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A Study on Urban Regeneration Policy Change in Korea

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After the physical redevelopment and reconstruction in the late 1970s, the paradigm on urban regeneration in Korea shifted from maintenance to restoration and sustainability. This study highlighted that those changes occurred rapidly and not gradually over a short period of time. This study researched diachronic changes on urban regeneration policies after the 1970s in Korea using an analysing model that compensated for the theoretical limits of Hogwood and Peters. The limitations of former policies and internal and external socio-economic factors are shown to have affected dynamic policy changes. This study's academic significance is that it suggests policy implications for cities that have similar urban growth processes to Korea.

Keywords: urban regeneration, policy change, urban regeneration paradigm, Korea's urban regeneration policy

Introduction

Globally, cities are undergoing a paradigm shift from urban development to urban regeneration. This is because prolonged low growth rates and persistent population stagnation has limited urban growth. Additionally, the decline of inner city populations, the change of the industrial structure, and the deterioration of housing are accelerating.

In Korea, after the 'Special Act on Promotion of and Support for Urban Regeneration (Urban Regeneration Act)' was enacted in 2013, urban regeneration projects are being actively pursued nationwide. As Moon Jae-in took over the government in 2017, Korea's urban regeneration policy faced a period of great change. Moon Jae-in announced the government task of the 'Urban Regeneration New Deal' policy, a large-scale public project to invest 50 trillion won for five years in 500 depressed areas nationwide. It differs from the previous policy in terms of content, such as inducing and supporting the expansion of private participation and strengthening local governments' executive power.

Korea's urban regeneration policies date back to the 1970s. In the 1960s and 1970s, indiscriminate urban development was inevitable in the process of rapid economic growth and urbanisation. Disorderless urban regeneration and ageing housing redevelopment became major tasks of the urban administration.¹ Korea's urban regeneration policy has since changed according to the nucleus environment.

This paper analyses the changing process of urban regeneration policy and the cause of policy change in Korea since the 1970s. Since this is a case study limited to Korea, there is a limit to the general theorisation of changes and development of urban regeneration policy. Nevertheless, it is a meaningful diachronic study that comprehensively analyses Korea's urban regeneration policy changes. The experiences of Korean urban regeneration have implications for the urban management of third world cities.

Theoretical Background and Analysis Framework

1. Theoretical Background

¹ Kim, Kwang-joong & Yoon, Il-Sung. "Urban Renewal and Change of the 20th Century Seoul", in *The Seoul Development Institute, Seoul, Twentieth Century: Growth & Change of the Last 100 Years*, Seoul: Seoul Development Institute(2001).



Policy change is not a singular process but happens continuously, a universal rather than exceptional phenomenon. The environment surrounding policy is constantly changing, and changes in policy objectives, direction, means, and strategies are inevitable. The policy environment includes social, economic, and political backgrounds, the nature of the policy target group, the characteristics of the policy-making body, and the interest of the general public.²

What does policy change mean specifically? Policy consists of goals, means to achieve them, and ancillary devices to ensure the policy's realisation.³ If the structure is transformed into practical and empirical standards, it can be divided into ① policy contents and ② policy process. The policy content change is a change of the major constituent elements of policy; the goals and policy content are not changed but policy procedures are changed.⁴ Generally, policy changes are based on the degree of policy change, except when the degree of change is zero. The modification or termination of the policy and all the changes occurring in the enforcement phase are included in policy changes.

Policy change is classified into four types.⁵ First, policy innovation means that the government decides on a new policy that has not yet been implemented. This refers to completely renewing a policy without an existing organisation, law, or budget. Policy innovation is the intentional intervention of governments in new fields.

Second, policy succession is the modification and adjustment of existing policies. This is policy replacement that changes policy contents to something new within the scope of the unchanging policy objective, and includes the partial termination of policies. Third, policy maintenance refers to revising detailed program adjustments and legislative amendments while maintaining macro policy objectives. Fourth, policy termination intentionally suspends a policy and does not determine other replacement policies.

Hogwood and Peters' research has some limitations. First, the criteria for distinguishing policy types are unclear. For example, if the existing characteristics of an existing policy remain unchanged, the policy's maintenance and the change or substitution of the basic characteristics is referred to as policy succession, but no standard is provided. Although based on organisational change, change in legislation, and budgetary provisions as indicators of policy change, it is difficult to distinguish the type of policy change on this basis alone. Policy change does not necessarily lead to organisational change, and mechanically limits the link between law and policy.

2. Analysis Framework

This study investigates the changes in urban regeneration policies and the causes of policy changes in Korea. We present an analytical framework that complements the limitations of Hogwood and Peters' theory. The degree of policy change is used as a criterion to distinguish the type of policy change. It is used to grasp the degree of change of the book from 0 to 1 on a continuous line, thereby flexibly applying the actual situation. If the degree of change is 'zero', it is desirable to exclude it in the policy change as an unchanged state in which no policy change occurs. When the degree of change is 'one', there can be three types of policy change: ① policy innovation, ② policy termination, and ③ policy cancellation.

This study suggests that Korea's urban regeneration policy has continued the process of partial policy change since the 1970s. The partial change in degree of change between 0 and 1 is largely typified by ① a content change and ② a process change. The content change is mainly related to what is done (targets, spatial scales, and project types), and the process change is related to how to do it (development methods, agents, and citizen participation). By reviewing the changes in the policy environment that brought about such policy changes, we can understand the causes of the changes in Korea's urban regeneration policy, the various socio-economic needs at the time of policy change, and the change of the political power group that determines the establishment or implementation of policies.

