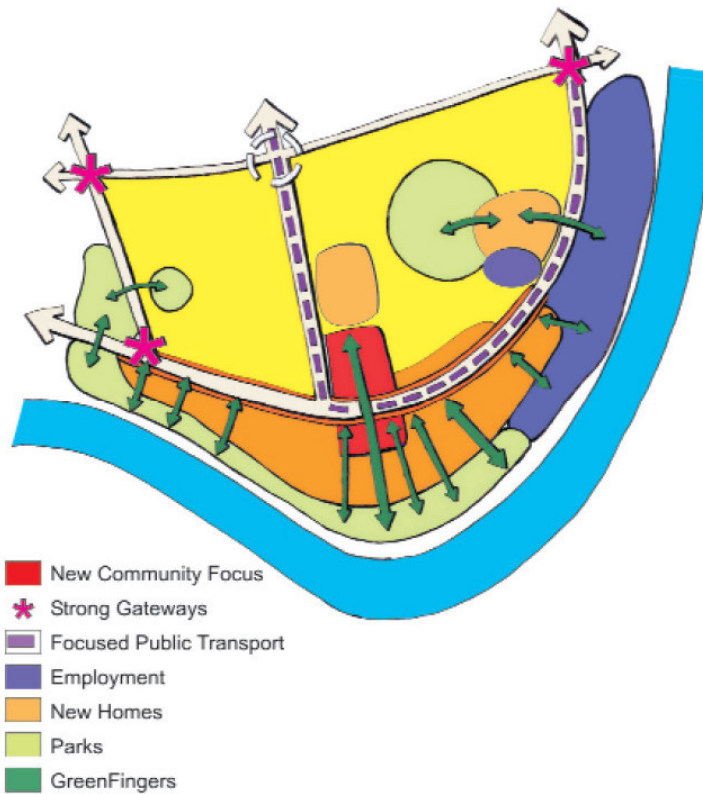


Figure 7.6 Development Framework Plan (Llewelyn Davis, 2004, p 12)

The Masterplan suggested strategies and proposals on key areas for intervention in terms of housing, local facilities, open space, the local economy, and transport and accessibility in its third chapter. Chapter four of the Masterplan provided proposed actions in specific areas of Walker and the order of events currently envisaged in achieving the regeneration of Walker. Four different categories of areas were identified: the early action areas, action in the medium term, areas under review, and areas suggested for ALMO investment priority.

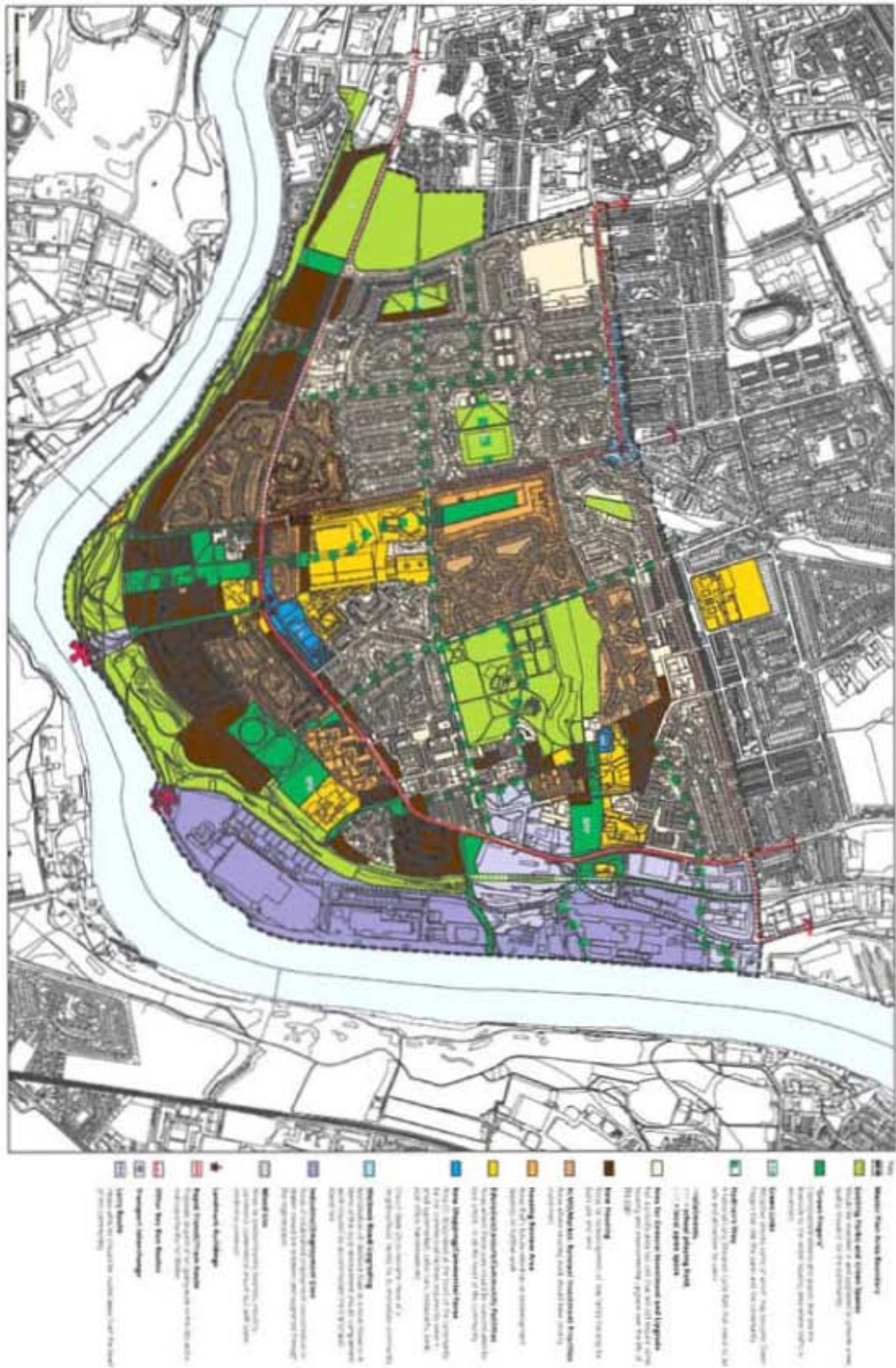


Figure 7.7 Proposals Plan (source: Llewelyn Davis, 2004, p 20); In the plan, the vision for Walker is to make it into a 'location of choice' with 'a mixed community' in safe green well designed neighbourhoods where tenure will be 'invisible'. The suggested approach is a combination of new house building (on cleared sites, and in places where existing property will be demolished) and upgrading of the existing stock (p. 21).



Figure 7.8 Examples of the illustrations of visions for the Early Action Area (source: Llewelyn Davis, 2004); (a) the regeneration of the Cumbrian Estate aims to provide a mix of affordable housing for sale (approx 100) and for rent (approx 65 at a density of 40-50 units/ha) with an indicative tenure mix of 60% private and 40% social. The Cambrian is envisaged to appeal predominantly to the family housing market. It will provide different types of homes to meet the needs of existing residents and also to attract new people into the Cambrian, to help revive the area.

(b) The community Focus aims to create a new high quality centre that provides for the day to day needs of the people of Walker and an attractive riverside for the wider East End. New and refurbished houses and apartments were planned to be mixed into this centre and down towards the River. The whole Community Focus area was suggested to be tied to the Riverside Park by a new green space, "green fingers" - running through its core.

### 7.2.3 Walker Riverside Area Action Plan (2007)

The Walker Riverside Masterplan was incorporated into the policy framework of Walker Riverside Area Action Plan. At the stage of the Walker Riverside Masterplan, there was only one option - the draft proposals, which NCC had initially intended to adopt as supplementary planning guidance following a final round of consultation.



Further participation was therefore required to both scrutinise the Masterplan proposals and develop options as part of the *issues and options* stage. For this purpose a community enquiry by design was held. The outcome of the community enquiry by design was used to develop the preferred options report, *Walker Riverside Decisions* (NCC, 2005b). To develop the preferred options report, three options for the strategic regeneration for Walker Riverside were identified, namely 1) minor impact (700 new homes), 2) moderate impact (Up to 1000 new homes and some environmental improvements), or 3) major impact (1600 to 2200 new homes, a new shopping centre, leisure facilities and improved public transport). Option three reflected the ideas in the Walker Riverside Masterplan. The differences between the levels of impact were determined by the levels of new housing, demolition, new and improved levels of services and facilities, and infrastructure including public transport and environmental improvements. 64% of householders supported the option three, *major impact*.

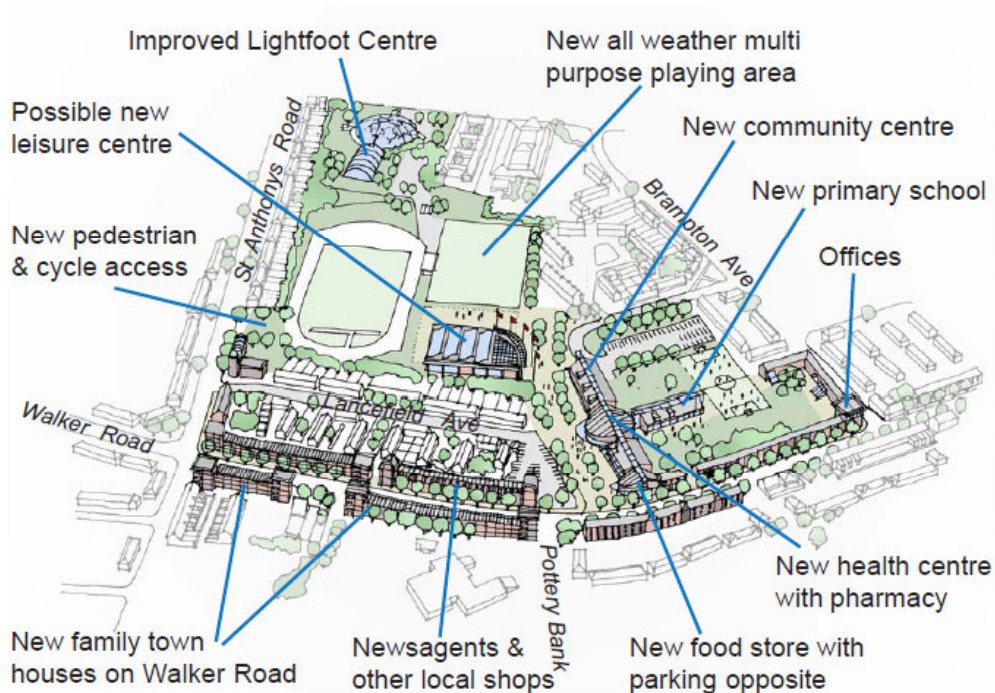


Figure 7.9 An illustration for possible Community Focus layout in *Walker Riverside: Decisions* (NCC, 2005b)

The Walker Riverside Area Action Plan (2007) was developed from the preferred Options Report, *Walker Riverside: Decisions*. The AAP set out spatial planning policies which guide investment including delivery of Pathfinder Housing Market Renewal Programme in Walker Riverside area. The Plan was adopted by NCC in April 2007 and

set out the local planning framework for Walker Riverside. The first part of the AAP analysed the key issues facing the area at the local level, and outlined the vision and objectives. The Walker Riverside AAP (NCC, 2007b) set out the following visions of regeneration in Walker:

- Build on the character, humour, strong families and informal community networks that have enabled Walker to endure difficult times
- Gradually improve the local environment, housing, shops, schools, transport, education and health services to make Walker Riverside a vibrant local economy and location of choice for families to live stay and work, now and in the future
- Improve and revitalise each locality in Walker Riverside and create a new centre incorporating shops and facilities that is a wonderful place for families and people of all ages and backgrounds to enjoy safely (p. 9).

The Walker Riverside AAP designated sites to build 1,600 new and replacement homes in Walker Riverside over the next fifteen years and to create a new neighbourhood centre in the heart of the area (figure 7.10). The AAP set out following objectives to achieve the visions:

- Increase the population of Walker Riverside, and especially the number of families
- Achieve a wider mix of housing and forms of tenure that better meet needs and aspirations
- Create a strong new community focus: an accessible, attractive neighbourhood centre providing good quality local shops, services and facilities in a good, safe environment
- Invest effectively in housing, the environment and local services to create the right conditions for a strong, long term, sustainable local economy and housing market
- Restructure the provision and delivery of local services in a way that supports the engagement of the community in the management and delivery of services (p. 11)

The second part focused on policies and proposals. The policies in this part set out a planning framework to deliver *major impact* which was preferred from consultation on the Preferred Options Report:

- The *Population and Housing* aim focused on enhancing a mix of tenures and household incomes by the provision of 1,600 new homes, housing improvements, and provision for the needs of relocated households.
- A *competitive local economy* aim was to support the long term growth of businesses in the industrial area by the development of local shops and services, the improvement public transport links to job opportunities, and the proposal of improving the southern part of the industrial area.
- The *environment and sustainable development* aim focused on providing the high standards of design for new housing developments, meeting local open space needs, improving access through a riverside park, improving biodiversity.
- *Sustainable and inclusive transport* aim focused on the improvement of cycling and pedestrian facilities by Hadrian's Way, green corridor, and cycling improvements; public transport improvements; and the provision of parking with new development.
- *Thriving and inclusive local centres* aim could be promoted by provision of a new mixed use neighbourhood centre and a new primary school; and improvement of the Lightfoot Centre and Church Walk Local Centre.
- *Implementation* aim focused on supporting the community through change. The last part focused on delivering the plan with the identification of development phasing and improvement priorities, infrastructure improvements, strategic partnerships, the funding plan, and monitoring mechanisms (NCC, 2007b).

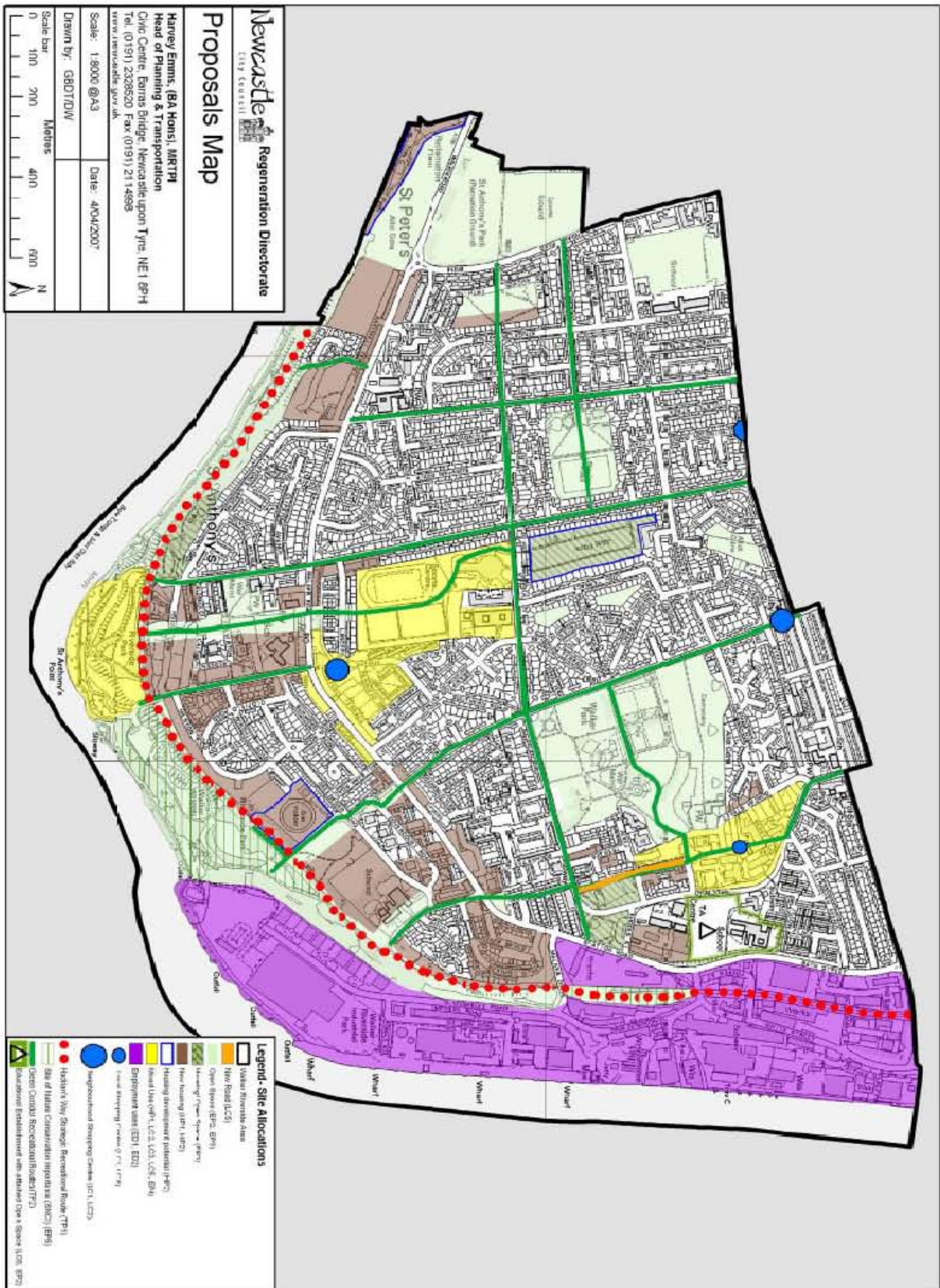


Figure 7.10 Proposals map in Walker Riverside AAP (NCC, 2007b, pp. 4-5); The plan designated sites to build 1,600 new and replacement homes in Walker Riverside over the next fifteen years and create a new neighbourhood centre in the heart of the area.

#### 7.2.4 Walker Riverside Design Code (2007)

In 2004, NCC and PfP signed a contract with ODPM to produce a Design Code. In September 2004, a design code *charette* developed the outline of a design code for key character areas in Walker and a Joint Working Partnership produced a Draft Design Code. Walker Riverside Management Executive endorsed the Draft Design Code and released it for informal consultation and statutory 6 week consultation in 2006. The Design Code was adopted with the AAP as a SPD in 2007 to set out the standards and objectives for the design of new development across Walker Riverside. The SPD set out the vision, objectives of planning parameters for the creation of a new neighbourhood centre in Walker Riverside. In this document, a *design code* is defined as guidance about how to plan buildings, streets and spaces (NCC, 2007a). This code supports the Walker Riverside AAP by the provision of detailed clarification of how high quality design should be achieved in Walker. This code was expected to play a role as a key consideration when assessing planning applications within the regeneration area. Figure 7.10 illustrates how the Code functions in support of the development control process. The code will be reviewed on an annual basis under the Walker Riverside management framework, with the aim of ensuring that it provides an effective support to the process of delivering high quality places.

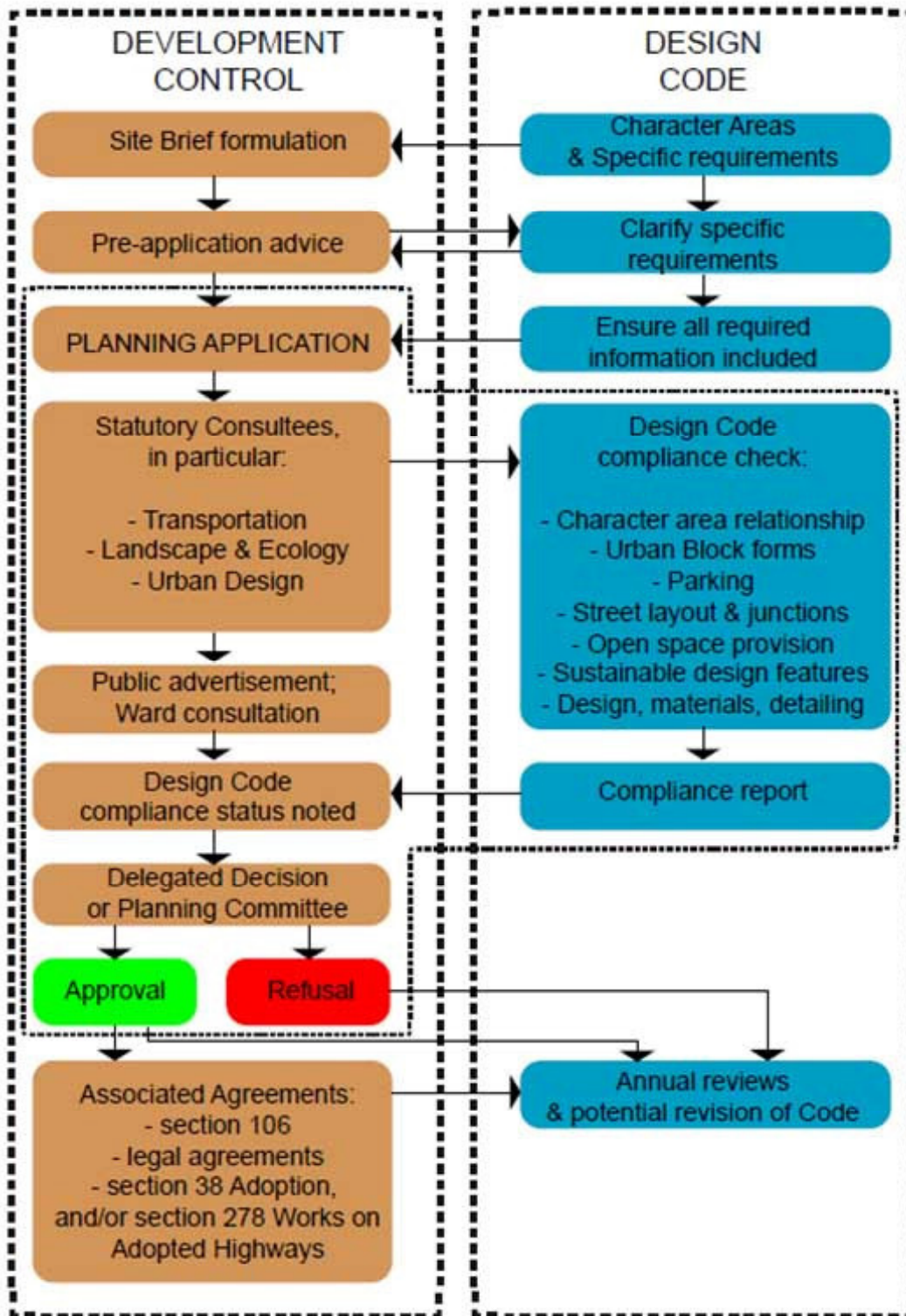


Figure 7.11 Application process of Walker Riverside Design Code (source: NCC, 2007a)

The Design Code identified guidance and requirements about how the implementation of the AAP would deliver high quality design, and supported long term objectives of the AAP to tackle low demand in both the social rented and private sectors in Walker Riverside relative to the city as a whole and to promote the vitality and viability of local retail and community services. The Design Code was structured in three parts.

The first part briefly outlined the area, the Walker Riverside project, and how to use the code. The second part analysed character areas and focused on key design principles and guidance to control the transformation of key character areas, including Walker Road Boulevard, Welbeck Road and St. Anthony's Road, six residential neighbourhoods, an industrial area, and the riverside edge. The section on character area contained a description of existing features and issues, area-specific guidance highlighting locations that will play a key role in shaping the character of the area, and any specific design requirements for the area<sup>3</sup>. The third part dealt with detailed design guidance on built form and urban blocks, streets and parking, open space and landscape, sustainable development, and architectural design. Specific requirements which should be followed for all proposed developments were provided in this part with the following considerations:

- Block principles focus on perimeter block frontage, perimeter block rears, and parking. The principles require that new larger developments are expected to create fully formed urban blocks and small sites should take an infill approach that positively contributes to the completion of surrounding blocks (figure 7.12).
- Design guidance on streets provides key features, design parameters, and material palettes to produce a variety of different street characters according to the hierarchy of Walker Road Boulevard, main streets, side streets, local streets, mews, lanes and courtyards, and green corridors (figure 7.13).

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<sup>3</sup> In the design code, “guidance” is helpful information that will assist in producing better design proposals, and where possible there should be adhered to. “Requirements” are rules which should be followed in producing designs, and these will be enforced as part of the normal development control process.

- Design guidance on public open space identifies the characteristics of green corridors, the Riverside, and equipped play areas.
- Design guidance on sustainable design requiring new development to meet standards for environment performance ('Very good' rating under the BREEAM scheme), renewable energy (the LDF minimum requirement), sustainable drainage systems, and Lifetime Homes.
- Design guidance on architectural design dealing with design principles on building forms; building materials for exterior walls, roofs, external drainage and service; windows; entrances and doors; and decorative detailing.

The Design Code identified a design statement and a 66- point questionnaire which should be submitted with any planning application as part of the Compliance Check carried out as part of appraising all applications (see appendix four for the questionnaire). A design statement was identified in the Design Code, with additional Walker-specific content about how the proposals meet all of the relevant requirements of the Design Code, by including the following information:

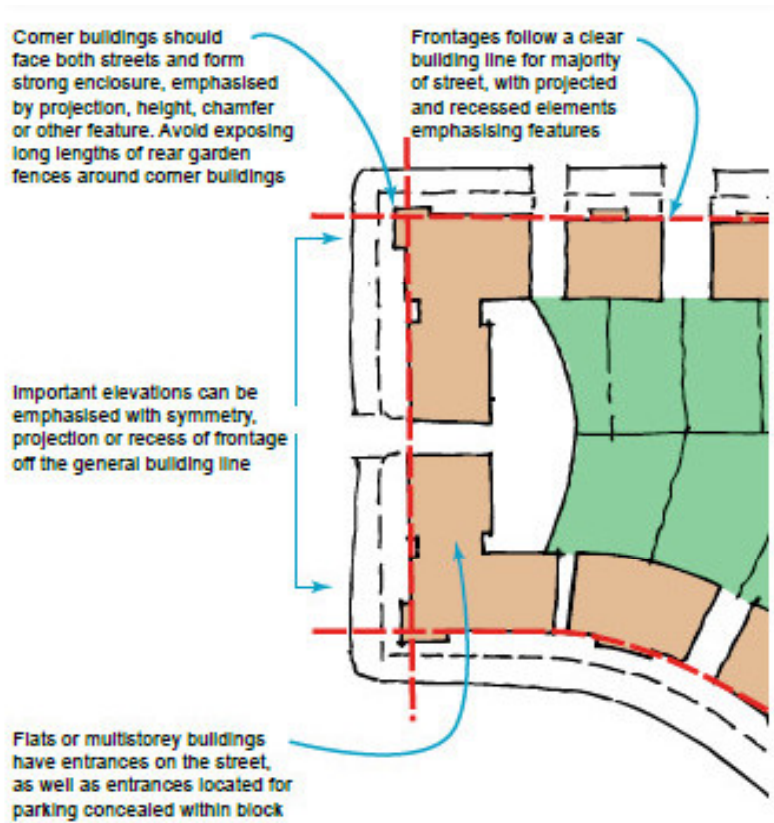
- Site analysis drawings extending no less than 100m from every site boundary
- Urban Block drawings for the local area, showing street enclosure, routes and connections, landmarks or features, corner treatment, uses and active frontages
- Illustration of how the proposals respond to the Character Area principles in the Code
- Description of any programme of Public Art related to the proposed development
- A compliance questionnaire (NCC, 2007a, App-F)

The Design Code also identified the following information which applicants should ensure on all applicable drawings to allow the design quality of the proposal to be properly judged against the requirements of the Code:

- All significant movement or material joints, including subdivisions of rendered areas

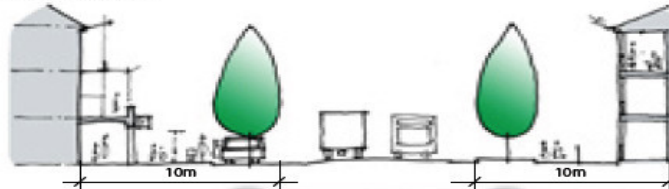


- Indication of every exterior service inlet/outlet/grille/cover/enclosure annotated with function, material & finish
- Illustration & description of all street furniture, including lighting columns, included in the proposals.
- Dimensioned illustration of all boundary enclosures (fences etc) in the proposals
- Indication (extent, material, illumination) of any signage to be displayed upon buildings.
- All plot numbers, and related parking allocation.
- Ownership and management plan, large scale for Homezones (NCC, 2007a, App-F)



### AT COMMUNITY FOCUS

#### CROSS SECTION



#### PLAN

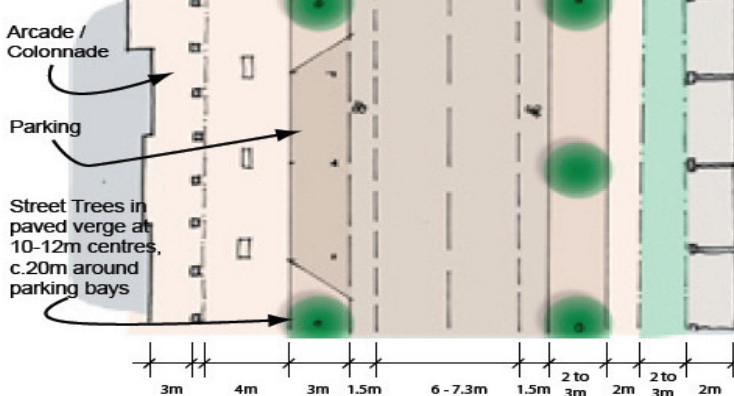


Figure 7.12 Illustrations in Walker Riverside Design Code (NCC, 2007a); (a) Block principles for perimeter block frontage, (b) The Boulevard treatment is made up of three key components, including regular tree planting in the verge, building frontages that deliberately face onto and are accessed from Walker Road, and provision for vehicles, pedestrians and cyclists to all safely inhabit the street.

### *7.2.5 Heart of Walker Supplementary Planning Documents (2009)*

The Heart of Walker (HOW) is the area which was planned to provide key services and facilities to serve the local area in Walker Riverside. Newcastle City Council adopted a SPD for the Heart of Walker in February 2009. Heart of Walker SPD (2009) provided detailed guidance for the future vision and objectives for the central area of Walker Riverside. The purpose of the Heart of Walker SPD was to provide a clear statement about the type of development that was sought on site, including a spatial masterplan and policies addressing key principles to be followed in developing the site.

The first part of the SPD outlined visions and objectives. The HOW SPD identified key objectives including enhancing neighbourhood and community; creating a well structured layout with successful streets and spaces; and creating a liveable, sustainable, long-lived place. In the second part, the SPD explained site details and relevant plans and policies. The third part dealt with feasibility including ownership and land assembly, development constraints study, neighbourhood centres study, and delivery. The fourth part focused on planning and design principles to guide future development. The SPD provided three design concepts, including twin activity anchors on Walker Road and around the Lightfoot Dome (figure 7.13), creating new street links where these are missing, and buildings which create a street-based urban layout (figure 7.14). The SPD also guided urban design on mix of uses; development form; landscape; public realm art; proposed movement; safety and security; energy, water, waste; and management and maintenance. The fifth and sixth parts proposed development phasing and further community engagement. The last part provided guidance for the submission of outline planning applications and planning submission requirements.

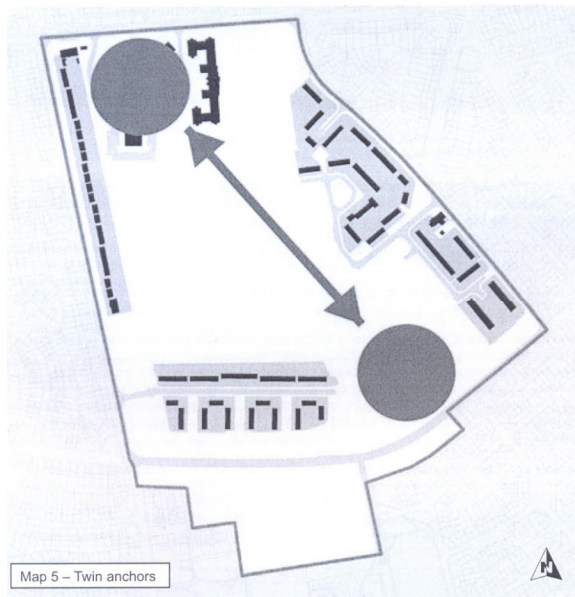


Figure 7.13 A concept of Twin anchors (NCC, 2009b)

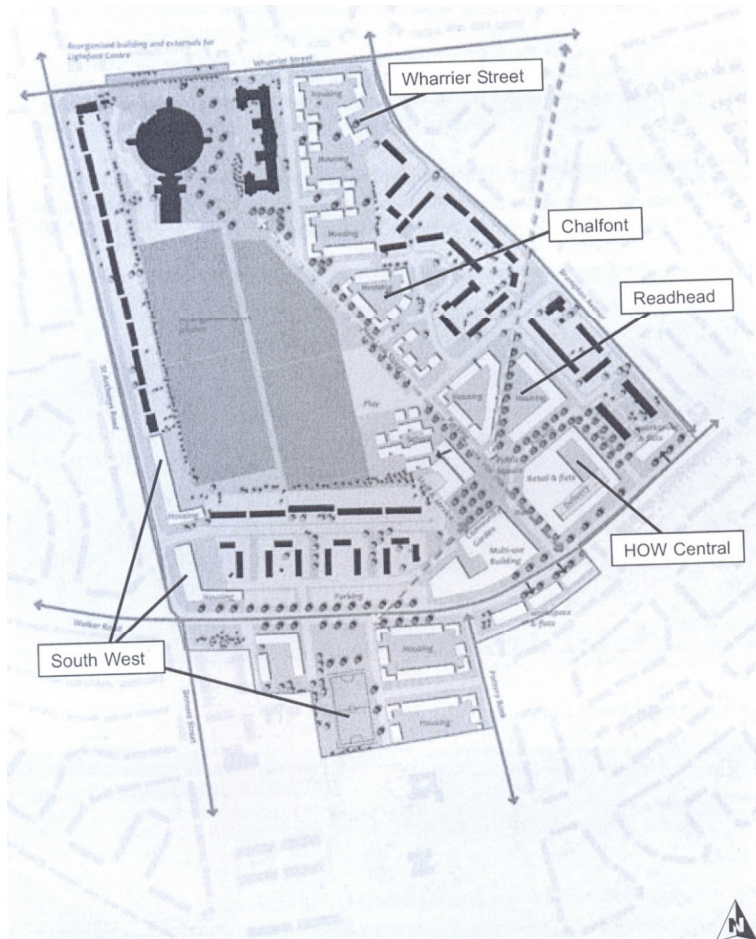


Figure 7.14 Proposed areas plan in HOW SPD (NCC, 2009b)

### ***7.2.7 Implementation and management of the Walker regeneration programme***

Regarding the implementation of Walker regeneration, 189 acquisitions, 599 demolitions and 497 facelift refurbishments have been completed until April 2011. Some 156 new homes have been completed across three small scale redevelopments schemes in Walker Riverside. New homes at Hibernia Village were started on site on March 2005, new homes at River's Gate were started on site on July 2006. River's Gate show homes were launched on February 2008 and the second phase of the scheme at Hibernia Village started in 2008. However, the economic downturn and the discontinuing of HMR funding affected the delivery of plans for Walker regeneration. A report of BNG concerned the uncertainty of new redevelopment schemes in Walker after the cancellation of HMR funding:

*Poor ground conditions and low sales values require significant gap funding, but continued access to funding to meet these requirements is at best uncertain. Ambitions for the 'Heart of Walker' have proved difficult to realise (BNG, 2011, p 19).*

### **7.3 Community engagement**

A study on social exclusion in the Walker neighbourhood (Madanipour and Bevan, 1999) highlighted that there is relatively strong sense of community and identity which seems to prevail supported by strong social networks, based on kinship ties and strong faith-based communities. In 1999, NCC's Going for Growth team, together with the Area Director of Community Development and their staff, made a commitment to engage the local community to bring forward the regeneration of Walker. However, within its first year it was widely acknowledged that this joint approach had not been as successful as first intended, and therefore a new Community Development service was launched in Autumn 1999. The Going for Growth strategy for the East End emphasised the importance of community involvement and the needs of young people. To evolve a partnership model, work with East End residents has been undertaken since 2000. The East End Community and Voluntary Sector Forum, as an umbrella organisation, was created to provide a means for local organisations to play an active role in the

regeneration processes, increase resident participation and develop partnership and participation strategies.

With a focus on Walker Riverside for regeneration efforts, the most significant progress was the creation of the Walker and Riverside Community Network (The Network) - where elected representatives of all the local residents groups could have one influential voice in Walker. The Network was created in 2001 as a channel for enhancing community participation in the regeneration of the Riverside area and consolidating the achievement of existing groups and organisations and actively developing new tenants and residents groups. The Network and East End Community and Voluntary Sector Forum had a major influence over the selection of the developer and recommended to the Cabinet the appointment of the Places for People consortium, which is a social landlord specialising in community regeneration. In bidding to take forward the regeneration of Walker with NCC, PfP with Llewelyn-Davies made a commitment to "... close working with local communities..." (Llewelyn-Davies, 2004, p 4).

The 'Key Principles' of community engagement were designed and agreed by the Network, which allow for the community to influence and become involved in the decision-making process. These principles were established with the Network at the Residential Weekend held in June 2002. At this event, PfP agreed with the Network to incorporate these principles into its Strategy for Community Involvement.

- The Walker and Riverside Community Network will be the main point of contact within the community.
- Estate based community events open to the general public will gather general views and allow local people to become engaged in the process
- Engaging key community groups to come together around certain issues, such as owner occupiers, young people, key stakeholders and also including hard to reach groups in the process, will form a strong element of the strategy

- There is a need to discuss issues at a level that people can relate to and understand, therefore public information will be simplified and drawing will be colourful and easily understood.
- Working with residents groups as the master plan evolves, particularly in areas of major change, is essential.
- A process of feedback where the wider community, although not interested participating in smaller more focused groups, still are kept informed at key stages of the process.
- Access to information and opportunity to comment on the process is the key to the success of the master plan. Therefore the following communication strategy will be adopted as a method of best practice-
  - An open door policy should be adopted, where any community member can visit a local office in Walker to discuss their concerns with a member of the team;
  - Leaflet drops to everyone on Walker inviting them to community exhibitions;
  - Community exhibitions at key stages of formulating ideas- where attendees can have 'one-to-one' attention with a member of the team;
  - Newsletters at each stage of the process updating the community as to how things are moving forward;
  - Local press coverage (Llewelyn Davis, 2004b).

In developing the Walker Riverside Masterplan, various methods for community engagement based on the Key Principles were used. Three rounds of community exhibitions, door-to-door household surveys and leafleted questionnaires were used to gather information. A variety of different ways including a series of briefing meetings, road shows, house-by-house leaflet distribution, newsletters, local press coverage were used for conveying information. A local drop-in base for enquiry and Network meetings also provided a function in delivering information to local people. Community workshops, presentations, and meetings were held to engage discussion with the

community. Four project events with local schools were used for working with young people. The timeline of events for community engagement summarizes various interactive activities for community engagement (Llewelyn Davies, 2004b):

- Initial meetings with local groups, councillors and workers (March 2002) - An away day with PfP, the Network and local councillors to introduce Community Development Team and key workers, explain the process of developing the Master Plan and begin to develop a working relationship.
- Residential training weekend (14<sup>th</sup>-16<sup>th</sup> June 2002) - Training Weekend with the Network and PfP team- where introductions were made and communication strategy and process of the initiative were agreed upon.
- Meeting local groups (August 2002) - A meeting to introduce the master planning team and discuss with groups active in the local area what would happen over the coming months, PfP's approach and how local people could be involved.
- Round 1 community event (3<sup>rd</sup>, 5<sup>th</sup>, 16<sup>th</sup> September 2002) - Open events to which every household in the area was invited through house-by-house leaflet distribution. The community was asked to give comment on "What is good about Walker that they wouldn't want to lose" and "What needs to be improved in Walker to make it a better place to live".
- Round 1 Newsletter (End of October 2002) - A newsletter to every household explaining who PfP are; what the regeneration is all about; the timescale; how local people can get involved, make comment and help shape the master plan. It also included a back page questionnaire asking for people's views on their area and gave details of when the Round 2 Community Event would be and what it would be about.
- Area-based local drop-in for community enquiries (October 2002 and July 2003) - Local drop-in for community enquiries about the regeneration process- Wednesday 10am-12pm and 3pm-5pm LAARA Community Flat, off Walker Road, subsequently at the Partnership Building, on Welback Road, Walker every Tuesday 2pm-7pm .
- Round 2 community events (19<sup>th</sup>, 21<sup>st</sup> November 2002) - An event to discuss emerging ideas for the regeneration of Walker and the development framework plan.



- Discussions in specific local areas (25<sup>th</sup>-28<sup>th</sup> November 2002) - To have focussed discussions about the implications of the Development Framework Plan for their individual areas prior to the development of options.
- Away day with Network/Partnership (1<sup>st</sup> March 2003) - Day away with the Network, the Partnership and the PFP team, to bring the newly formed Partnership up to date with the process so far and to discuss current thinking on options and themes to be included in the Initial Masterplan and the material to be consulted on with the community in Round Three events.
- Round 3 community events (19<sup>th</sup>-20<sup>th</sup> March 2003) - Open events to which every household in the area was invited through a mailed to every household, local facility, group and business (7000+ addresses). The events were to discuss the emerging thinking for the Initial Masterplan.
- Household survey (April 2003) - Survey to establish each household status within areas of major change, (in terms of tenure and size) and talk residents through their future options and relocation packages that may be on offer to them.
- Round 3 Initial Masterplan newsletter (June 2003) - Newsletter distributed to every household in Walker(7000+) informing the community of the contents of the Initial Masterplan and including excerpts of the Initial Master Plan – the Case for Change, the Vision, ‘What the new Walker will be like’, ‘Sustaining the Community’, the ‘Early Action Areas’ and ‘Actions for the Longer Term’ as well as detailing ‘What Happens Next’.
- Travelling exhibition, home visits and drop in sessions - A series of exhibitions by the Community Development Team designed to inform harder to reach groups within the community. Appointments were made with residents to talk to any member of the regeneration team, either at the Community Development Partnership Building or at their own homes.
- Detailed household survey (September-December 2003) - A detailed house-to-house survey of all properties within the Cambrian early action area, undertaken by NCC redevelopment team. The purpose of this survey was to establish if residents would or would not like to stay on the redeveloped Cambrian estate, what types of property they would prefer and details of other personal circumstance.

- Local base in Church Walk Shopping Centre (August 2003) - A local base for the initiative, based in a shop unit within the Church Walker Shopping Centre.

One significant piece of community involvement in the process of incorporating the Masterplan into the Walker Riverside AAP was a five-day *Enquiry by Design* to scrutinise the draft Masterplan proposals and develop options as part of the ‘issues and options’ stage (NCC, 2004b). The community enquiry was held at the Lightfoot Centre in Walker from 1 to 5 November 2004 (figure 7.15). This event motivated community members to work with urban planners and designers to produce neighbourhood concepts by visualising the features they wanted to see in projects. The Enquiry included an intensive series of working groups, plenaries and open forums, conversations and briefings. It produced an exhibition on plans and drawings and a presentation of some of the view and thinking produced during the course of the Enquiry. The Enquiry design teams formed into working groups throughout the week and were allocated to specific areas within Walker. Following an introductory first day the teams, with community assistance, began the process of reviewing the current situation in Walker. The residents’ involvement allowed the hands-on approach necessary to refine the current plan. Each day started with a plenary session to review the previous days’ work and then each group proceeded with members of the community to consider their own particular areas. The different design groups also interacted, sharing information ensuring that a continuous and dynamic interchange of ideas benefited the whole of Walker.

It also developed a Vision for Walker Riverside and a Book of Plans (NCC, 2004a) which illustrates the views expressed at the Enquiry (figure 7.16). This experience created a set of placemaking principles for future neighbourhood planning events across Walker Riverside. A new vision for Walker includes:

- To build on the character, humour, strong families and informal community networks that have enabled Walker to endure different times.

- To gradually improve the local environment, housing, shops, schools, transport, education and health services to make Walker a vibrant local economy and location of choice for families to live, stay and work, now and in the future.
- To improve and revitalise each locality in Walker and create a new physical heart incorporating shops and facilities that is a wonderful local place for families and people of all ages and backgrounds to enjoy safely.
- To reconnect Walker to the river- its greatest natural asset- and provide gardens, parks and pleasant places for walking, play and rest.
- To encourage the creation of new attractions in Walker such as a riverside family pub and restaurant and leisure facilities that will also appeal to people from outside Walker.
- To enhance community pride and confidence in Walker and stimulate ‘can do’ optimism across the community as the regeneration process gets underway.
- To introduce changes sensitively and gradually, respecting local people’s needs and sense of security and belonging, encouraging and enabling them to embrace bold new initiatives and participate enthusiastically in regeneration.
- To ensure that the necessary changes in Walker connect with and build upon the heritage and character of the place and its people and the bonds that hold these together. As new partnerships are formed and new people, organisations and businesses arrive, and as Walker and the opportunities it offers are transformed, it will always remain ‘Our Walker’ not ‘Their Walker’ (NCC, 2004b, pp. 11-12).

The outcome of the community enquiry by design was used to develop the preferred options report (NCC, 2005b). A statutory consultation on the preferred options report took place between 1 September and 12 October 2005, and the results were used to finalise the submission of a draft AAP.



**Figure 7.15** Photos of a five-day Enquiry by Design (NCC, 2004); Multi-disciplinary design teams were brought together to encourage new and dynamic solutions to the current masterplan produced by Llewellyn Davies. The ‘book of plans’ brings together the majority of the designs and ideas developed during that week for individual areas in Walker and for the overall masterplan framework. The document is set out to show the development of ideas throughout the course of the week. The Enquiry design teams formed into working groups throughout the week and were allocated to specific areas within Walker. Following an introductory

first day the teams, with community assistance, began the process of reviewing the current situation in Walker. The residents' involvement allowed the hands on approach necessary to refine the current plan. Individual areas across Walker evolved their own plans building up ideas to create a definitive masterplan framework for the whole of Walker. Each day started with a plenary session to review the previous day's work and then each group proceeded with members of the community to consider their own particular areas. The different design groups also interacted, sharing information ensuring that a continuous and dynamic interchange of ideas benefited the whole of Walker (NCC, 2004, p. 3).

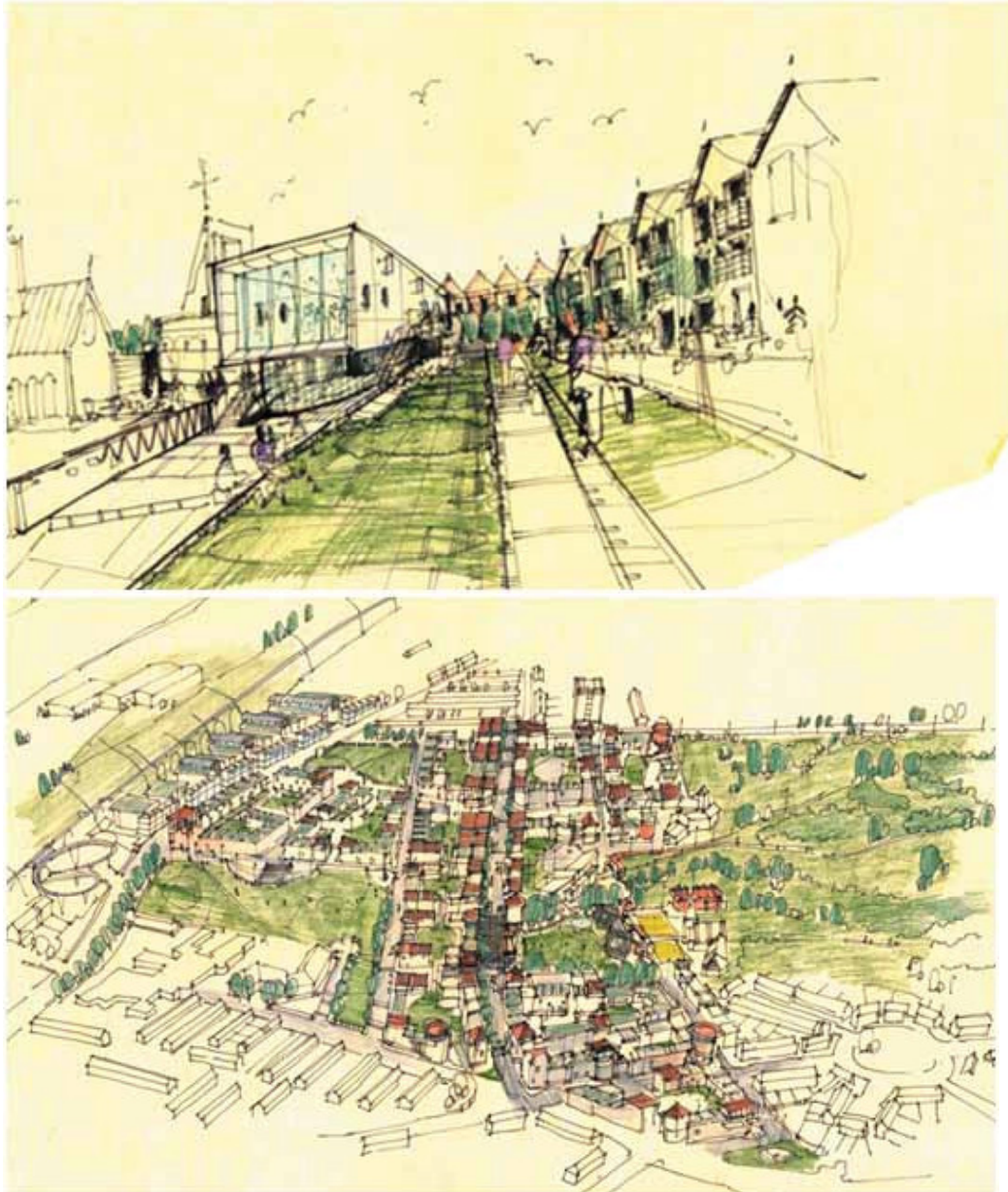


Figure 7.16 Illustrations in a Book of Plans (NCC, 2004); (a) Suggested new landmark, the info box (Community centre) surrounded by new open space and family housing, (b) Church walk looking south down the 'high street', live-work units (upper left), village green opposite the church (lower left)

Consultations also took place on the plans for the Heart of Walker. In developing the Heart of Walker plan, the One Big Month community event including over 30 consultation events took place which generated around 1500 responses from local residents between February and April 2007. In the development of urban design for Heart of Walker, community engagement included a two day Heart of Walker placemaking event in May 2007. In the event, representatives from the local community groups and residents developed four options for how they believed the Heart of Walker should be designed. Architects and urban designers helped teams of community representatives and stakeholder staff to contribute their ideas to the production of four alternative draft masterplans. The four options were then taken away and 3D virtual model were produced for viewing (figure 7.17). The four options were shown to the public for further comments between August and September 2007. This engagement involved five consultation events and door to door surveys which generated around 400 responses. The community responses were reported to the Heart of Walker Riverside Steering Group. A formal consultation took place between 31<sup>ST</sup> March 2008 and 22<sup>nd</sup> May (NCC, 2009c).

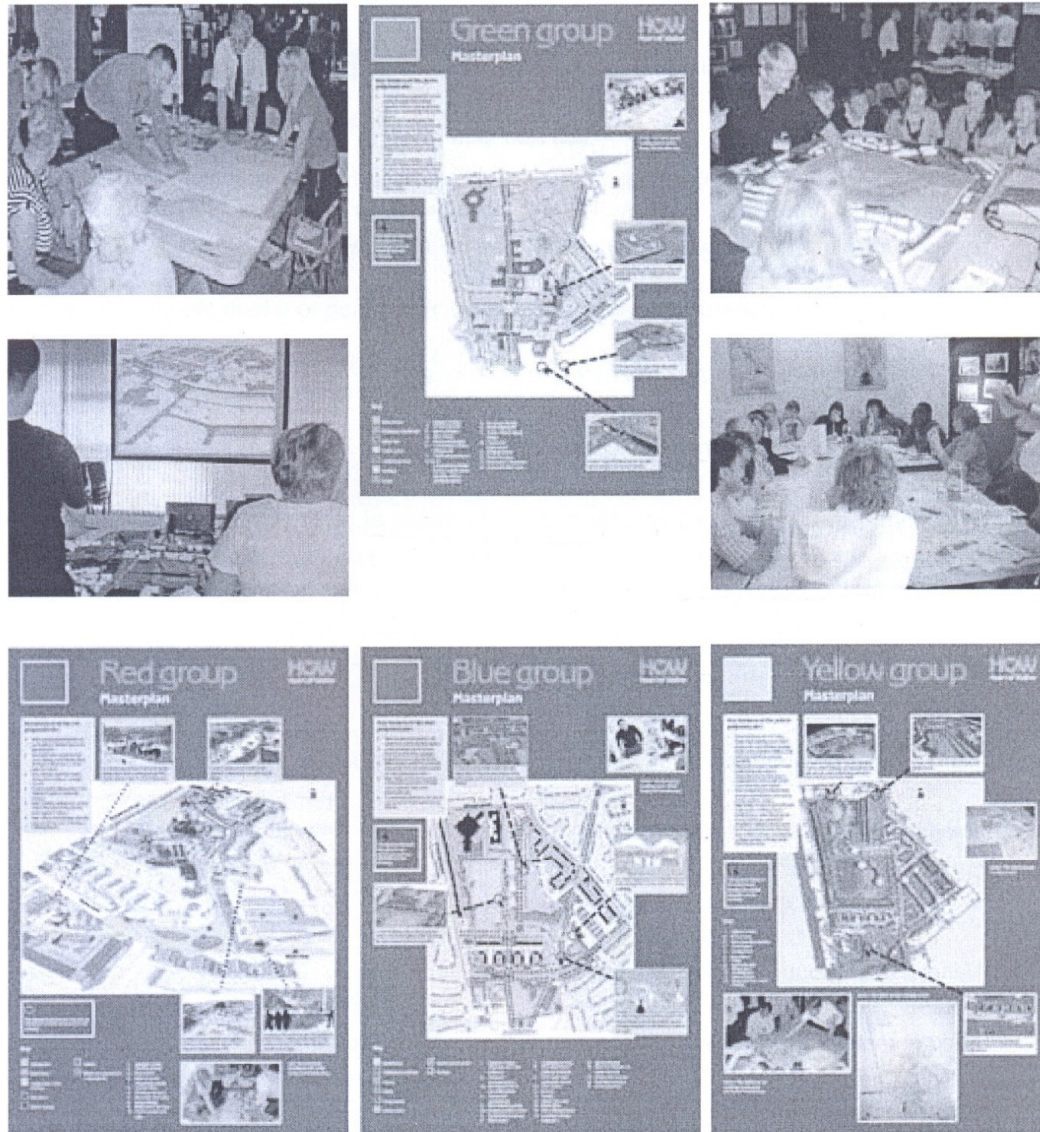


Figure 7.17 Heart of Walker Placemaking Event: the event in progress, and draft Masterplans from each team (NCC, 2009b)

## 7.4 Discussion

### 7.4.1 The role of urban design in Walker

From BNG's and NCC's view, high quality urban design was considered as an important factor for the delivery of the aims of Walker Regeneration to make Walker a 'location of choice' by diversifying the housing offer and providing a new district centre. The Masterplan for Walker Riverside was supported by the Walker Riverside Design Code Supplementary Planning Document. The Design Code was an example of the

emphasis on high quality urban design for future developments in Walker. The Design Code seems to promote public control on the quality of urban design in the implementation phase. The Design Code includes requirements relating to planning application submissions which should be followed when preparing any application for any site in Walker Riverside. NCC expected the Design Code to be “a tool that would enable a higher level of quality of design and sustainability in the public realm and building form to be realised” (NCC, 2004c, p.5). The Design Code mainly focused on improving the design quality of new proposed development. Some residents responded that they were not sure that the Design Code was what local residents wanted to achieve through statutory consultation (NCC, 2007c). However, the officer in NCC, when asked how the design code will affect Walker regeneration in relation to local community, argued that the local community would benefit from the design code in the long term and put it: “but, you have to be patient. It is not a short term gain”.

It seems that urban design in the housing-led regeneration in Walker Riverside focused on the visual design of new home and residential area. For example, a piece of research for BNG on the value of design, which was carried out by Eljay Research in November 2009 (BNG, 2010), concluded that there were high levels of resident satisfaction with new homes in Walker Riverside, with the general design of new homes and the design of the immediate residential area. The research suggested that the visual design of properties is crucially important, and should be afforded a key consideration and investment in the initial stages of housing development.

The characteristics of the Walker Riverside area were linked with the past regeneration experiences as a community representative commented:

*Regeneration for people has not worked,... shops have closed down, lots of men worked in the heavy industry and have lost their jobs since the 1980's. ... A large area is social housing; Housing down there has never been really upgraded or refurbished or anything (Community representative 2, 2010).*

Therefore, 'raising aspirations' of local communities was also pointed out as an important role of urban design in Walker regeneration in the interview with an officer in BNG:

*I think one of the key issues is about aspirations, and some of our communities just don't have aspiration on various levels. ... In the case of some, you know in Walker, we demolished some houses and with local authorities housing which were being built, and actually saying to people, ok how is this going to work for you? Down to the level of where we had one couple who lived onto the plot, 'Ok, your plots can be exactly the same plot as your house was, so you get that continuity and things like that', so yes, it's sometimes, it is about education as much as anything else, because if you lived in Walker all your life, and yet you have never been to any shiny regeneration scheme elsewhere in the country, how are you gonna understand, what they are, what the possibility is and what the scale of opportunity is, so it's very much about raising aspiration, and I think that once you actually get people, once you actually raise those aspiration, and people having understanding, then you are actually able to get people to fully engage with the likes of the council and articulate actually what they want to see in that area (Officer 1 in BNG, 2010).*

Although parts of Walker may suffer from a poor reputation across the city, those who are familiar with the area and those who live in Walker recognised it as a friendly place and its social network as a comfort and a resource. Despite local residents' worry over the threat of change, the Network and the Partnership acknowledged that change must happen in Walker for it to become a more pleasant place to live and to get back all the services it used to have. Therefore, there was a need for urban design to emphasise how the stigmatised area's poor image can be tackled. There was also a need to mitigate local communities' concern about unnecessary separation of strong and established communities (NCC, 2004d). Urban design has emphasised the sharing with local communities of the vision for the Walker area, as "a place attracting investment, jobs, but also a safe and caring place where people want to live and work" (NCC, 2004c, p. 6).. Furthermore, the Design Code presents the aspirations and requirements for new building, public spaces and interlinkages in Walker.



High quality urban design was emphasised for improving the quality of physical environments or housing quality as seen in the Design Code. However, NCC and P&P were under pressure from the local population to resolve some of the social problems of the neighbourhood, including high levels of unemployment, poor health, low educational attainment, poor services, and a decreasing population. Therefore, there was a need to address social problems on the neighbourhood in the process of urban design with a balance of addressing the problems of the area focused on by Going for Growth. The role of urban design in Walker Riverside regeneration was considered as balancing between improving physical environments and tackling social problems. As an officer in NCC commented:

*Physical problems in Walker have been linked with social problems.... Urban design in Walker has experienced many changes, ... (with different people, and different market condition.) ... Urban design in Walker is not ideal, but it's about responsibility, ... not just social, not just physical. It's for the balance, although it's difficult (Officer 1 in NCC, 2010).*

From the interviews and documentary material, it is clear that urban design has played a significant role in communicating with local residents. Urban design was used as a means of communication with local communities through the Community Enquiry event and the Heart of Walker place making event. In the Community Enquiry event, design groups, including key decision makers and local residents coming together to debate and listen to each other, committed an interactive and iterative design process to occur allowing thought to be committed to paper in a series of design layers. Specific designs and other proposals emerging from each of the design groups were developed to capture views and options of the vision expressed by local residents and stakeholders. Similarly, in the Heart of Walker placemaking event, urban design dialogue was used for communication with representatives from local community groups and residents through developing four options about how the Heart of Walker should be designed. A community representative highlighted urban design for community spaces, a public square, green corridor, and bus station, were developed from the ideas of local residents

and adopted in the Heart of Walker plan through communication using urban design between local communities and PfP.

#### *7.4.2 Community engagement in Walker regeneration*

There was interactive community engagement in the process of master planning for Walker Riverside regeneration. From the interviews and reviewed documentary material, close working with local communities was highlighted on the development of the masterplan. An officer in NCC pointed out the organisation for interaction between NCC, Places for People (PfP) and local communities (the Network) has been effective in meeting community groups and communicating with local residents through ‘quite well-organised channels’. The agreed strategy for community engagement enabled various channels for engaging the community. The Community Development Team of NCC and PfP established groups which interact with the Network on a regular basis. Resident group meetings and the Community Network meetings were held frequently. Members of the Community Development team attended resident group meetings and Places for People attended the Community Network meetings. A variety of different ways was used for delivering and gathering information. Local residents could easily access information and communicate with the Community Development Team and the local drop-in base for enquiry appears to have been an important contact point as community representative 2 commented:

*Community engagement in Walker, they had the team based in Walker. So residents could go and talk to them individually if they wanted to, you know, because for a lot of the planning stuff you usually have to go to Newcastle Civic Centre, so for this scheme, they had a team based on Walker Road...And, they got in contact with a lot of residents groups already running. They also had a magazine, Walker Eye, and delivered it to all the houses in Walker. Advertising and the consultations asked the people to have any ideas or told them what time the office is open, so some people could call in, so they tried to do a lot of communicating with the local residents. ... I've got a lot of information as well; I talked to our members. ... A lot of consultations that were held at the Lightfoot Centre; It was very well attended (Community representative 2, 2010).*

Community engagement enabled local communities to have chances for identifying their visions, discussing their needs and preference, and for having a voice in design and decision making. At the Community Enquiry event, for example, a new Vision for Walker was developed and adopted. There were great concerns by members of the community about the anticipated levels of demolition suggested within the draft Masterplan previously completed by Llewellyn Davies. With community involvement, therefore, the main areas of the plan were refined - in some instances reducing the amount of demolition (Pottery Bank) and in other areas suggesting a more proactive approach to restructuring the urban fabric, such as at Church Walk. The Enquiry also suggested that a new building should be planned to become the centre of community facilities for Walker regeneration. The concept of a new district centre, a vibrant riverside park, new local schools and new housing proposed in the draft Masterplan was discussed with local communities. The Enquiry recommended establishing an identifiable client body and the Project Board was established as a result. At the Enquiry, concerns were expressed about communications, how local people could be involved in the design process for their area, current compensation schemes, and lettings policies of Your Homes Newcastle and other social landlords. A Walker Riverside Promise was produced as an action to build public confidence and support in the regeneration of the area by addressing individual and collective concerns about how local people would be supported during the regeneration process. The officer in NCC and the community representative agreed that there was an intensive engagement programme around agreeing 'the shared vision' in the development process of the Heart of Walker plan. The community representative explained how urban design for the Heart of Walker plan adopted local communities' ideas on a public square, green corridor, new school, bus station, and one multi use building for community facilities.

It appears that community engagement in the Heart of Walker design process also provided a lot of opportunities for active involvement to local residents. Local people actively interacted with urban designer in the designing process and their ideas were accepted in the plan as cited by the representative:

*I think, for a lot of urban design, people has involved in consultation to give their ideas across. And then, urban designers and architects they went away, drew things often, then, came back again to the community. ... You've done things for the Heart of Walker where they choose and what they would want. They wanted a public square, or what they have talked about a green corridor from Walker to the sort of the River, all way up so you could walk. ... So then from residents' idea, they had to pick one of them that was more practical and could work. ... So, residents had been quite well involved in whole things. It was putting the ideas down, thus if all the different groups took part in that drawing, on the bits that people would be happy with. So, then, the urban designer could come up with a sort of imagination of all those different ideas. "See! this is what we say, we can do practically within the area we have gotten, time scale or what are supposed to be provided such as shops and community based stuff", so was have all those facilities in there.*

Positive evaluation about community engagement in Walker regeneration was reported in a report from the Audit Commission to examine Walker Riverside Area Action Plan. The report evaluated that the community involvement process in Walker was successful in gaining a genuine commitment from the community:

*The success of the community involvement process in Walker to date has gained a genuine commitment from the community to the regeneration process. This is shown by their support and dedication to the creation and reformation of local groups and to the Network and Partnership; and consequently in the later stages, in the turnout to event, genuine interest in working in small working groups towards solutions to specific areas or issues and establishing the partnership to bring together established groups in the north of the regeneration area. (Audit Commission, 2004)*

Another Audit Commission's report (2009) highlighted active community involvement as one of the strengths of Walker regeneration:

*Residents have been heavily involved in regeneration planning in Walker and residents recognised the opportunities they have to influence decisions (Audit Commission, 2009).*

Similarly, there was an agreement in the interviews that community engagement in Walker regeneration was considered as being very positive to local residents. The aspirations of local people were high with the community engagement as community representative 2 illustrated:

*Local residents were happy to go along to see what's happening, because they thought 'we will see all these big plans to be updated when things will be happening'. (Community representative 2, 2010)*

One concern is that long delays in the time scale for implementation after the economic downturn caused disappointment for local communities with Walker Riverside regeneration. A community representative commented:

*They (local residents) haven't rejected the idea of regeneration altogether, but they want it to be a bit quicker. They want to happen it now. ... Residents have been involved about what they could expect to see. It is just a shame that they haven't actually seen any of it yet. A lot of residents have attended consultations and stuff like that for six or seven years, so it is a long time. .... People who were involved had their ideas put on paper, but haven't seen things in reality. ... As time goes on, less and less people personally had contact with urban designers and were interested in regeneration (Community representative 2, 2010).*

The officer in NCC also questioned how the regeneration is going to be funded and when the regeneration plan for the community will happen. The officer in BNG explained the situation in relation to community:

*In many instances, disillusion with programme had a lot to do with economic recessions and a lack of activities. Promises have been made and then, they are not delivered. ... particularly in Walker, where we have got off to a good start, there was a lot of front-end engaging with residents, ... but things have slowed on the way and you get a lack of activity, then, you are engaging again with residents who are saying that 'you are engaging with us, but nothing has happened and what's the point?' You can get to a point where you can lose a community (Officer 1 in BNG, 2010).*

The officer in BNG explained the tension with local communities about the disillusion over the regeneration programme and argued that it is important to keep the communities on board:

*We have had some tension. What Bridging Newcastle Gateshead had done is, we have a residents' panel, which tries to focus on broader strategic issues as opposed to what's happening in Walker. And that way we can have a direct link between the residents' panel and our Board to help inform our thinking about how we are doing things, I would honestly be telling you a big fat lie if I said 'yes, we had no problem with community', because it's massive change for these communities, both in terms of physical changes to their area where there is demolition, new housing coming forward, things like that, often in places of Walker where there has been removal of all the facilities, because shops have been demolished and things like that, haven't been replaced in the timescales that has been initially anticipated, so yes, there has been tension (Officer 1 in BNG, 2010).*

## **8. Discussion: A comparative analysis of the three case studies**

### **8.1 Introduction**

The research strategy of this thesis is based on the comparison of urban design in urban regeneration in England and South Korea. Chapters 5 to 7 explored a detailed empirical investigation of urban design in urban regeneration in the different context of three case studies. The comparison in this chapter focuses on the characteristics of case study areas, urban regeneration actions, urban design approaches, and community engagement, with similarities and differences found in the case studies. This chapter responds to specific questions asking the roles of urban design in urban regeneration, tensions and challenges of urban design, factors affecting community engagement, and channels for undertaking community engagement.

The subsequent chapter nine focuses on detailed discussion and recommendations on urban design in urban regeneration in the Korean context. Chapter ten concludes with a discussion of implications for urban design in urban regeneration in Korea from English experiences. Thus, the discussion in this chapter provides insights into the discussion and the arguments made in the chapters that follow, on the relation of urban design both to urban regeneration and to community engagement.

### **8.2 The characteristics of the study areas**

The Scotswood and Walker areas have experienced continued population decline. The population in Scotswood, between 1981 and 2001, had declined by 40.6% from 11,000 to 6,553 (ONS). In Walker Riverside, the area's population had reduced by 41% between 1971 and 2001. BNG pointed out over-supplied social rented housing as one of major factors of the population decline with a low demand in the housing market. The tenure balance in Scotswood area was 45% of stock in the social rented sector, and 46% of owner occupation, 7% of private rented (2001 census). Walker had the highest level of council rented households at 73%, owner occupation at 22% and private rented at 5%

(2001 census). This compares with a city average of approximately 34% of social rented, 53% of owner occupation, 11% of private rented.

In Singil most house owners are elderly people who have lived there for a long time and they let part of properties. The portion of letting parts in the properties is very high. As a result, the ratio of private letting tenants to owner occupation is extremely high (approximately 7:1). Although there is difference in that the letting tenants in Singil area are mainly private rented residents compared to the two study areas in Newcastle where they are mostly social rented tenants, the composition of residents and owner occupiers in Singil is not dissimilar to the situation in the two study areas in Newcastle.

In Singil, physical problems, which were pointed out when Singil was designated as a regeneration promotion district, were mainly about insufficiency of public infrastructures including roads, open spaces and parks, and parking spaces. However, it is likely that the need for physical transformation was not overwhelming. From the survey in May 2004, the proportion of respondents in Singil viewing the environment as unsatisfactory was just one third. Also, the interviews with local residents and property agents revealed that local residents do not have a negative image of the Singil area in relation to their life in Singil. The elderly people who have lived for the long time in Singil, of whom a high portion were land owners seemed to have a high attachment to Singil. The land owners have had economic benefits with the rents from letting part of their houses in the current situation. The housing size for each household is very small at the average size of unit is approximately 50m<sup>2</sup>. The letting part of their houses has been almost fully occupied and the demand for letting seemed quite high due to low rents and high accessibility with transport. Therefore, it is hard to judge that Singil is an unpopular area to live or that Singil has been socially or economically deprived.

A close investigation of this study reveals that the problems in Scotswood and Walker were complex problems with dominantly social problems such as high unemployment, low income level, and low skills levels and low levels of educational attainment, fear of



crime, limited range and quality of shops and services, and poor health indicators. To these social problems were added poor external image and perception of the areas amongst outsiders and were linked with physical problems including, poor quality housing, and poor quality public space. The negative images of the areas were considered as a characterised problem of ‘housing market failure’ in Scotswood and Walker. In particular, the negative image of the West End including Scotswood is long-standing, entrenched and has been continually reinforced by the media. In Walker, despite the negative perception about the area amongst outsiders, there is a strong sense of community based in the solidarity that developed as a result of working and living together for a long time (Madanipour and Bevan, 1999; Madanipour and Merridew, 2004).

### 8.3 Urban regeneration in the case studies

The government’s policies on urban regeneration and regeneration programmes strongly affected urban regeneration in the three study areas. Urban policies and regeneration programmes acted as external drivers of regeneration at the wider level, e.g. Going for Growth, urban renaissance, and Housing Market Renewal Pathfinder programme in the cases of Scotswood and Walker, and ‘Newtowns in City’ and Regeneration Promotion Projects in the case of Singil. Internal drivers of regeneration with different contexts in the three case studies also affected urban regeneration (table 8.1), and the outcomes of regeneration in each area was a result of the interaction of these external and internal drivers.

	External drivers	Internal drivers
Scotswood	Going for Growth Urban renaissance	Aspirations to change the stigma Riverside view
Walker	HMR pathfinder programme The emphasis on city competitiveness	Strong sense of community Strong social networks
Singil	Newtown in City initiative Regeneration Promotion Project	Location near Yeoido sub-CBD and excellent public transport Strong attachment of local residents to the area

Table 8.1 External drivers and internal drivers of urban regeneration in the case studies

Urban regeneration actions for the case studies in both countries have been mainly focused on housing-led regeneration and improving the quality of the public realm. The mega-scaled regeneration in the Singil area was promoted by the Newtown in City and Regeneration Promotion Project initiatives. The Regeneration Promotion Plan mainly includes new housing development with high-rise apartments after the mass demolition of existing housing (14,796) and the clearance of urban structure in the entire regeneration area.

Scotswood and Walker regeneration were both subjected to 'Going for Growth' aiming to reverse Newcastle's population decline and Housing Market Renewal aiming to tackle low housing demand through creating a better housing balance to support a more diverse population. In the cases of Scotswood and Walker, the housing-led regeneration with quality housing supply seems to be a dominant output of urban regeneration. However, Scotswood regeneration included a large scale demolition of social housing (1,256) and the relocation of residents with initial clearance proposals using existing Council resources. The mass demolition has raised a serious tension between NCC and local residents.

Although tenure change towards owner occupation and a reduction in voids and housing abandonment were major issue on housing in the Walker area as in the Scotswood area, NCC had a different approach to regenerate the Walker area. The urban regeneration approach in Walker emphasised a close working with the local community based on a strong sense of community and included neighbourhood issues for improving community services and the selective clearance of empty social housing, mainly in Walker Riverside area (599) together with housing refurbishments (497).

There is a need to discuss who leads urban regeneration in the case studies. HMRP was a state-led regeneration programme aiming to tackle low housing demand and to rebuild housing market and communities. Therefore, the public sector has been directly

involved in the process of urban regeneration in Scotswood and Walker regeneration under the Going for Growth and HMR programmes. Whilst NCC set out strategic plans for urban regeneration and participated in the partnership and BNG directly supported public funding, there were differences between Scotswood and Walker regeneration. Whereas Scotswood regeneration was dominantly led by NCC, a partnership with PFP, the strategic regeneration partner, was established in the early stage of urban regeneration in Walker and the partnership led Walker regeneration.

In the case of Singil, the public sector led the planning stage of Singil regeneration. Seoul City Council directly designated the Singil area as a Newtown in Seoul and as a Regeneration Promotion exemplary project. Yeoungdungpoku council (local council) led the planning process of Singil regeneration with the appointed master planning team. Whereas the public sector was a key regulator and simultaneously a key producer with the public-private partnerships in the implementation phase in the two cases in Newcastle, the implementation stage of Singil regeneration is led by a partnership of land owners and the private sector.

The economic downturn has strongly affected urban regeneration of the selected case studies. Urban regeneration in the three study areas is facing a high risk of failures in implementation with the economic downturn. The similarity can be found in that urban regeneration in the three study areas has been delayed or discontinued because the condition of housing markets has not guaranteed the viability of regeneration. Political change at national level also affected Scotswood and Walker regeneration with the withdrawal of public funding. Therefore, the challenge of delivery in Scotswood and Walker regeneration might be how to retain the legacy of regeneration positively and to minimize negative effects on the local community and the whole city. In the case of Singil, the public management programme has been started as a response to shorten the time scale. On the other hand, a longer timescale might be a chance to discuss alternative approach in the process of Singil regeneration as a response to the increased tension between local residents.

#### 8.4 Urban design approaches in the case studies

Urban design in the case studies attempted to link different aspirations at the city level and the neighbourhood level. However, there were mismatches between both sets of aspirations and linking both levels of aspirations in urban design seems to be difficult. Urban design approaches in the selected cases show differences in the strategic design level and the site-specific design level related to the scales of urban regeneration. The contrast of urban design approaches is related to whether the urban design process adopted top-down interventions or bottom-up approaches.

In the case of Scotswood, it is likely that urban design approaches focused more on the aspirations at the city level with aims for creating a new urban neighbourhood to tackle population decline by transforming the image of Scotswood. On the other hand, the neighbourhood's aspirations focused on to improve community services including local transport, shops, and public facilities. The public sector (NCC) dominantly led the process of urban design with appointed urban design consultants and urban designers in NCC. Although a steering board was organised to negotiate with other stakeholders, the involvement of local residents were limited.

The 'top-down' urban design process led to environmental-focused urban regeneration with a physical approach to solve urban problems. Whilst high quality urban design was emphasised from the early stage of the master planning process, the emphasis on urban design was really about urban design quality in the physical aspect which is not so relevant to the focus of a community-based strategy. The design-led approach with the Housing Expo idea to change the images of a whole area radically was incorporated in a large scale demolition and housing-led redevelopment strategy aiming to attract middle-class homeowners. However, the neglect of social urban design exposed the area to market forces, with negative results. Not surprisingly, many of local residents expected little local benefits from urban design and concerns were raised about the loss of existing communities.

In the case of Walker, urban design approaches seem to focus more on aspirations at the neighbourhood level than other two regeneration cases. The Going for Growth strategy for the East End emphasised the importance of community involvement. Community organisations, including the Network and East End Community and Voluntary Sector Forum influenced the selection of the developer, the Places for People consortium. A joint steering group of NCC/PfP led the process of urban design with appointed planning consultants, Llewelyn Davis. The process of urban design emphasising close working with local communities contributed to bottom-up approach and captured the aspirations of local people. Urban design approaches focused on improving the design quality of new housing and the façade of refurbished housings, providing design guidance for speculative future developments, and improving community services, including the provision of school, the improvement of public transport, and the development of the local centre. Suggestions for improving community services in a series of urban design guides and a phased approach for small scale new housing developments, and refurbishments in Walker focused on improving the quality of existing built environments based on the locality.

Singil regeneration has had two different urban design stages – 1) the master planning stage controlled by the public sector and 2) the site-specific design stage led by the Land Owners Committees and appointed private construction companies. The ‘Newtown in City’ initiative limited the urban regeneration strategy to a large scale housing redevelopment with building new high-rise apartments after mass demolition reflecting aspirations at the city level, such as a balanced development and the improvement of residential environment to support the Yeoido sub CBD area. The master planning process was dominantly led by the master planning team consisting of professional experts and Yeoungdungpoku Council and Seoul City Council regulated the process. However, the implementation of regeneration relies on the land owners’ agreement. Therefore, urban design in the Singil area needed to consider reconciling landlord profits with improving physical conditions. The interviews revealed that there are difficulties in the site specific designs for each Regeneration Promotion zone in a

practical linkage between the public interests and the private interests in the development zones. Although the Development Committee was organised to coordinate different interests, the mismatch between the public interests which were represented in the master plan and the private interests of land owners seems to be difficult to be negotiated by the Committee because of the limitation of the public sector's control on private owned properties. Letting tenants are not considered at this stage. Therefore, tenants who make up the majority of the local population in Singil were excluded in the site specific designs for each Regeneration Promotion zone.

Urban design in Singil regeneration was perceived as generating built form with a focus on the product. Although it is likely that urban design considerations were discussed from the early stage of the master planning process, major urban design considerations were about supporting planning considerations such as zoning, infrastructures, deciding floor area rate and building heights for each zone, and deciding the percentages of different housing sizes. Urban design also focused on providing a network of community streets and open spaces, public facilities, and on the layout of high rise apartments to improve the cityscape. However, the top-down master planning process and the limited use of urban design within a radical transformation of urban form raised a serious concern about social consequences. A high proportion of owner occupiers are elderly people and they have a strong place attachment. They are concerned about the loss of existing communities and the loss of monthly income from the rent of their properties. Also, a low resettlement rate of existing residents is expected as local residents were concerned about unaffordable housing price after redevelopment. On the other hand, the proportion of private letting tenants is extremely high (87.6%). The letting residents are disadvantaged by the urban design approach. Most letting tenants in Singil area are low-income families and they have to move to another area providing affordable housing. Therefore, there is a concern of isolating and marginalizing the displaced residents (Ha, 2007).

## 8.5 Community engagement in the case studies

In the case of Singil, the master planning process was dominated by professionals rather than engaging local residents. The Singil Masterplan was developed by the urban design team which was controlled by a senior planner and a master planning team consisting of professional experts and the officers of local authority. The professionals-led top-down master planning was not a form of partnership with local community. Therefore, it was not effective to reflect local residents' needs or preferences. The major consideration in the master planning process was the emphasis on physical urban redevelopment after the demolition of the existing urban form. This actually ignored social issues of local residents and the continuity of existing communities. However, the urban design process has a totally different context after the master planning process. The process of the Joint Redevelopment Project will be led by landlords. Landlords' agreement is a key factor which enables the master plan to be implemented. Therefore, there were inevitable mismatches between the master plan and landlords' views and preferences, and between landlords' motivation and letting residents' interests. There remains a question about how a lack of community engagement in the master planning process will affect the future JRP process to reach a general agreement for the development of each Regeneration Promotion zone.

*Why Walker regeneration is seen as a relatively more successful case of community engagement than Scotswood regeneration?*

The two Newcastle study areas were both subjected to Going for Growth and the HMR Pathfinder programme. As reviewed, HMR Pathfinder emphasised community engagement. Therefore, the urban design process attempted to include community engagement. However, the master planning process in the case of Scotswood was a state-led approach with the form of top-down decision making. For example, the whole process of developing the Scotswood Masterplan and the Scotswood Expo design competition was led by NCC and appointed urban design professionals. It had little room for negotiation or the community as Giddings (2006) argued on public sector master planning. The range of mechanisms for community engagement was limited to

conveying information about urban design which was already decided by the public sector rather than designing in collaboration with the community. Also, local communities are likely to be unable to be actively engaged due to the fundamental mismatch between the objectives of urban regeneration and local residents' motivations.

In the case of Walker, with bottom-up approaches to enhance engaging community, local communities seemed to be engaged actively in the process of urban design. A partnership approach with the community network in the Walker's case was a useful step in facilitating coordination and communication and in providing information. As a form of partnership with the local community, various channels for engaging local communities were used in the master planning process. The channels were to identify communities' views and to adopt their view in the decision making. A good working relationship with local residents was established. Community engagement enabled urban design in Walker regeneration to have the broad support of the community and to reflect the community's preferences and aspirations for the future of Walker. Particularly, the dialogue on urban design, including the Enquiry by Design event in developing the preferred option for the AAP, and the Heart of Walker place making event, were used to engender community engagement through the interactive communication with local communities.

The strong sense of community and 'social capital' in Walker, as Madanipour and Bevan (1999) highlighted, appear to enable local residents to involve themselves actively in the urban regeneration process. In the typology of social capital categorised by Harriss and de Renzio (1997), 'political capital' is created by the relation between civil society and the State through the norms and networks which enable society to mediate conflict by "hearing, channelling and composing multiple citizen demand" (p. 933). The role of the community organisations such as the Walker Riverside Community Network, East End Community and Voluntary Sector Forum and partnership bodies appears vital in providing direction and focus for community engagement in urban regeneration as seen in the example of the 'key principles' and the



‘strategy for community involvement’ in the Walker case. Local drop-in centres with support workers working directly with community groups appear to be crucial for community engagement and the subsequent building of ‘political capital’ with confidence and trust between local residents and the development partnership including the state (NCC, BNG) and PfP.

## **8.6 What kind of tensions and challenges does urban design face in the practice of urban regeneration?**

There are tensions and differences among stakeholders’ viewpoints in urban regeneration as highlighted in the case studies. For example, depending on the different viewpoints of interviewees in the case of Scotswood, the role of urban design was recognised differently. Officer 1 in BNG emphasised the role of urban design as being ‘at the centre’; Urban designer 1 evaluated the role of urban design as being ‘highly esteemed’; Community representative 1 questioned the role of urban design as having ‘no role for local communities’. In the cases of Scotswood and Singil, local residents recognised that top-down approaches have not necessarily provided any benefits to residents. There are challenges of urban design in urban regeneration in relation to the following tensions identified in the case studies:

### *Gentrification versus local identity*

In terms of urban design, this tension is related with the extent of a mismatch between current users and end users as a result of urban regeneration. The case studies clearly show this tension between the advocacy of gentrification as a result of urban regeneration (with the public sector’s perspective, especially, in the case of Scotswood and Singil) and the fear of gentrification (with the local residents’ perspective). The Newcastle cases were influenced by Going for Growth and HMR programmes in which academic literature is concerned with the end result of ‘gentrification’ (Amin et al., 2000; Akinson, 2003; Lees 2003, Cameron, 2003, Cameron, 2006). Similarly, Ha (2007) argued that the market approach of housing regeneration projects including JRP in Korea is ‘a landlord-initiated gentrification process’. From the interviews, the

representatives of local residents commonly criticised large scale demolition. They were concerned about an expected disharmony between existing local communities and new residents (in the Scotswood and Walker cases), losing their own houses/rents and the low possibility to stay after regeneration due to a lack of affordability (in the Singil case). A range of urban design interventions needs to consider how to integrate the urban regeneration within the locality to reduce the disharmony between existing communities and new residents.

### *Large scale versus smaller scale*

The case studies reveal that the scale of regeneration is closely related with what urban design actions focus on. Whereas the urban design approach focused on large scale design actions in Scotswood and Singil regeneration, the urban design approach in Walker regeneration seems to be more focused on smaller scale design actions with selective redevelopments. In the case of Singil, mega-scale housing redevelopment with demolition was supported by the Newtown in City initiative to enhance the radical improvement of public facilities in the sub-district area (Yoon, 2006). There is a need to carefully consider the different scales of design concerns. Especially, urban design in large scale regeneration, such as the Scotswood and Singil cases, needs to coordinate large scale design actions with detailed design actions in a smaller scale. Various cross-related urban design actions, such as the application of urban design guidance interconnected with different scale and the application of different design approaches with the consideration of contexts, would be necessary (Punter and Carmona, 1997).

### *Radical transformation versus conservation*

This tension in urban design is clearly connected with other tensions discussed above. The tension between radical transformation and conservation in urban regeneration was cited by the interviewees in the cases of Scotswood and Singil. It may be expressed as protest against radical transformation from local communities (Robinson, 2005). Prioritising the focus of urban design between both should reflect a careful analysis of the area and considerations of the external/internal drivers of regeneration. Urban design may be applied with different approaches for separate parts of urban regeneration areas; or with a selective prioritised approach in the case of Walker, for example, using the

transformation strategy involved for some areas selective sites innovative designs for new development in a wider area which was conserved, and in others conserving selective sites to sustain the existing contexts within a wider regeneration area with radical transformation.

### *Tensions over timescale*

The case studies imply that there is a need to consider the timescale of urban design in two dimensions: the timescale of designing and the timescale of implementation of urban regeneration. In the case of Singil, the interviews with urban planner/designer illustrated that a short time schedule is given for designing in the process of urban design in urban regeneration in Korea. The short time schedule of urban design may limit careful consideration or communication. Rowley (1998) addressed that adequate time must be allowed for better urban design. Conversely, although the urban design process has taken a long time, it still has a serious problem with the time scale of implementation of regeneration in the cases of Scotswood and Walker. The long delay for the implementation to improve community services suggested in the master plan and the uncertainty of delivery appear to rather increase the local residents' disappointment. It is difficult to judge how long a time would be a right time schedule for urban design in urban regeneration (Carmona et al., 2003).

### *Urban designers as an image maker versus as a collaborator*

This challenge is related to the perception of stakeholders of urban design. The interviews with urban planners/designers in the case studies commonly pointed out that the urban designer was mainly treated as a person who draws good-looking images rather than as a coordinator. Lang (1994) underlined that urban designers need an integrationist viewpoint with the various roles of urban designer as image maker and formal artist, as applied ecologist, as infrastructure design, and as a social force. The roles of urban design, discussed above, raise a critique of the dominant perception on urban designers (or urban design) in the practice of urban regeneration. Urban designers were involved in urban design as public employees or as private consultants for the public sector in the case studies. Lang (1994) argued that urban designers for the public sector should consider the non-paying clients linked with the actual users, and the

public interest. The current perception investigated in the case studies should be shifted to more consideration of urban designer as ‘a midwife’ and as ‘a collaborator’ (Lang, 1994) alongside the emphasis of the social dimension of urban design in urban regeneration.

### **8.7 What kind of roles does urban design play in the practice of urban regeneration?**

*In terms of the roles of urban design, the case studies highlight that urban design is one part, which may play important roles as in urban regeneration, of the wider regeneration actions. As an interviewee commented about the relation between urban design and other aspects of the regeneration: Urban design is just one part of the wider regeneration objectives in an area, but it is an integral part. If you don't get it right, you will be back there in around ten years time, fixing what you did in the first instances, and I mean, I think one of the things that I would suggest in regeneration, the physical manifestation of regeneration is bricks and mortar, but that isn't what regeneration is, that is just a visual side of it. Behind that has to be a whole range of a social and economic interventions, to improve skills, to improve aspiration, to improve educational attainment, helping well-being and it's about all of those things. It's about working in a partnership with partners from other agencies to achieve that. Design is central to all that but you could say it's not the one thing (Officer 1 in BNG, 2010).*

The case studies highlight that urban design contributes to urban regeneration as a place-shaping mechanism. Urban design as a place-shaping mechanism in urban regeneration focused on two different, but interrelated contributions of urban design in urban regeneration. One is the environmental contribution, and the other is the social contribution of urban design. The former role of urban design was recognised as shaping better quality places with quality design. The latter was recognised as providing better places for the everyday life of existing users and end users as the social

consequences of urban regeneration. The case studies presented that urban design plays various roles in urban regeneration:

#### *Improving the design quality of the built environment and standards*

In the case studies, urban design was considered to play an important role in improving the quality of the built environment after regeneration. This focuses on the process of giving physical design direction to its physical products. It focuses on the quality of design products and values of products. The interviewed officers in the public sector and urban planners/urban designers commonly emphasised this role which is emphasised in the public sector's perspective. The need for public control in role of urban design through setting design standards and indicating the next steps in design guidance (Cowan, 2002) aims to improve and maintain the quality of the built environment as commonly emphasised in the interviews. The quality of the design objective, design principles and design guidelines is directly related with the quality of urban design (Walters, 2007).

#### *Raising the profile of urban regeneration with an innovative design*

In the case of Scotswood, this role was identified from the interviews. Scotswood Housing Expo idea was clearly linked with the idea that an innovative urban design raises the profile of the regeneration. The approach of urban regeneration with high quality design is likely to be used in two ways: 'contributing to the marketability of the product', and 'improving the symbolic value of the place' to attract new residents (Madanipour, 2006). Gospodini (2002) suggested that urban design can be used as a means of handling the problems of marginalization and decline, by means of design innovations for more disadvantaged cities. The emphasis on design excellence was applied to spreading urban regeneration to surrounding areas from a specific area, where the innovative urban design is applied as a catalyst. This role is linked with a drive towards place marketing (and even 'branding'), in which it is the image (both self-image and external perception of) cities that has to be transformed as Cochrain (2007, p. 4) highlighted.

### *Promoting diversity in housing choices and activities*

This role focuses on ‘diversity’ as one of three categories of urban form, including density, diversity, and spatial-structure pattern (Lynch, 1981, Tsai, 2005). Promoting diversity in housing choices and activities in urban regeneration was highlighted in the cases of Scotswood and Walker. The emphasis of urban design’s role in improving housing choices was linked with the objectives of Going for Growth and the HMR Pathfinder programme. From a close investigation of the case studies, a land use mix and a provision of various housing types was discussed. One significant consideration on diversity is that it is directly related to social change or social consequences. Academic literature included mixed use, mixed age, mixed rent, social mix and activity richness as requisites for liveable cities or urban form (Jacobs, 1961, Punter, 1990). However, the emphasis on social mix through improving housing choices was expected to change tenure structure in the case studies. This may result in radical social change and conflicts.

### *Raising aspirations of local residents*

Some interviews pointed out the part urban design plays in raising aspirations of local residents in urban regeneration. In the case studies, local needs for urban regeneration seemed to be attached to local residents’ aspirations to change negative images on the regeneration areas. Raising aspirations was recognised as an important role of urban design in urban regeneration in the case studies, considering the gap between people’s negative perception and the attachment of local residents’ to the regeneration areas; and the legacy of failed regeneration in the past in the cases of Scotswood and Walker. Urban design can be used to suggest ‘possibility and the scale of opportunity’ through ‘visioning’, as a process to think about how community should be and find ways to identify, strengthen, and work toward that end (Sanoff, 2000, p. 25).

### *Enhancing the sense of community*

Although how much urban design enhances the sense of community may be debatable, this role was cited by the interviewees with some examples from the case studies, such as the process of designing community spaces in the case of Walker and a design of the

circulation of community streets in the case of Singil. Urban design provided a physical design or a design process aiming to enhance the connectivity of separated communities and to enhance the sense of community. This role is related to the importance of public use and public space, streets and pedestrian routes under the concept of the ‘public realm’ (Punter and Carmona, 1997), especially lively activities, functions and facilities at street level to engendering the chance to meet amongst local residents (Jacobs, 1991, Whyte, 1980).

### *Communicating with local communities or various stakeholders*

The case of Walker shows that urban design plays an important role in the communication with local residents and various stakeholders. The development of a participative approach enabled the use of urban design dialogue, for example, the ‘planning for real’ exercise, the ‘community enquiry by design’, and the ‘place making’ event used in the case of Walker, to enhance interactive communication among various stakeholders. Punter and Carmona (1997) highlighted that design appraisal by public consultation “may be particularly important in the case of large-scale or controversial developments, and these will provide important insights into public perceptions and values” (p. 300). Forming partnerships with local communities appears to be important to bridge the communication gaps in the urban design process (Carmona et al., 2003). The experience of communication in urban design is likely to raise aspirations of local residents through reflecting their views and preferences on urban design.

### *Enhancing local residents’ liveability*

A close investigation of the case studies reveals that local residents’ viewpoint on urban design focuses on how urban design improves their liveability. In the case studies, local residents expected urban design to reflect their need from improved local shops, access to a better-quality environment and an enhanced range of amenities and facilities, as the benefit of better urban design for ‘everyday users’ identified by Carmona et al. (2002). Urban design enhances community benefits through various ways, such as providing community services and facilities, improved transportation and open spaces, and promoting local jobs. Local residents are major stakeholder with community interests

with primary motivations focusing on reflecting local preferences and protecting property values and compatibility in design and uses (Carmona et al., 2002. p 148).

### *Balancing between social problems and physical problems*

In the cases of Scotswood and Walker, complex social problems rather than physical problems seem to be the main source of the need for urban regeneration. Compared to the direct focus on social problems of the NDC programme, the HMR programme integrated physical solution in response to social problems which may be related to the problem of low demand. The case studies also reveal that both physical problems and social problems are interrelated to each other. Urban design needs to consider how urban design balances between improving physical environments and tackling social problems as cited by the officer in NCC. According to Roberts (2000), the urban regeneration process includes social analysis, including social stress, deprivation, skills and capabilities, community facilities, ethnic and other minority issues. This role of urban design would be more significant when it is applied to urban regeneration of residential areas which experiences social problems. Urban regeneration in the three case studies applied to residential areas; therefore, urban design applications to the case study areas needed to include a consideration of neighbourhood characteristics and local residents in the social dimension of urban design.

## **8.8 What are factors affecting community engagement in the process of urban regeneration?**

Community engagement refers to ‘the mechanisms for identifying community views and the channels for undertaking engagement’ (Russell, 2008, p 11). Community engagement is closely related with following issues identified in the case studies.

### *Local residents’ perception*

How local residents perceive the process of community engagement including public consultation is one of the important factors affecting community engagement. In the case of Scotswood, local residents have a high level of consultation fatigue based on



their experience as a legacy of failed urban regeneration in the past. The negative perception of local residents in Scotswood appeared to restrict the ability of communities to engage with regeneration programmes. In the case of Singil, local residents considered the master planning as a process which is planned only by experts and the public sector. Therefore, local residents perceived the consultation as involving a pre-decided plan by experts using professional language and jargon. In the case of Walker, local residents perceived community engagement more positively as a channel to have a voice than in the other two cases.

### *Local residents' motivations and benefits*

It is clear that these are major factors affecting the level of local communities' interests in urban regeneration. The high level of interests from local residents is directly interconnected with the high expectation of their benefits, including community benefits for their everyday life or economic return, after urban regeneration. In the cases of Scotswood and Walker, improving community services through an enhanced range of amenities and facilities was local residents' major interest. There are also different motivations and benefits among local residents and landlords. The differences may raise serious tensions as investigated in the case of Singil. Local residents were not relevant to community benefit because most of them would not resettle in Singil area because of the strategy of large scale demolition and redevelopment. On the other hand, the major interest of owner-occupiers was landlord profits as Ha (2007) pointed out.

### *The openness of the process of urban regeneration to local communities*

How much the process is opened to local communities is significant for community engagement. In the case studies, informing the community of the detail of urban regeneration in various ways and providing chances for community involvement in decision making seems to increase local communities' interests and confidence in partnership organizations which leads the urban regeneration process (Sanoff, 2000). In the case of Walker, local communities could easily access information through various channels such as a local drop-in base for enquiry and the community network. Local residents recognised the opportunities they have to influence decisions as investigated in the selection of the developer (Audit Commission, 2009). In the cases of Scotswood and

Singil, the top-down approach appeared to limit the openness of the process of urban regeneration to local communities.

### *The level of willingness to adopt local communities' opinions*

The level of willingness to adopt local communities' opinions directly affects the level of acceptance/adaptation in the decision making process. The case studies reveal that the adoption of local communities' opinions in decision making is difficult due to a frequent mismatch with the top-down regeneration aims, and due to frequent conflicts among their opinions. Despite these difficulties, if the traditional power holders of urban regeneration have a higher willingness to adopt local communities' opinions, community engagement would include the higher levels of participation such as 'partnership', 'delegated power' and 'citizen control' in the Arnstein (1969)'s ladder of participation. In the case of Walker, higher willingness to adapt plans as a result of interactive participation was highlighted in the designing process and the community's ideas on a public square, green corridor, new school, bus station, and one multi use building for community facilities were adopted in the plan. The high level of willingness to adapt plans would be fundamental to increase the chances for local communities to accept plans for urban regeneration (Sanoff, 2000).

### *The constraints on community engagement*

Blakeley & Evans (2008) argued that genuine community participation in urban regeneration is unrealistic because of social and economic inequalities and political constraint. Various constraints of community engagement were investigated in the case studies. A lack of power and resources supporting community engagement was pointed out in the case of Scotswood, reflecting Bull and Jones (2006) highlighting of the uneven distribution of power and resources. In the case of Singil, the limited time and political constraint (e.g. a limitation of statutory consultation in the government's regulations) were pointed out. Despite higher level of community participation, the case of Walker may imply that the uncertainty of implementation would be a constraint of community engagement. Community engagement in urban regeneration needs to continue to implementation.

### *Trust or mistrust*

Moreover, there are tensions, in relation to community engagement, between local residents and the representatives of community representatives as a panel member (the case of Scotswood) or as a steering committee member (the case of Singil), and between local residents and local authorities as investigated in the case studies. A significant issue on these tensions, highlighted in the case studies, is *mistrust*. Community engagement in the process of urban regeneration will inevitably involve some degree of conflict over power relationships. Mistrust can act as a major barrier to community engagement (Hibbitt et al, 2001). In the case of Walker, social capital in the Walker neighbourhood was emphasised with a strong sense of community and identity which seems to prevail supported by strong social networks (Madanipour and Bevan, 1999). One of the key elements identified in the literature on social capital is the importance of trust and expectations of reciprocity in prompting individuals to take risks, or to give their time, often unpaid, with little guarantee of the outcome of a process (Hibbitt et al, 2001). Hibbitt et al. (2001) highlighted the potential role of social capital which can play in regeneration is to transform the relations of mistrust into ones of trust. Community engagement in urban regeneration needs trust building which would be an essential process for conflict resolution with mutual credibility.

### **8.9 What channels for engaging community are used in the process of urban design in urban regeneration?**

The comparison of similarities and differences in community engagement between the three case studies identified the following types of activities for community engagement in urban design in urban regeneration:

#### *Setting out key principles and the strategy for community engagement*

In the cases of Scotswood and Walker, the key principles of community engagement were identified to promote the effectiveness of community engagement. Whilst the principles were set out only for the consultation of Benwell Scotswood AAP in the Scotswood's case, the key principles were set out from the early stage of the master

planning process with the agreement between PfP and the Community Network and incorporated into the Strategy for Community Involvement in the case of Walker. The principles suggested how communication with local communities is realised and how communities are engaged in decision-making process through various methods.

### *Organising a community network*

‘Partnership’ enables communities to negotiate and engage in trade-offs with traditional power holders (Arnstein, 1969). To involve local communities in partnership structures (ODPM, 2004), community organisations play an active role to increase resident participation. In the case of Walker, the East End Community and Voluntary Sector Forum, an umbrella organisation, and the Community Network consisting of representatives of local residents groups were created for the regeneration of the Walker Riverside. It is likely that the influence of the local community increased through the organisation of the Network and regular meetings between the development partnership and the Network. The Network played a role as the main point of contact within the community. Organising a community network may develop a less time-consuming bottom-up approach for communication with local residents through a two-step communication; first, communication between the representatives of communities in the network and a development partnership, and second, communication between the representatives and local residents.

### *Gathering information from the community*

This activity is important to gather local residents’ contextual knowledge about the area, local preferences, and their ideas for the vision of the area as ‘experts at living around here’ (Mathers et al., 2008). In the case studies, door-to-door household surveys or postal surveys were commonly used to obtain information. Leafleted questionnaires and a mapping exercise using a conceptual map were also used in the two Newcastle’s cases. In developing the Benwell Scotswood AAP, the ‘planning for real’ exercise entitled ‘one big idea map’ (NCC, 2006d) utilising large-scale models was used to identify and address problems and to encourage participants to make suggestions (Carmona et al., 2003). In the case of Walker, regular Network meetings, community events, community

workshops, meetings with local residents in specific local areas were also provided channels for gathering information from local people.

### *Conveying information*

Providing information to local residents enhances their understanding and enables them to make more informed decisions. Whilst the meetings with landlords' representatives were limited to convey information in the case of Singil, a variety of different ways used to disseminate information in the two Newcastle's cases included newsletters, publication in the local press, posters, flyer, briefing meetings with local residents, and road shows. In the case of Walker, the Walker Eye magazine, local drop-in centre, and Network meetings were successful in provided information to the communities as highlighted in the interviews. The local drop-in centre offered advisory support with opened information and the community development staff maintained good relationships with local residents. The drop-in centre appeared to be an important channel for community engagement as Hibbitt et al. (2001) suggested that 'drop-in' facilities offer a crucial first step into social inclusion and the subsequent building of confidence and trust.

### *Involving the community in communication with other stakeholders*

Providing opportunities for local communities to communicate with other stakeholders is one of important channels to provide local communities with a voice in design and decision making (Sanoff, 2000). Some community representatives were involved in Steering Boards in the cases of Scotswood and Walker. The channel of communication with other stakeholders for local communities in urban design appears to be useful to discuss shared visions and develop ideas to improved plan or design. In the case of Walker, local communities had various opportunities to communicate with other stakeholders through initial meetings, discussions in specific local areas, community Enquiry by Design, and Heart of Walker placemaking event. However, the community representatives as panel members may not sufficiently reflect local communities' voice and priorities as cited by a community representative in Singil.

### *Developing options using urban design*

As already argued, using urban design dialogue is one of significant channels for undertaking engagement as highlighted in the case of Walker. Community members worked with urban planners and designers to produce neighbourhood concepts and alternative spatial design options in an Enquiry by Design event in developing the preferred option for the AAP. Another example is a two day Heart of Walker placemaking event through which representatives from the local community groups and residents developed four options of alternative draft masterplans with discussion of the visions and spatial design. In these event, architects and urban designers helped teams of community representatives and stakeholder staff to contribute their ideas to the production of alternative spatial design options.

### *Statutory consultation*

Statutory consultation is a minimum standard for community engagement in the urban regeneration process. In developing the AAPs (the Scotswood and Walker's cases) and the Heart of Walker SPD, asking for community feedbacks on alternative options was used during the eight weeks period of statutory consultation. In the case of Singil, the statutory consultation included two weeks consultation asking stakeholder's opinions and a public hearing event for the draft Masterplan. However, statutory consultation tends to be a form of passive participation retaining for the power holders the continued right to decide rather than interactive participation (Arnstein, 1969, Pretty, 1995) as cited by local residents.

### *Management after the implementation of urban regeneration*

Hurwitz (1975) argued that people must stay involved, throughout the process, and take responsibility with professionals to see that there are results. Community engagement in implementation and after the implementation of urban regeneration would be important in the sense that local residents take responsibility in the management of end-products of urban design as major users of the built environments. There is a need to emphasise the responsibility of communities in the management of the legacy of urban

regeneration in their neighbourhoods for sustainability as the officer in BNG highlighted:

*It relies on neighbourhood management too. ... It relies on the local authorities putting your resources in your area to make sure that if you can improve whole lot of properties, people are not fly tipping in the back lane and things like that. So, in that longer term, neighbourhood management and their involvement is absolutely central to our management, because without that, without changing people's habits and attitudes towards the neighbourhood and place, respecting the agenda, you are only doing the half the job (Officer 1 in BNG, 2010).*

## **Chapter 9 Priorities for urban design in urban regeneration in the Korean context**

### **9.1 Introduction**

Chapter eight focused on a comparative analysis with the investigation of three case studies. This chapter discusses issues on urban design in urban regeneration in the Korean context. The discussion is based on the analysis of interviews with five academic scholars in Korea. The purpose of the analysis of the interviews was to explore various academic scholars' viewpoints and implications in the Korean contexts. The interviews were focused on the roles and the process of urban design in relation to urban regeneration and community engagement in the Korean context. The first section of this chapter discusses the roles of urban design in urban regeneration. The second section discusses the relationship of urban design to urban regeneration. The third section discusses community participation in the process of urban design in urban regeneration. The fourth section focuses on the management of urban design outputs in the post-design stage. The fifth section discusses overall implications in the Korean context.

### **9.2 The roles of urban design in urban regeneration**

#### ***9.2.1 The evaluation of the roles of urban design in urban regeneration***

The interviews with academic scholars reveal that although the public control of urban design is positively working in urban regeneration, it is likely that public design control is currently weak because of the emphasis on marketability in urban regeneration projects with the crisis of the property market (Scholar 5, 2010). Some scholars evaluated that urban design has not been considered to play a key role in current urban regeneration in Korea:

*'I think urban design has not been playing any specific role in the beginning of the process of urban regeneration and it has not been a key role in the whole process of urban regeneration in Korea. ... Considering Newtown in City projects and the Regeneration Promotion Projects, in practice, a master planner*



*controls the planning process and urban design is included from the beginning. Urban designers or master architects have been given the chance to be involved in the process from the beginning in considering how urban design will be developed in accordance with the planning. However, their involvement is still limited and the early involvement is only applied in the strategic planning phase of the Regeneration Promotion Projects. On the other hand, the role of architects is considered rather more important than that of urban designers in housing-led regeneration at the neighbourhood level, for example, in projects based on the Act on the redevelopment of the urban and residential environment (Scholar 1).*

Some scholars criticised the fact that the current perception of urban design is focused on drawings looking good visually. That brings a need for change to ‘designing a place for people’ in the perception of urban design in urban regeneration and a need for the early involvement of urban design in the planning process:

*A reason for the limitation of the urban design role is the current perception of urban design as providing good visuals. ... If an urban designer is considered as a person who draws good visuals, the approach of urban design would be focused on how to draw looking good visuals, not on designing a place for people. On the other hand, if an urban designer is involved in discussions to improve the quality of urban regeneration outputs and communicates with local residents, the approach of urban design would be more focused on providing positive contributions on urban regeneration and on designing a place for people (Scholar 3).*

*In the planning process in urban regeneration, there is a tendency that visuals and illustrations for final presentations are considered as important outputs of urban design. Detailed urban design is usually developed after planning. That could bring a mismatch between planning outputs and design outputs. It is a problem in time scale. Urban design should be included from the early stage parallel to planning in urban regeneration (Scholar 1).*

### 9.2.2 The roles of urban design in urban regeneration

The interviews suggested the roles of urban design on a range of issues relating to the consequences of urban regeneration in Korea.

- Physical consequences: Most scholars pointed out urban design in urban regeneration leads to physical changes of the built environment and it needs to play an important role in improving the quality of the built environment. Although ‘*place making*’ has been a key issue in urban design in urban regeneration, interviews also questioned the positive social consequences of making high quality places. One interviewee argued that there has been a mismatch in practice between the areas where urban regeneration has been needed and the areas where urban regeneration has been implemented (Scholar 4).
- Social consequences: Most scholars emphasised the social aspects of urban design. The role of urban design as a ‘midwife’ to elicit a community’s needs and values (Lang, 1994) was discussed. ‘*Urban design can involve local residents in the process, for example, in the understanding of the areas, local needs, problems, and visions of local residents, from the early stages to the design outputs. ... That could be a social role for urban design in urban regeneration (Scholar 1).*’ Providing more social services and social facilities to deprived neighbourhoods through urban design was also suggested. Whereas most scholars agreed that inducing social changes could be necessary in some areas, they were concerned that excessive social changes after urban regeneration produced gentrification. ‘*One important issue is on residents before and after urban regeneration. I think the motivation for participation of local residents depends on whether they will resettle in the same areas. If they are willing to move to other areas and sell their property rights, their participation would have little motivation from the start of urban regeneration. ... Assuming that the urban design process is better with the participation of existing residents, urban design should promote a higher resettlement rate*’ (Scholar 1).
- Economical consequences: Some scholars agreed that urban design brings added economic value. However, they also pointed out that marketability has been highly emphasised in urban design in urban regeneration and that should be balanced with social aspects in urban design.

The interviews also emphasized the role of urban design within wider urban policy and the role of urban design in relation to sustainability.

*'Urban regeneration in the Korean context needs to consider social aspects more than physical aspects. Urban design also needs to make an ambience for urban regeneration beyond the physical improvement, because urban regeneration is also related with economic development such as providing jobs, and with the competitiveness of the city. It means that the non-physical roles of urban design as strategic urban policy should be focused on (Scholar 2).'*

*'Regarding sustainability, urban design can be a background to the cycle of regeneration to help cities to maintain their functions. (Scholar 4)'*

### **9.3 The relationship of urban design to urban regeneration**

Important considerations of urban design in relation to urban regeneration were discussed from various viewpoints in the interviews. One major consideration is the relationship of the specific regeneration area to existing residents within the wider surrounding built environments.

*'Urban design in urban regeneration should consider how to match between specific sites and the existing built environments. One important issue is, in relation to existing inner city residents, the choice of promoting the influx of people of heterogeneous characteristics or homogeneous characteristics. ... Urban design should take a strategic approach depending on the characteristics of areas. Innovation may be needed to provide a chance to spread changes from urban regeneration. ... If the urban design approach aim is that the regeneration site is absorbed by surrounding environments, homogeneous characteristics should be provided. On the other hand, if the approach aim is that the regeneration site spreads innovation to surrounding environments, heterogeneous characteristics need to be included (Scholar 1).'*

In practice, identifying the scope of urban design was also highlighted. *'If the scope of urban design is identified as a comprehensive strategy including more consideration of social aspects beyond physical aspects, ... urban design should integrate the visions of urban regeneration with the visions of communities towards a consensus (Scholar 3).'* One scholar pointed out a need for more consideration of a qualitative approach in terms of the quality of places, with a critique of a traditional urban design approach emphasizing quantitative targets in Korea.

*'Urban design in urban regeneration should be towards making places for people, and making an ambience for revitalising the area. However, there has been a tendency in urban design to consider people or targets for visions as numerals. I am rather dubious about making an index before designing, and deciding rates in design elements without deliberation of design quality beyond numbers (Scholar 2).'*

How urban design responds to current economic condition and to the continuity of urban policies was pointed out as an important consideration. *'In the planning phase, urban design might choose the optimal options at that time, however, currently economic and cultural conditions on urban regeneration have been changing. ... Urban design has not responded actively to the unpredictable changes in future (Scholar 4).'*

## **9.4 Community participation in the urban design process in urban regeneration**

### ***9.4.1 Evaluation of current community participation in the urban design process***

Academic scholars commonly recognised that communities are provided with little chance to be involved actively in the process of urban design in urban regeneration. The interviews pointed out that the level of community participation is usually limited to a two-week statutory consultation and public hearings based on the regulations of Acts which control the urban regeneration process. Some scholars argued that the limited

community engagement is because the current policies are not ready to include an active community participation process.

*'Community participation in urban regeneration is limited just at the level identified in the related Acts. Although the needs of community participation have been talked about, it is not easy to put it in the policies. There have been some examples of voluntary efforts of local residents towards urban regeneration.... Their efforts to regenerate their neighbourhoods with cultural changes beyond physical improvement are oriented by community participation. However, current policies and regulations are not ready for that, because the consensus on community participation is linked with the limitation of the time schedule. So, there is a lack of consideration for community participation; a lack of trial and errors; a lack of cases which can evaluate the effectiveness of community participation; and a lack of research on that (Scholar 1).*

#### **9.4.2 Different views on community participation in the urban design process**

The interviews reveal a controversy over the practical application of community participation in the process of urban design in urban regeneration. Some scholars strongly agreed with the active participation of local communities in the design process. A scholar argued that the justification for community participation in Korea can be based on the rights of ownership and the rights of users. *'It is not reasonable that the urban design process is dominated by other stakeholders such as local authorities, professionals, and developers without the involvement of owners of properties and users of places (Scholar 4)'*. Another scholar agreed with active community engagement in the urban design process in urban regeneration in terms of time and costs, enhancing project acceptability, and promoting better maintenance.

*'In the urban design process, many potential problems are rooted in the fact that very limited time is given in practice for urban design actions in urban regeneration. Active community engagement in the process of urban design is difficult to realize in the given limited time and limited costs. Although more time and costs are needed for the active community participation process in the initial design stage, I think, the time and costs for community participation are*

*spent to reduce potential problems that could happen after design. It is not desirable that planning and design are developed very quickly with little consideration for communities; as a result, problems and tensions have been brought as social issues with the plans and design. ... In regeneration at the neighbourhood level, aspirations of existing residents to improve their neighbourhoods are required. Community participation in the urban design process can bring people together with negotiated common goals by sharing the process and time together, then promoting a sense of community, a sense of belongs, and a sense of place. Places which are made with the process of sharing common goals and time would be better for the neighbourhoods (Scholar 1).'*

Conversely, some scholars in the interviews doubted the effectiveness of community participation in the process of urban design in urban regeneration in Korea. They argued that there is a dilemma in community participation in Korea. There is a huge gap in motivations among local residents, especially between property owners who invested for economic benefit and local residents who want to stay in the regeneration area. In that sense, the representativeness of people who raise their voice in public hearings or participation events was questioned. Political constraints in current urban design, including a systematic constraint of community participation by regulations, political decisions on urban regeneration, and the current discontinuity of the feasibility of urban regeneration in practice, also raised doubt about the effectiveness of making collaboration in urban design with community representatives.

One interview brought a fundamental question about whether a sense of community exists among local residents in urban regeneration areas.

*'From my experience as a master planner, I sometimes faced the question about the reality of a sense of community in the area. ... Designing something with 'communities' of existing residents, who intend to leave the area after the regeneration but still want to voice in the process, could be not a real community engagement process (Scholar 2).'*

### 9.4.3 Differentiating the approach to community participation in the urban design process

Beyond the controversy discussed above, interviews suggested that the level of community participation in the process of urban design should be differentiated case by case.

*'It (community participation) is unlikely to be successful in the condition of prioritising economic benefits from regeneration. It would be effective in the condition of prioritising the improvement of the quality of environments surrounding their neighbourhoods. The urban design process with active community participation can be applied case by case. Basically, it could be very difficult in areas with high density such as the inner city of Seoul. It could be effective in neighbourhoods where high proportions of residents have lived for a long time in the area, so residents have some sense of community, and in low density areas (Scholar 4).'*

The tension between the sense of community and economic feasibility was pointed out in an interview. The interviewee argued that *'residential areas where residents give up regeneration due to low economic feasibility, but need regeneration for the improvement of the quality of neighbourhood environment'* may be ideal areas to apply a community-led regeneration process (Scholar 4).

*'I think when the possibility of development becomes weaker, existing community can survive. Active community participation in the process can be meaningful in that condition. Public supports, especially public funding and professional supports should be provided for the community to overcome its weakness and threats. In other conditions, we have to reconsider the effectiveness of active community participation (Scholar 2).'*

#### 9.4.4 *Suggestions towards a better community engagement in the urban design process*

The interviewees provided a wide range of suggestions when asked to recommend further ideas in the process of urban design to promote community engagement. The key suggestions focused on following issues:

- The role of professionals in planning and urban design: The role of urban designers as coordinator was emphasised. *'In the planning process, urban designers can play a role as a coordinator between local residents and the planning authority. Balancing between them in urban design can be realised through bringing attention in the design process to what local residents say and what they want (Scholar 3).'* However, how urban design reflects local residents' opinions and the level of acceptance of local needs interacts with another role of urban designers as an expert. A scholar argued that urban designers should develop a better urban design with their professional knowledge based on local opinions (Scholar 4). In practice, the role of a master planner or master architects in the planning of regeneration promotion projects in relation to community engagement was pointed out: *'It is likely that if a master planner who controls the process is positive in active community engagement, the process can be changeable. There are some trials of community engagement such as meetings and providing information to community representatives before making the residents committees. It depends on the personal efforts of a master planner (Scholar 1).'*
- Including local representatives in partnerships and their representativeness: The openness of the planning process in urban regeneration to communities is important. In the planning process of Regeneration Promotion Projects, communities maybe actively involved in partnerships (Land Owners Committees for each Regeneration Promotion Zone) only after master planning. A scholar suggested that community representatives can be involved in a Development Committee in the master planning stage or from the time of the designation of urban regeneration areas (Scholar 1). However, most scholars were still concerned about the representativeness of resident representatives and



suggested that the urban design process should provide strategies to monitor their representativeness.

- Public support in urban policies: Interviews commonly highlighted support from the public sector in urban policies. Some scholars argued that a more flexible and broader community engagement process is needed than current limited statutory consultation in urban policies. A scholar suggested public sector support in funding for community engagement: *'The community engagement process may need communication tools and leaders as residents' representatives to communicate, then, administrative and monetary public supports are needed. It means that more communication requires the advocacy based approach on urban policies (Scholar 2).'* Another suggested that the public assistance of professionals and an organisation for communication with local communities should be emphasised in a Public Management Programme which started from September 2010 (Scholar 3).
- Education and community empowerment: Education can be discussed as a key suggestion for long term changes in the culture aspect. *'Lastly, education should promote the experience of participation, the perception of grass-root democracy, and the understanding of locality. The education system should encourage every participant to join together and make something together in the process. ... Considering that current culture in the urban regeneration process is led by a few leaders and professionals, outputs through a different process and teamwork could be better and more satisfactory, although the outputs are 80% and outputs by leaders might be 100% (Scholar 1).'*

## 9.5 The management of urban design outputs in the post-design stage

### 9.5.1 Different viewpoints on the emphasis on the management of urban design outputs

The majority of interviewed scholars agreed with the emphasis on the management of urban design outputs in the post-design stage. Some interviews argued that the built environment after the implementation of urban regeneration is not well managed and a management programme should be included in the process of urban design in urban regeneration. A scholar commented on the involvement of urban design professionals in the management:

*Urban designers can be involved continuously after the design stage for monitoring urban design outputs. .... I think that there is a need for not only urban designers producing design outputs, but also urban designers as a professional to understand the needs for changes, modification, and management, especially when local residents and the public sector need knowledge on the management of the built environment (Scholar 1).*

However, a scholar questioned the emphasis on the active management of the built environment in relation to the increasing mobility of the population:

*The management issue does not bring an easy answer. To make the management of urban design outputs have continuity, the identity of the community and the sustainable settlement of local people are required. The presumption of the sustainable settlement of local residents follows many questions on the stable price of property, stable jobs, and etc. I doubt this presumption because mobility has been emphasised in our current culture. Recently, for example, the provision of express railways such as KTX and GTX increased the mobility of people. I doubt that it is necessary or possible that one community sustains for the long term and local residents manage the community together in this situation (Scholar 2).*

### 9.5.2 Community engagement in the management

From the interviews, community engagement in the management of the built environment was pointed out as a key in two ways:

- 1) Monitoring their opinions and needs: A scholar highlighted the importance of local residents' experiences on management. *'Community engagement is essential in management because their (local residents') opinions and experiences on the built environments are important. If the built environment needs some modifications or improvements on the basis of their experiences, urban design can respond on that (Scholar 3).'*
- 2) Community actions for the management: The significance of the community's actions and its involvement was also highlighted in the interviews. *'The management by local residents as users brightens up the place and the built environment. ... Therefore, users of the built environment should be involved in the management as leaders. And, their actions and behaviours can affect the management of the built environment positively (Scholar 1).'* A scholar illustrated that voluntary management movements by communities, with the examples of Yangjaechun and Tanchun Guardians<sup>1</sup>, can significantly facilitate the management of the built environment (Scholar 4). He also argued that the provision of high quality environment by urban design can promote involvement in its management.

A scholar suggested the monitoring process of urban regeneration projects by a residents' representatives committee:

*A residents' representatives committee can be involved in monitoring the urban regeneration projects after implementation and development partners also should be partly involved in the management. There is a need to involve a person or professional who can evaluate the regeneration projects in the*

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<sup>1</sup> Yangjaechun and Tanchun Guardians are voluntary community organisations which manage and monitor environmental quality of the Yangjae and Tan creeks. The organisations perform a variety of activities including monitoring the quality of water, environmental education for children, members meetings, and strolling trails cleaning.

*committee. If so, know-how on management could be accumulated and the know-how can provide experiences to reduce errors in urban design (Scholar 3).*

The introduction of monitoring technology can promote the effectiveness of management. A scholar commented on the ‘Ubiquitous City’<sup>2</sup> idea for the management of the built environment:

*For example, the ubiquitous city idea was reflected in urban design in Dongtan Newtown. Technology based facilities like monitoring poles are monitoring the changes of the built environment on a daily basis. It is management based on a technology and it is positively evaluated. Although the cost is, of course, expensive, the technology can be considered in urban design, and can be discussed with stakeholders. Monitoring through the facilities after the implementation can promote a flexible and quick response on continuous problems which occur in the built environment (Scholar 1).*

## 9.6 Overall implications in the Korean context

The following implications in the Korean context may be identified with the discussion in this chapter:

- ***The roles of urban design in urban regeneration:*** The scope of urban design, in relation to other relevant fields including Urban Planning and Architecture, should be identified for urban design to play an integral role in the process of urban regeneration. Urban design has to play a role in improving the quality of the built environment to make places for people. Urban design actions in urban regeneration need to be considered as ‘designing a place for people’ rather than just as ‘drawing good visuals’. Urban design in urban regeneration needs to balance marketability with social responsibility. The social role of

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<sup>2</sup> ‘Ubiquitous city’ refers to “a city fully equipped with networks through which city authorities in central /local government can monitor almost everything that is happening” Shin, D., 2009, Ubiquitous city: Urban technologies, urban infrastructure and urban informatics: Journal of Information Science, v. 35, p. 515-526.. South Korea’s central and local governments, especially Seoul local government, set up a national urban development project, called ‘U-city’ initiative. The ‘u-city’ initiative aims to enhance “a more convenient lifestyle and a more secure, environmental and humane way of life” for citizens *ibid.*

urban design in urban regeneration, especially to promote a higher resettlement rate for local residents in the same area, should be highlighted. Urban design needs to make an ambience for urban regeneration beyond the physical improvement as strategies in wider urban policy. Especially, urban design in urban regeneration needs to contribute to sustainability in the cycle of regeneration to help cities to maintain their functions.

- ***The process of urban design in urban regeneration:*** Urban design in urban regeneration should integrate the visions of urban regeneration with the visions of communities. Urban design in urban regeneration has to carefully consider existing residents and existing local contexts in deciding urban design approaches. In the process of urban design in urban regeneration, the urban designer needs to be considered as a coordinator and as an expert. Urban design needs to consider more qualitative approach in terms of the quality of places than quantitative targets. Urban design in urban regeneration should be flexible in response to the changes in economic and cultural conditions.
- ***Community engagement in the process of urban design in urban regeneration:*** Regulations relating to urban regeneration need to include a more active process for community participation beyond a limited statutory consultation. The process of urban design should be given adequate time for community engagement. The process of urban design needs to differentiate the level of community participation on a case by case basis depending on the characteristics of local residents, density, and the priority of urban regeneration objectives. The process of urban design in urban regeneration needs to provide strategies to monitor the representativeness of community representatives. The public sector needs to provide administrative and monetary supports for community engagement in the process of urban design in urban regeneration. In the process of urban design, education needs to be provided to promote the experience of participation and understanding of locality.
- ***The management of the built environment:*** Urban designers need to be included as a professional to provide their knowledge in understanding the needs for changes, modification and management of the built environment after the implementation of urban regeneration. In the management of the built environment, the local community's opinions and needs should be monitored and the local community needs to be involved in the management.

## Chapter 10 Conclusion

### 10.1 What is the social role of urban design in engendering community engagement in urban regeneration?

The empirical work in this thesis, in chapters five, six, and seven, shows how different urban design approaches influence community engagement and bring about the different outcome of urban regeneration. State-led top-down approaches in the urban design process restrict the channels of community engagement and have not necessarily provided acceptable benefits to local residents themselves. Physical solutions for urban regeneration turn to large-scale demolition and radical transformation as a strategy in urban design. The neglect of social urban design exposes the regeneration area to market forces, with negative results in the social aspect. Not surprisingly, concerns can be raised about social consequences and the loss of existing communities. Conversely, the community-based bottom-up approaches in the urban design process provides various channels for undertaking engagement and enhancing the ability to identify community views.

One of contributions of urban design in urban regeneration investigated in the case studies is that urban design can be used as a mechanism for public control represented by the master planning process and the provision of design guidance for future applications. The urban design mechanism for public control enhances the influence of the public sector on the quality and the effectiveness of urban design products. This focus of urban design on public control emphasises setting out design standard for improving the design quality of the built environment. The public control of urban design appears to be linked with the significance of urban design from the regulator's perspective (Madanipour, 2006), which can be found in how it makes the city more competitive by helping shape the future of the city and managing change. Considering the built environment as a product of urban design, if providing design guidance is one of political mechanisms for providing public control through urban design, the public sector can be an important contributor to improving and maintaining the quality of the built environment (Carmona et al., 2003).

According to Madanipour (2006), another significance of urban design from the regulator's perspective is helping to develop better governance arrangements. Community engagement is crucial to develop better governance in urban regeneration. Urban regeneration, especially applied to residential areas, faces issues related to existing communities. Setting priorities for the existing communities in urban regeneration inevitably require 'the mechanisms for identifying community views and the channels for undertaking engagement' (Russell, 2008) in the process of urban design in urban regeneration.

The social dimension of urban design would be the antithesis of top-down master planning. According to Lang (1994), urban design is 'an ongoing highly value-laden argumentative process'. The argumentative nature of the process of urban design in urban regeneration requires interactive communication between the state and communities to respond to the various tensions identified in this thesis. With an emphasis on the participative/collaborative approach (Punter and Carmona, 1997), urban design plays a role in community engagement, as a means of engendering community engagement in urban regeneration. Urban design dialogue, for example, the 'planning for real' exercise, the 'community enquiry by design' event, and the 'place making' event, can be used as a means of communication with local communities. Two-way interaction with urban design dialogue causes or gives rise to a feeling of inclusion and enhances local communities' awareness and perception of urban regeneration through genuine participation in decision making to create actual design based on their priorities and preferences.

The distinctiveness of urban design in urban regeneration, if urban design plays a role as 'a place-shaping mechanism', would be that it should respond to the questions of 'place-shaping for whom?' and 'whose place in relation to existing local communities?'. Urban design in the form of interactions with communities also acts as a channel for engaging community to interlink between the existing users of place and the end user of place as 'the second-order client of urban design' (George, 1997, Zeisel, 1974). The tension of gentrification as cited by the interviewees in the case studies would be a key challenge in the social dimension of urban design in urban regeneration. Urban design

dialogue enhances the chance to help local communities communicate their own responses to the fear of gentrification and negotiate via design alternatives which provide more community benefits.

Designers' priorities and aspirations may not be congruent with those of users (Vischer, 1984). Whilst there is the designer-user gap, the role of urban designer as 'an enabler of user involvement' (McGlynn, 1993) is emphasised in the interactive urban design dialogue with local communities in urban regeneration. Good relationships with urban designers as the coordinator working directly with local communities 'on the ground' can act to reduce some of the mistrust, between local communities and professionals, which acts as a barrier to community involvement (Hibbitt et al., 2001).

## **10.2 The potential of urban design in urban regeneration**

This thesis highlights the potential of urban design to play an important role as a process of integration – between the external and internal drivers of regeneration, among different aspirations, and between physical problems and social problems. With taking into account the characteristic of urban design as a process of integration, this thesis highlights the potential of urban design to be responsive to the social consequences of urban regeneration. In delivering good design in urban regeneration, urban design can consider both existing users and end users of the environments with the issues of '*quality of life, particularly in terms of the public realm*' (Schurch, 1999), dealing with the public components of the built environment (Lang, 2005). A responsible urban design in urban regeneration would be a positive attempt to provide meaning and identity in people's relation to their surroundings and it can make changes for urban regeneration towards better places for maximizing choice for end users, but not at the expense of the quality of life of existing users. It is important to take into consideration how the process of urban design in urban regeneration as 'a social process' can be a collaborative arena to integrate different interests of various stakeholders. Communication between various stakeholders, especially with local communities, in developing design and in a decision making, can balance benefits from urban regeneration and promote local communities' supports for the outputs of urban regeneration.



Furthermore, achieving sustainable development is a challenge for urban design in urban regeneration (Roberts and Sykes, 2000a). This thesis highlights the potential of the process of urban design in urban regeneration as an ongoing process to be important aids to sustainable development. The process of urban design can make a contribution on the sustainability of urban regeneration through design considerations relating to sustainability in designing, the efficient and effective implementation of urban design, and the management of the built environment after urban regeneration. However, sustainable development will not be achieved without positive support of people's habits and attitudes. Therefore, community engagement may be a crucial part in the process of urban design in urban regeneration for enhancing sustainability to promote local residents' sense of ownership for places and to let them take a responsibility in the management of the environments as users.

To achieve the potentials of urban design addressed above in the practice of urban regeneration, there is a need for a shift in the perspectives of urban design in urban regeneration from generating *good visuals or functions* towards urban design as a collaborative and ongoing process of 'making better places' (Carmona et al., 2003, p. 3) concerning not only improving existing urban environment and the quality of life for users, but also the management of the built environments with the legacy of urban regeneration (Madanipour, 1996, 1997).

### **10.3 Specific applications to the Korean context: learning from the English case studies**

The following implications for urban regeneration in Korea may be identified from the English experiences in urban regeneration with the cases of Scotswood and Walker:

- The roles of urban design in urban regeneration: Urban design in urban regeneration in Korea tends to be considered 'drawing good visuals' to support urban planning considerations of the physical aspects. The case studies of Scotswood and Walker regeneration clearly show that how urban design actions balancing economic, physical, and social sides are important to reduce

disharmony between existing communities and new residents, and to tackle the dominant problems of deprived areas. In the Korean context, urban design in urban regeneration needs to give more consideration to the social side, considering current negative outcomes of urban regeneration, including radical social change, the low resettlement rate of existing residents, and a lack of affordability of new housing. The English case studies imply that urban design needs to be differentiated in terms of the scale of urban regeneration with different urban design approaches, for example, the Housing Expo idea, small scale housing refurbishment, and design control for future developments. In the Korean context, urban design in urban regeneration needs to apply various approaches rather than a dominant approach symbolized as building high rise apartments after demolition. The English case studies show that urban design needs to play a role in raising aspirations of local residents in the deprived areas and raising the profile of urban regeneration in secondary cities. In the Korean context, the social roles of urban design should be considered in relation to the local residents. Also, more active public sector support, including administrative support and public funding, may be needed for the deprived areas, especially in smaller cities located outside of the Seoul Metropolitan Area.

- Community engagement in the process of urban design in urban regeneration: In the Korean context, the process of urban design in urban regeneration needs to include a more interactive process for community participation beyond a limited statutory consultation. Various activities for community engagement, investigated in the English case studies, particularly in the Walker case, can be applied to the process of urban design in future urban regeneration in Korea. In the Korean context, communication with local communities in the process of urban design should be included in negotiating and integrating different viewpoints of stakeholders, as highlighted in the case studies. Communication with local communities should be continued through to the delivery of urban design. The negative perception about the reality of community engagement as ‘consultation fatigue’ and ‘mistrust’, investigated in the Scotswood case, provides a significant implication. For future urban regeneration in Korea, community engagement in the process of urban design should be realistic in order to pay attention to community needs and value and to provide community benefit.

## 10.4 A plan of action for communities in Korea

The recommendations for action in the process of urban design for local communities in Korean urban regeneration practices seek to:

- In creating a partnership: Support the formation of a local community voluntary organisation such as a Community Network as a main point for contact; assign support staff; organise a partnership with local communities, and if it is possible, involve local communities in deciding a private development partner.
- In appraising the situation and forming goals: Set out the principle and the strategy for community engagement; provide local drop-in facilities; use a variety of channels for gathering information from local residents and conveying information; and ensure that appraisals and goals are community based and based upon locality analysis.
- In the design process: Involve local communities in communication with other stakeholders; involve local communities in developing alternatives through using urban design dialogues such as community enquiry by design event; avoid jargon and encourage putting local communities' preferences into design options and alternatives; avoid a concentration on aesthetic issues in favour of issues of context, public realm, and community benefit.
- In evaluating, selecting and creating a plan: Involve local communities in decision making by evaluating options and alternatives; consult all stakeholders and ensure that the consultation focuses on getting open feedback to assess and improve the plan.
- In implementing, monitoring and following up: Continue public support on capacity building for local communities; consult local communities to identify any problems; review performance and monitor progress; and communicate with local communities about community benefits.
- In management: Support voluntary community organisations involvement in the management of the built environment and gather opinions and ideas for improving the quality of the built environment; continue advisory support, and ensure that there are local communities' supportive habits and attitudes towards enhancing sustainability for neighbourhood management and place.

## 10.5 The practicalities of the recommendations for Korea

A group interview with three interviewees (one academic scholar, one officer working for Seoul City Council, and one professional urban designer) was conducted to 'test' and discuss the practicalities of the recommendations for Korea that this thesis proposes. The discussion focused on whether the recommendations are appropriate and how they could be enacted in practice for Korean urban regeneration.

The interviewees pointed out there have been following changes, in the situation of Korean urban regeneration, which enable the recommendations to be applicable:

- 1) Alongside the property market bust, an alternative approach in urban regeneration, focusing on the neighbourhood level rather than large scale redevelopment schemes with demolition, has been adopted.
- 2) Alternative design approaches in urban regeneration rather than the approach of large scale physical transformation has emerged with a need for reappraisal of urban regeneration projects, especially Newtown in City projects.
- 3) The need of public sector to support community engagement in urban regeneration has been rapidly increasing.
- 4) The number of voluntary community groups has been rapidly increasing with a spread of using Social Networking Services(SNS) and smart phones.

How could the recommendations be enacted in practice? An interviewee pointed out that Korean residents in large cities have relatively little interest in the needs of communities of place. That may be an obstacle to organising voluntary local communities, and to form a collaborative partnership for urban regeneration. Therefore, the interviewees stressed that the public sector needs to support the institutionalisation of local community and to support the capacity building of local communities through training and education from the early stage of urban regeneration.

After the real estate market bust, the possibility to involve voluntary community groups in partnerships for urban regeneration has been increasing. The interviewees

emphasised the importance of the role of the public sector to make linkages among existing voluntary community groups, to communicate with the groups, and to maintain the continuous participation of the groups through the process of urban design. However, the recommendations and the actions that this thesis proposes might not be applicable to all regeneration projects in Korea. The proposed actions for urban design for local communities might be more practical depending on the characteristics of regeneration areas. The interviewees suggested that the proposed actions could provide a compatible guideline to engender community engagement in the process of urban regeneration in the following circumstances:

- 1) Profit from urban regeneration: Regeneration areas where a large amount of profit is not expected from urban regeneration.
- 2) Density: Regeneration areas where the existing built environment has lower density.
- 3) Tenant structure: Regeneration areas where the rate of owner occupier is higher than the rate of tenant or regeneration areas where the rate of social residents is high.

The interviewees suggested significant check points to ensure that the recommendations could be enacted in practice.

- 1) Letting tenants should be involved as local residents in all the process of urban design in urban regeneration.
- 2) The roles of the public sector are important. For the public sector, there is currently a lack of capacity and human resource to support community engagement in the process of urban regeneration. There is a need for support community staff with the assistance of professionals, such as social coordinators or urban designers, who are specialised for the process of community engagement. Financial support from the public sector can be justified through the ability to identify the priorities of the public and to generate the support of the public.
- 3) Smaller scale selective regeneration projects rather than a larger scale demolition and redevelopment projects such as Newtown in City project will have more chances for the participatory design process to be enacted effectively.

- 4) Public policies to encourage community engagement in the process of urban design in urban regeneration needs to be provided. Guidance for urban regeneration could include a detailed process and actions. Also, programmes of national government could provide advisory supports and a grant-in-aid.
- 5) An agreement between the public sector and local communities or between local community members is not compulsory and might not be kept continuously in the whole process of urban regeneration. Therefore, there is a need to put local communities' preferences in urban design in a formal agreement.
- 6) National government's programmes or regulations need to include the statements of regulatory incentives to encourage the community-based process or penalties to control the cases which disregard the agreements of partnerships for community engagement.

#### **10.6 The contribution to knowledge of this thesis**

The social dimension of urban design in urban regeneration involves an integration of urban design, urban regeneration, and community engagement. The most significant contribution made by academic literature on urban design in urban regeneration is that urban design needs to recognize the complexity of interests of various stakeholders and to negotiate with different goals and motivations. The mismatch among different goals and motivations often leads to serious tensions in the process of urban regeneration. Academic literature on the roles of urban design dominantly advocates a participative/collaborative approach with a critique of the uneven distributions of power. On the other hand, academic critiques of community participation in urban regeneration reveal the possible result of inequality rather than social inclusion. Therefore, one of contributions to knowledge of this thesis is to reveal tensions and challenges which urban design faces and to suggest the potential of urban design through an integrated linkage between the social role of urban design and community engagement in urban regeneration as a response to the advocacy of participative urban design approach and the academic debate on community engagement.

Whilst Korean academic literature highlighted the negative social consequences of urban regeneration, academic literature on urban design has dominantly focused on the

physical products of urban design rather than the process of urban design. A contribution to the debate about the neglect of social urban design in urban regeneration of this thesis would be suggestions for improving the social dimension of urban design in the Korean regeneration context through learning lessons from the English case studies through the comparative study. The contribution of this thesis has also been expanded to seeking a set of practical suggested actions for communities in Korea and the outputs of testing of these recommendations.

### **10.7 Limitations of the research**

This thesis has sought to understand the social dimension of urban design in the practice of urban regeneration. In the early stages of the research, this research was intended to investigate both the process, and the products, of urban design in urban regeneration. As the research progressed, it became increasingly clear that how the products of urban design improve the quality of urban environments and the quality of life for users could not take place without a close scrutiny of the comparison between before and after urban regeneration in the physical and social aspects. A post facto investigation with observations and documentary review of urban design can account for only part of the story. The more important side of urban design considered in this thesis has been the social role of urban design and understanding of the process of urban design. The focus of the thesis was shifted to the process of, and community engagement in, urban design. This was an effective approach to investigation in a limited time. Nevertheless, there have perhaps been two significant disadvantages of taking this approach. The first has been that the focus on the process of, and community engagement in, urban design without close investigation of urban design products has limited the ability of the research to penetrate the practice of urban regeneration. The second has been that the focus was shifted away from possible judgements about what good urban design products can realistically achieve for urban regeneration areas and local communities.

In the stage of selecting case studies, three types of urban regeneration were initially identified and the investigation of relevant cases for each type in both countries was intended. Efforts were made to contact various stakeholders for six cases and to collect relevant documents, however, these proved unsuccessful. Subsequent investigation

focused on three selected cases, which was characterised as a HMR Pathfinder areas and a Regeneration Promotion Project area. These involved regeneration in what are mainly housing neighbourhoods. Although coverage of these cases has been an effective approach for in-depth investigation of the process of urban design and its link to community engagement, it restricted the ability of the research from discussing various contexts of urban regeneration in terms of a greater variety of scales, of land-use types and of urban regeneration policies. In the stage of data collection for in-depth case studies of the research, efforts were made to contact different groups of stakeholders including developers in private partnerships, urban design consultants, and resident representatives in steering groups (in Scotswood and Walker); new residents in Walker; the senior planner, an officer in Seoul City Council, and representatives of steering Committees and tenants in Singil, but these proved unsuccessful. The research is therefore heavily reliant on interviews with key stakeholders and documentary evidence, facilitating an analysis of how urban design in urban regeneration was evolved, but it downplayed attention to the outlook of a wider variety of stakeholders. Also, changing economic conditions and political changes affected the implementation of urban regeneration in the selected case studies during the progression of this research. The time scale of urban regeneration has been unpredictable. Therefore, investigation covered mainly the planning stage rather than detailed site designs, and it has limited the ability of the research to understand urban design considerations at the site-design level. In future work, it may be possible to focus more sharply the products of urban design, various contexts of urban regeneration, and a wider variety of stakeholders, for a better understanding of urban design in urban regeneration as an ongoing process concerning the outputs, and the management, of urban regeneration.



## Appendices

### Appendix 1 Initial investigations of selected other cases (except for Scotswood, Walker and Singil)

#### *Type 1: Greenwich Millennium Village (Greenwich peninsula, UK)*

Greenwich Peninsula has been used for a range of industries, but industrial uses were dwarfed after the gasworks opened in 1887. For almost 100 years Greenwich Peninsula supplied gas to communities in south-east London, before the gasworks become redundant due to changes in the industry. By the mid 1980s Greenwich Peninsula was left largely derelict and contaminated by industrial waste of large industrial uses and redundant gasworks site. English Partnerships (EPs), the Government's national regeneration agency, acquired 121 hectares of land on the Peninsula from British Gas, the previous landowner in 1997. English Partnerships has led the comprehensive regeneration of Greenwich Peninsula since 1997. English Partnerships's original masterplan for Greenwich Peninsula was developed by a primary consultant team including Richard Rogers and was approved in 1998. In the masterplan, 12,500 homes were planned for Greenwich Peninsula aiming to create a high quality, modern, urban community. Remediation work was carried out for the development formulated and new infrastructure was installed across Greenwich Peninsula in the early stage. The arrival of the Jubilee Line Underground station made a significant impact to the regeneration of the Peninsula. Jubilee Line station was built and Greenwich became the focus for the Millennium celebrations. EPs formed a partnership with Meridian Delta Ltd and Anschutz Entertainment Group, providing major private sector expertise and commitment.



The view of Greenwich Peninsula (source: English Partnerships)

Greenwich Millennium Village, the first of the Government's Millennium Communities, lies at the southern end of the 300 acre Greenwich Peninsula. Greenwich Millennium Village covering 17.8 hectares aims to build sustainable communities encompassing the key issues of social cohesiveness, transport and communication and ecology, technology and innovation as a model of the creation of new communities. 'Innovation', 'sustainability' and 'high quality design' were keywords for the development in order to shape a model of sustainable communities. The first Millennium Village development competition for the Greenwich site, was launched by the Secretary of State for the Environment, John Prescott, in July 1997. The programme was intended to set the standard for 21st Century living, and to serve as a model for the creation of new communities. This was to be done through encouraging innovation in building technologies, increasing economic and social self-sufficiency, achieving exemplar standards of functional urban design and focusing on sustainable development that addresses energy and conservation issues and building technologies.

GMV masterplan, drawn up by Ralph Erskine, was for a high quality, mixed tenure development, initially for 1,377 mixed tenure homes, and was planned to expand over 2,500 homes including community facilities and commercial space. GMV has been developing as part of a phased programme. Construction on the first two phases began in 1999 with the initial residents taking occupancy in 2000. Development is continuing on Phases 3 and 4 after the Phases 1 and 2 with 1,377 homes were occupied.



The masterplan of Greenwich Peninsula (source: English Partnerships)

The role of urban design in GMV as a model development for creating a new sustainable community has been emphasized in achieving design excellence helping to form community and sustainability. Urban design tried to enhance the sense of community through a physical design which places homes around garden squares and links neighbourhoods with tree lined streets. A range of different property types at different densities, from riverside apartments to family homes close to the school and from live/work units to homes specifically designed to accommodate people with disabilities were accommodated. 20 per cent of the originally planned homes in GMV have been designated as affordable. The affordable homes include different property types that are spread throughout the Village. GMV set out targets during the life of the project to be achieved for minimising the impact on the environment, including 80% reduction in primary energy consumption, 30% reduction in water use, 50% reduction in embodied energy, 50% reduction in construction waste and 25% reduction in car usage within 10 years from implementation. A number of different means, including the use of combined heat and power, high levels of insulations and natural light, energy and water efficient appliances and the careful selection of materials at the design stage, was used in the development. GMV was the first substantial private development in the UK to achieve Ecohomes excellent.

Reviewed documentary materials emphasized creating an inclusive, sustainable community in GMV development. This has been promoted through early provision of community facilities, a community website (GMV online), and the development of a village trust to enable residents to influence their surroundings and a mix of housing types and tenures. GMV sponsored schemes early on the project to help new residents settle into the development for nurturing a new community. The residents have established a Residents Association and take an active part in community activities, from the annual Village Fayre to volunteering at the Ecology Park. A key factor in GMV development as a city centre family location has been the early provision of the primary school. The Millennium Primary School and Health Centre was delivered by English Partnerships as part of the initial phase in 2001.

The DETR commissioned action research (DETR, 2000) evaluated Greenwich Millennium Village in terms of sustainable communities by a comparative analysis with other four sites. Though indicators selection, using verbal scale (eg. ‘better than average’, ‘mixed’, and ‘exemplary’) and integrating each evaluation criteria might be debatable, the research concluded that Urban Millennium Villages initiative with an example of GMV could achieve more integrated sustainable settlements if sustainability aims such as those set out in the proposed evaluation framework (minimising resource consumption; maximising environmental capital; urban design quality; quality of life; social inclusion; community participation; and commercial viability) adopted as central objectives.



**Greenwich Millennium Village, Greenwich, UK, 2010**

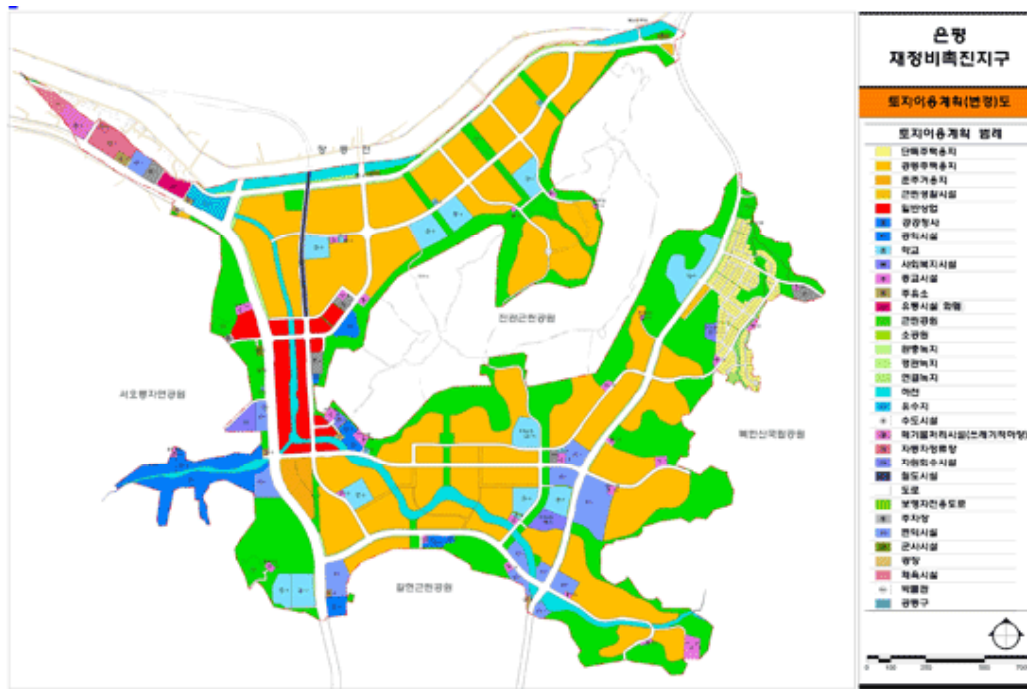
*Type 1: Enpyung (Seoul, South Korea)*

Enpyung is the largest area among sites designated as ‘New towns in Seoul city’. Enpyung covers 369.3 hectares located at the north-west boundary of Seoul. This area including 8,721 homes had been controlled as Greenbelt since 1970’s and the greenbelt on Enpyung was derestricted in 2004 for the development of ‘Enpyung New town’. After Myungbak Lee was elected as the mayor of Seoul in 2002, Seoul City Council

promoted exemplary regeneration developments as three types including 'city centre type', 'residential centre type' and 'new development type'. Enpyung was suggested as an exemplary development for the 'new development type' with other two areas as exemplary developments for other types in October 2002. Enpyung regeneration was supported by urban policies for the derestriction of Green belt and the restriction of urban sprawl as a result of individual small scale developments.

The development of Enpyung has been controlled by SH corporation, which is operated by Seoul City Council. Enpyung development plan was adopted in February 2004. The development plan targeted to provide 16,172 housings (with 5,797 social housings) with challenging aims to improve the economic inequality of north-west area in Seoul and to build sustainable communities in socio-environmental aspect. The development plan set out following visions:

- Creation of a resort type eco town with the integration of the new development into the existing natural environment
- Creation of a well connected Green network, Blue network and ecological system
- Creation of mixed communities where variety of ages live together
- Provision of a variety of housing choices
- Provision of housing types which are resilient to future changes in life style
- Provision of well connected communities based on a network of streets, community centres and community facilities
- Delivery of a diverse and safe public realm and landscape

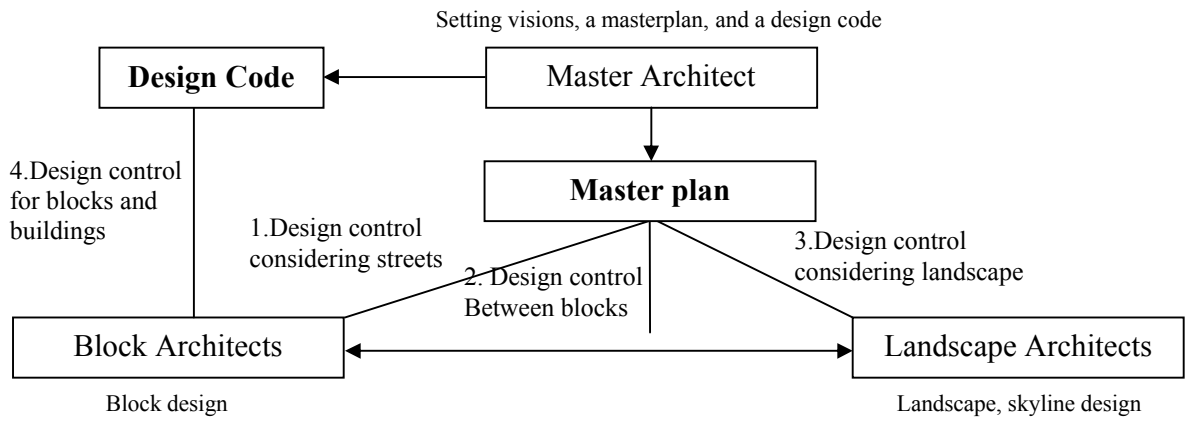


Enpyung Newtown development plan (source: Enpyungku council)



An image of Enpyung Newtown development plan (source: Enpyungku council)

Planning and urban design of Enpyung development was controlled by a Master Architect committee. The draft masterplan was initially planned by the MA committee and a supporting engineering team. Urban design competitions were held to develop the masterplan and detailed block designs. The winner of the competition for developing the masterplan was participated in MA committee and urban designers who won from second prize to fifth prize were participated as block architects. The Master Architect committee also set out a design code to control the high quality of urban design. Enpyung case also shows that design guidance, including a masterplan and design code play important roles in design control. The following figure briefly illustrates how the masterplan and the design code for Enpyung Newtown functions in design control.



**Use of a masterplan and a design code for Enpyung Newtown, (After Kyungdong, 2008, p. 4)**

Enpyung has been developed as a phased programme with three phases. Construction on the first phase was accomplished with the initial residents taking occupancy in 2008. Construction on phases 2 was finished in 2008 and construction on phase 3 is planned to be finished in 2011.



**Enpyung Newtown, Enpyungku, Seoul, South Korea, 2010**



*Type 2: Gajung ('Luwon city project', Incheon, South Korea)*

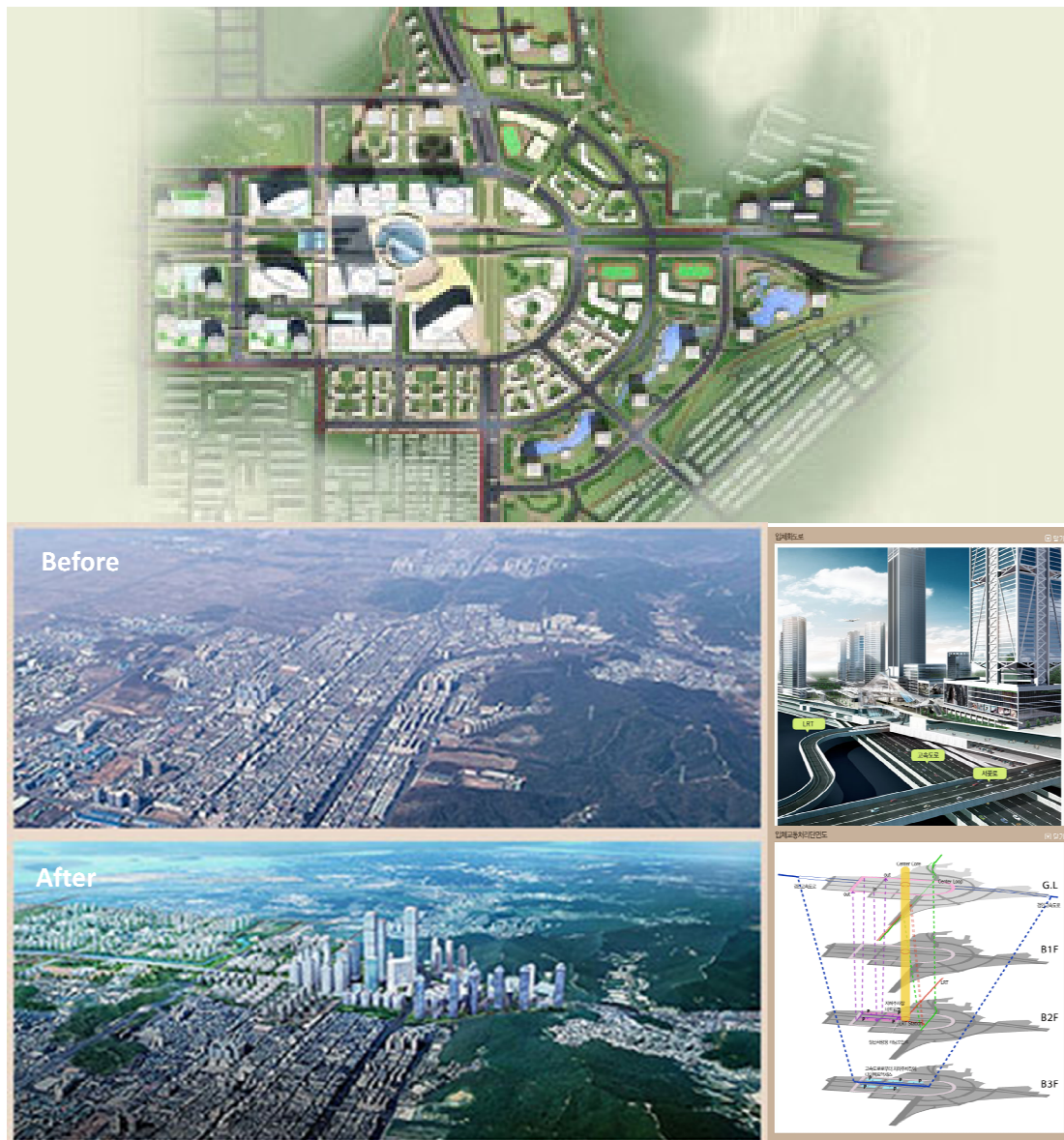
Gajung covers 97.2 hectares of residential area, situated 10km far north from the city centre of Incheon. Successful bid for 2014 Asian Game and the development of three Free Economic Zones (FEZs) in Incheon - Youngjong, Chungra, and Songdo – affected the urban regeneration of Gajung. Incheon City Council designated Gajung as an urban redevelopment area in 2004 and established a partnership with Korea National Housing Corporation (called 'Jugong', it was merged with Korea National Land Corporation in 2009 as Korea Land and Housing Corporation, called 'LH gongsa') in 2005. Masterplan providing mixed uses development including 11,000 homes, retails, offices and entertainments was planned in August 2005. The masterplan set out the vision of Gajung as the creation of a mixed and vibrant city in multi-dimensional complex.



The location of Gajung regeneration area (source: LH gongsa)

The masterplan included a large scale restructuring of transportation system in lower ground levels. Lower ground levels in Gajung were planned to provide restructured Gyungin highway (-3 level) for its straightening, the extension of Incheon metro line (-2 level), and shopping malls and entertainment facilities (-1 level). However, central government did not approve the restructuring plan of Gyungin highway which was planned to connect directly with Chungra FEZ and Gajung in 2008. Central government requested to retain the function of highway and to connect Gyungin highway indirectly with the development areas. Although ICC and central government negotiated with an alternative plan in 2009, the plan for straightening of Gyungin highway in lower ground

level was cancelled again due to the excessive construction cost in 2010. Another alternative plan with retaining the function of highway on the ground level was adopted in 2010.



The images of LUWON city plan (Source: LH gongsa)

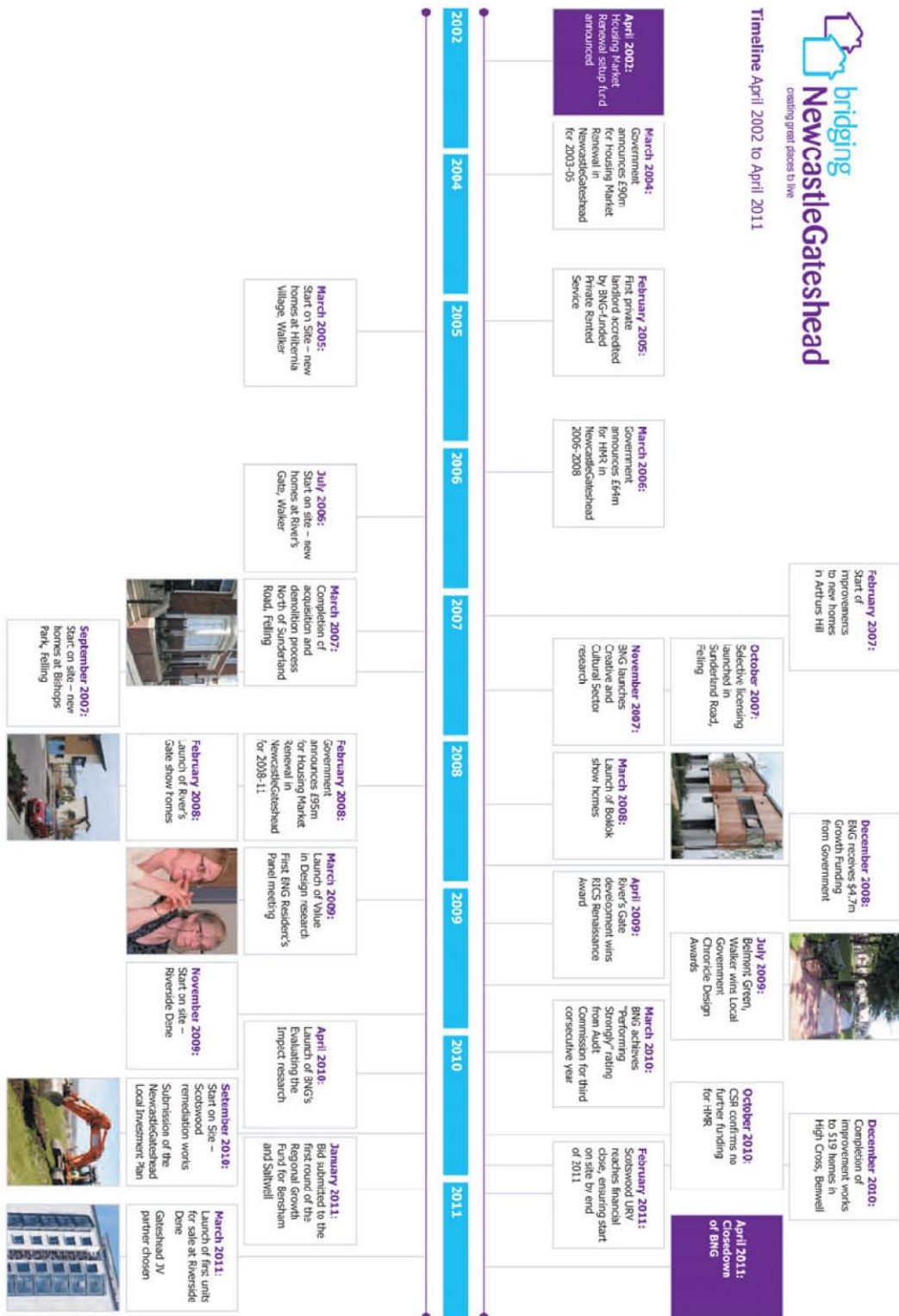
The bust of real estate market has affected the partnership for the regeneration. After feasibility studies on marketability in several times, the land use plan has been negotiating to downscale commercial and business uses and to expand residential uses. Although ICC suggested to expand multi-dimensional mixed developments to the whole development site, LH Gongsa still questioned the marketability.

The severe conflict between the development partnership and existing residents has experienced in Gajung (An, 2008). Local residents wanted the land readjustment method and 60 percent of local residents wanted to resettle in Gajung. However, site designation and the process of development with the compulsory purchase were decided by the unilateral decision of ICC. Community-based protests were firstly against the development itself and secondly against the compensation and compulsory purchase due to the process of the regeneration as the redevelopment after demolition in whole site. There were more than 16 community organizations for the protests. There was little way to involve in the process for local residents. Although a statutory consultation process has been finished, it was not enough to respond to local residents' voices. Filings of local people against top-down approach were submitted to the courts, but they were lost a case.



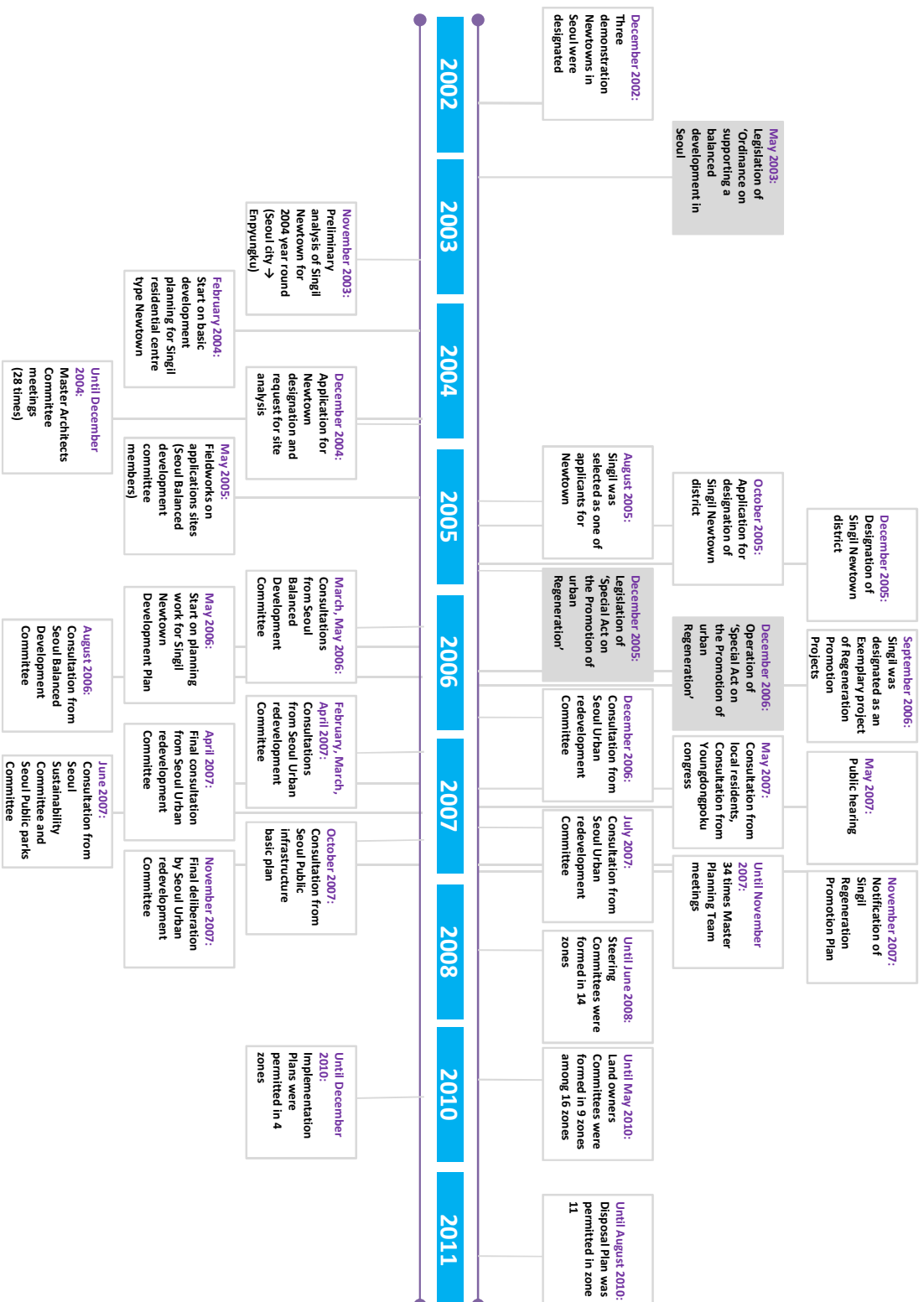
Current status, Gajung oguri, Incheon, South Korea, 2010

## Appendix 2 The time line of Bridging Newcastle Gateshead



(Source: BNG, <http://www.bridgingng.org.uk>, Accessed on 19/08/2011)

## Appendix 3 The time line of Singil regeneration



## Appendix 4 Questionnaire as part of the Design Code Compliance Check in Walker Riverside Design Code

Q1	General - has a Design Statement been submitted, including Walker-specific information as required in the Code?
Q2	3.1 What Character Area(s) are relevant?
Q3	3.x Specific Character Area Requirements?
Q4	3.x Specific Character Area guidance followed?
Q5	4.1 Block Structure - is it strongly and clearly defined?
Q6	4.2 Block Frontage & entrances towards streets?
Q7	4.2 Block Front and Rear definition clear?
Q8	4.2 Consistent Building Line?
Q9	4.2 Block Corners emphasised?
Q10	4.2 Active frontage - doors & windows appropriate, all spaces overlooked?
Q11	4.3 Block rears - any courtyards clearly 'front' or 'back' spaces?
Q12	4.3 Block rears - any rear parking has direct access to the building / house?
Q13	4.3 Block rears - any housing courtyard designed to Homezone principles?
Q14	4.3 Block rears - private gardens: direct external access, cycle storage, size?
Q15	4.3 Block rears - fences and boundary enclosures: height and materials?
Q16	4.4 Block parking - no large unbroken groups?
Q17	4.4 Block parking - visitor bays provided on-street, distributed around the site?
Q18	4.4 Block parking - no frontage garages, any in-curtilage provision away from frontage gardens and spaces?
Q19	4.4 Block parking - any public parking provided as a shared facility, landscaped, safe & well lit?
Q20	4.4 Block parking - all parking spaces overlooked by habitable rooms?
Q21	5.1 Street Typology - what street types are relevant?
Q22	5.x Street dimensions and junctions detailed correctly?
Q23	5.x Street materials detailed correctly?
Q24	5.x Street planting detailed and located correctly?
Q25	5.2 Boulevard alignment, materials, planting all comply with NCC design proposals?
Q26	5.x Street type-specific requirements met?
Q27	5.6 Homezone principles evident in mews/lanes/courtyards?
Q28	5.6 Homezone spaces include specific play provision, street furniture, appropriate planting?
Q29	5.7 Green corridors - link into wider network of routes and green links appropriately?
Q30	5.7 Green corridors - spaces designed for activity appropriate to location & uses?
Q31	5.7 Green corridors - details of planting layout & species appropriate to location & guidance?
Q32	5.7 Green corridors - paths and road surfaces meet design requirements?
Q33	5.7 Green corridors - safety achieved through lighting, overlooking, boundaries, access & routes?
Q34	5.7 Green corridors - street furniture, public realm art, specific features used to create character?
Q35	6.1 Open Space - fits requirements of other documents, identified at briefing / pre-application stage?

Q36	6.3 Riverside Park - any works adjacent or within address priority issues sufficiently?
Q37	6.4 Play equipment - meets safety and design guide requirements?
Q38	7.2 Environmental Performance - what Ecohomes or BREEAM score is achieved?
Q39	7.2 Environmental Performance - is full documentation of predicted score assessment provided?
Q40	7.3 Renewable Energy - what provision is made above the minimum LDF requirements?
Q41	7.4 SUDS - is any sustainable drainage installation provided? What detailed information is provided?
Q42	7.5 Lifetime Homes - are all 16 LTH features provided?
Q43	7.5 Lifetime Homes - do all properties meet the LTH requirements fully? If not, what proportion?
Q44	8.1 Design - does the scheme demonstrate that it is not dominated by repetitive, standardised solutions?
Q45	8.2 Building Materials - what materials are used?
Q46	8.2 Building Materials - does the proposal meet the relevant requirements? Is all required information provided?
Q47	8.3 Roofs - has the roof form been illustrated in context of the surrounding area? Are there street elevations?
Q48	8.3 Roofs - is the roof form appropriate? Has it been detailed to comply with the specific requirements?
Q49	8.3 Roofs - have features such as solar panels or green roofs been considered where required? Adequate information?
Q50	8.3 Roofs - have appropriate materials been used, in ways that comply with specific requirements for that material?
Q51	8.4 External Services - have all flues, extracts, pipes etc been illustrated on drawings as required?
Q52	8.5 Windows - are these appropriately proportioned?
Q53	8.5 Windows - are these located to achieve appropriate overlooking and surveillance of each space / street?
Q54	8.5 Windows - does the design demonstrate achieving levels of daylighting within each building or building type?
Q55	8.5 Windows - have material requirements met?
Q56	8.5 Windows - will Secured by Design be applied for?
Q57	8.5 Windows - have colour and finish requirements been met & demonstrated?
Q58	8.6 Entrances - have material requirements been met?
Q59	8.6 Entrances - are these spaces designed to allow individual resident's expression & character to be accommodated?
Q60	8.6 Entrances - are repetitive door details avoided?
Q61	8.7 Decoration - does the scheme demonstrate a particular decorative / compositional theme? How is it appropriate?
Q62	A1 Lifetime Streets - has any public space for adoption been designed for maintenance and access?
Q63	A2 Nature Conservation - has the scheme met any nature conservation / enhancement requirements?
Q64	A3 Street Planting - has any planting demonstrated detailed compliance with the Code requirements?
Q65	A4 Planning Submissions - has all required information been provided on drawings and other submitted information?
Q66	A5 Has all of the required services design been complied with and demonstrated on drawings?

## **Appendix 5 The interviewees which were carried out as part of research on the selected cases in chapters five, six, and seven**

### *Scotswood and Walker*

Michael Crilly (Urban designer, NCC, 18/03/10)  
John Sparkes (BNG, 05/04/10)  
Andy Gibson (A representative of a community organisation called *Scotswood Area Strategy*, 20/04/10)  
Carol Hunter (A representative of East End Community Development Alliance (Walker), 03/05/10)  
Sarah Dogett (Urban planner, NCC, about Walker Riverside, 21/05/10)

### *Singil*

Byungkun Lee (Youngdungpoku Council, 30/09/10)  
Younga Mun (Architect, Kunwon, 05/10/10)  
Dongyoung Kim (Urban planner, Jeail, 06/10/10)  
Four property agents in Singil (two were local residents in Singil, anonymous/Youngdu Han/Jisung Hwang/Kwanggil Kim, 02/10/10)

### *Other interviewee*

Bethan Jackson (New East Manchester, 08/04/10, an email interview)

## **Appendix 6 The interviewees which were carried out as part of research on the Korean contexts in chapter seven and chapter ten**

Jaesun Lee (Yonsei University, 28/09/10)  
Seyong Kim (Korea University, 04/10/10)  
Dukguun Koh (Dong-seoul University, 07/10/10)  
Dongwook Sohn (Hongik University, 27/09/10)  
Bumsik Min (KRIHS, 06/10/10)

(The interviewees of a group interview in Chapter ten, 04/03/13)  
Jaeyong Lee (Urban designer, Archiplan)  
Dongwook Sohn (Hongik University)  
Kihun Kim (Jungku, Seoul City Council)



## Appendix 7 Interview questions which were used for the interviews (Round one for the case studies)

### *The interview with an officer in BNG (Scotswood and Walker)*

Could you tell me about the history of this urban regeneration programme briefly?

- Urban design aspects of the programme

What do you think has been the role of urban design in this programme?

How has been urban regeneration in BNG proceeded (about the process of urban regeneration)?

What do you feel has been the relationship between urban design and other aspects of regeneration in this project?

- The involvement of local people

How have local people been involved in the urban regeneration process so far?

Has this programme experienced any problem or tension in the relation with local people?

Has the process of urban design or urban regeneration been changed in responses to communities' voice? If so, how?

Have any change in urban design been made in response to local views and preferences?

- Management and maintenance of the programme

How will the urban design aspects of this programme be managed beyond the development phase?

How will local people or end users be involved in the management of the built environment in the post-production stage?

- Could you comment on the following specific urban design aspects of this programme:

Density (Compactness & Density, intensification)/ Diversity (For example, land use mix, mixing tenure, mixing housing sizes)/ Transport (Sustainable transport: walkability, public transport, interconnection of road network, environment-friendly transport)/ Greening and environment (Open spaces, protecting Greenfield land, environmental sustainability)/

Community benefits (For example, providing community facilities, easy access to public facilities, affordability of housing)

- Could you give me a final comment on the implication for the future regeneration from the experience of BNG programme?

*The interview with an urban designer who worked for NCC (Scotswood)*

Could you tell me about the history of this urban regeneration project briefly?

Could you comment on any challenge for this project?

- Urban design aspects of the project

What do you think has been the role of urban design in this project?

Could you tell me about the process of urban design of this project?

Could you comment on the following specific urban design aspects of the project briefly?

How has urban design aspects of the development been controlled? (for example design codes or standards)

What do you feel has been the relationship between urban design and other aspects of regeneration in this project?

- The involvement of local people

How have local people been involved in the process of this project so far?

Has this project experienced any problem or tension in the relation with local people?

Have any change on urban design been made in responses to communities' voice? If so, how?

- Could you give me a final comment on the implication for the future regeneration from the experience of Scotswood regeneration?

*The interview with a community representative in Scotswood*

Could you tell me about Scotswood area from your experience briefly?

Could you tell me about communities in Scotswood area briefly?

- Urban design aspects of the project

How do you think about urban regeneration in Westend?

Urban design has been emphasized in Scotswood regeneration. What do you think has been the role of urban design in Scotswood regeneration?

- The involvement of local people

How do you feel about Scotswood Housing Expo?

How do you think about community engagement of Scotswood urban regeneration?

How have local people been involved in the urban regeneration so far? (or in urban design process)

How have local community been involved in decision making so far?

Has the process of urban design or urban regeneration been changed in responses to communities' voice? If so, how?

Have any change in urban design been made in response to local views and preferences?

Could you comment about local needs and local preferences briefly?

How do you think about community benefits (e.g. providing community facilities, easy access to public facilities, affordability of housing) from Scotswood regeneration?

Could you give me a final comment?

*The interview with an officer in NCC (Walker Riverside)*

Could you tell me about the history of Walker regeneration programme from your experience briefly?

- Urban design aspects of the project

What do you think has been the role of urban design in this project?

How has been the interaction with local communities? (West end vs East End)

How has been urban design interacted with local communities from your experience?

Has this project been experienced tension in the relation with local people? (e.g. about demolition/ delay in implementation/ understanding)

- Walker Riverside Design Code

How do you expect benefit for local communities by this development control with design code?

(Annual Review) Is there any change in urban design principles through annual review?

(Guidance/ requirement) Could you comment your opinion about delivery of regulatory design from your experience?

- Walker Riverside (HOW)

Could you comment on the implementation plan in the future briefly?

How do you expect local involvement or local support for this plan in production stage or post production stage?

(Implications from British Experience.....Difference in context..... However, could you give me final comment?)

- Could you give me a final comment on the implication for the future regeneration from the experience of Walker regeneration?

*The interview with a community representative in Walker*

Could you tell me about Walker area from your experience briefly?

Could you tell me about communities in Walker area briefly?

- Urban design aspects of the project

How do you think about Walker Riverside regeneration?

Urban design has been emphasized in Walker Riverside regeneration. What do you think has been the role of urban design in this regeneration?

- The involvement of local people

How do you feel about Walker Riverside regeneration?

How do you think about community engagement of Walker Riverside regeneration?

How have local people been involved in the urban regeneration so far? (or in urban design process)

How have local community been involved in decision making so far?

Has the process of urban design or urban regeneration been changed in responses to communities' voice? If so, how?

Have any change in urban design been made in response to local views and preferences?

- Management and maintenance of the project

How will local people be involved in the management of the built environment in the post-production stage?

Could you comment about local needs and local preferences of communities in Walker area briefly?

- How do you think about the following specific urban design aspects of the project:

Density/Diversity (e.g. land use mix, mixing tenure, mixing housing sizes)/Transport /Greening and environment/

Community benefits (e.g. providing community facilities, easy access to public facilities, affordability of housing)

Could you give me a final comment?

## *The interview with an officer in NEM*

Could you tell me about the history of this urban regeneration project briefly?

- Urban design aspects of the project

What do you think has been the role of urban design in this project?

Are there any special unusual features of the role and the process of urban design in this project?

How has urban design aspects of the development been controlled? (e.g. design codes or standards)

What do you feel has been the relationship between urban design and other aspects of regeneration in this project?

- The involvement of local people

How have local people been involved in the urban design process so far?

Has this project experienced any problem in the relation with local people?

Has the process of urban design been changed in responses to communities' voice? If so, how?

Have any change been made during the design stage of the project in response to local views and preferences?

Have there been any changes in the urban design aspects of the project in response to local preferences in the development phase of the project?

- Management and maintenance of the project

How will the urban design aspects of the project be managed beyond the development phase?

How will local people or end users be involved in the management of the built environment in the post-production stage?

- Could you comment on the following specific urban design aspects of the project:

Density (Compactness & Density, intensification)/Diversity (e.g. land use mix, mixing tenure, mixing housing sizes)/Transport (Sustainable transport: walkability, public transport, interconnection of road network, environment-friendly transport)/Greening and environment (Open spaces, protecting Greenfield land, environmental sustainability)/Community benefits (e.g. providing community facilities, easy access to public facilities, affordability of housing)

- Could you give me a final comment on the implication for the future regeneration from the experience of New Islington regeneration?

*The interviews with an urban planner and an urban designer (Singil)*

Could you tell me about Singil area and existing communities briefly?

Could you tell me about the history of this urban regeneration project from your experience briefly?

- Urban design aspects of the project

What do you think has been the role of urban design in this project?

How has urban design aspects of the development been controlled?

How will the urban design aspects of the project be managed beyond the planning phase?

What were the planning aspects which a local community needed or preferred?

How have been urban design and local community responded to each other?

- The involvement of local people

How have local people been involved in the urban design process so far and how do you think about that?

Has this project experienced any problem or tension in the relation with local people? If so, was there any process to resolve the tension?

Have any change been made during the design stage of the project in response to local views and preferences?

How has the urban design in Singil been reflected local residents' opinions and preferences?

- Could you comment on the following specific urban design aspects of the project:

Density (Compactness & Density, intensification)/Diversity (e.g. land use mix, mixing tenure, mixing housing sizes)/Transport (Sustainable transport: walkability, public transport, interconnection of road network, environment-friendly transport)/Greening and environment (Open spaces, protecting Greenfield land, environmental sustainability)/

Community benefits (e.g. providing community facilities, easy access to public facilities, affordability of housing)

- Could you give me a final comment on the implication for the future regeneration from the experience of New Islington regeneration?

*Appendix 8 Interview questions which were used for the interviews with academic scholars in Korea (Round two for the discussion with the Korean contexts)*

- The role of urban design

How do you evaluate current urban design in urban regeneration in Korea?

What do you think about the role of urban design in urban regeneration in Korean contexts?

Could you comment about your opinion on the role of urban design in urban regeneration in social aspect in Korean contexts?

What are important considerations in the process of urban design in urban regeneration in Korean contexts?

- The involvement of local people

How do you think about the significance of community engagement in the process of urban design in urban regeneration in Korean contexts?

How do you think about the reality of community engagement in the current urban regeneration?

How could local people be effectively involved in the urban design process in Korean contexts?

- Urban design products for improving the built environment

Could you comment about important considerations on urban design products for improving the quality of the built environment briefly in Korean context?

Could you give your opinion about the management of urban design products?

- Could you give me a final comment from your experiences on the implication for the future regeneration in Korean contexts and on this study?



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