² de Neufville, J. E., & Christensen, K.S. "Is optimizing really best?", *Policy Studies Journal* 2(1980): 1053-60.; Kim, Young-pyong. *Uncertainty and Legitimacy of Policy*, Seoul: Korea University Press(1991).

³ Grumm, J. G. "The Analyses of Policy Impact", in Greenstein, F. I. & Polsby, N. W.(ed.), *Handbook of Political Science*, Vol. 6.(1975); Robinson, J. *Congress and Foreign Policy-Making*, Homewood: The Dorsey Press(1962).

⁴ Halperin, M. H. *Bureaucratic Politics and Foreign Policy*, Washington, D.C.: The Brookings Institution(1974):251.

⁵ Hogwood, B. W. & Peters, B. G. *Policy Dynamics*, New York: St. Martin's Press(1983):25-29.

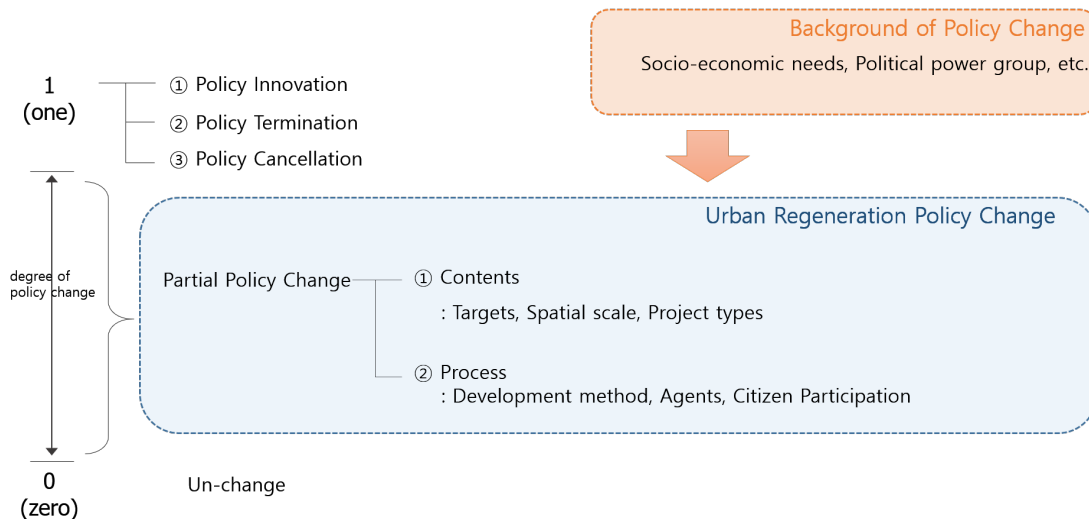


Figure 1 : Analysis Framework

The History of Korea's Urban Regeneration Policy

The history of Korea's urban regeneration policy can be divided into three periods. From the 1970s to the 1990s, large-scale clearance projects were carried out because of the rapid urban growth after the Korean War. In the 2000s, the strategy focused on the maintenance and management of cities, and the regeneration and sustainability of cities was emphasised in the early 2010s.

After the Korean War (1950~1953), urbanisation rapidly occurred in the 1960s and 1970s. With the enactment of the 'Urban Redevelopment Act' in 1976, Korea started 20 years of large-scale clearance projects. However, this led to conflicts among residents and to the dissolution of the existing community. This strategy also ignored socio-economic and local deterioration issues. The view of urban regeneration changed from redevelopment and reconstruction to maintenance and management in the 2000s.

In 2002, the 'Act on the Maintenance and Improvement of Urban Areas and Dwelling Conditions for Residents (Urban Maintenance and Improvement Act)' was enacted. This law considered the quality of housing and improvements to the physical environment. However, changes in socio-economic conditions such as the financial crisis and the real estate market depression forced the introduction of projects that assured stability. The 'Urban Maintenance and Improvement Act' was revised to emphasise small-scale projects and the participation of local residents. This law was revised and only three project types are currently being developed.

In 2005, Seoul's New Town project was promoted to improve poor housing conditions and enhance infrastructure, and the 'Special Act on the Promotion of Urban Renewal (New Town Act)' was enacted. This project was carried out based on the neighbourhood unit, but it still advanced clearance.

With the enactment of the 'Urban Regeneration Act', 'regeneration' was applied to the legal name. This law stressed that residents should be the main agents of projects. This overcame the superficial and procedural limits of the past and also noted the causes and aspects of decline in different regions. The Korean government forged ahead with leading projects in 13 areas nationwide in 2013 to induce the effects of urban regeneration projects and ended these efforts in 2017. In 2016, 33 general urban regeneration projects were started that will be completed by 2021. The National Basic Policy for Urban Regeneration created by the Ministry of Land, Infrastructure, and Transport divided urban policy into three stages: introduction (2014–2017), growth (2018–2021), and maturity (after 2022). In the introduction stage, urban regeneration projects were carried out by the central government to create a successful model by providing and supporting leading projects. In the stages of growth and maturity, projects are designed by local governments. This is because it is necessary to establish and provide a system of financial resources and agents since local governments lack the necessary knowledge and experience.

In 2017, Moon Jae-in's administration officially announced the promotion of the 'Urban Regeneration New Deal'. The New Deal Policy differs from the past in that it emphasises sustainable urban innovation led by local governments and communities. In December 2017, 68 pilot projects were selected, and 100 projects will be carried out in 2018.



Analysis on the Change of Urban Regeneration Policies in Korea

1. Content Changes

1) Target

The target of urban regeneration policy in Korea has been expanded. When the policy was introduced in the early 1970s under the name of urban redevelopment, Korea had to rebuild after the Korean War. Due to the explosive post-war population growth, urban areas were forming indiscriminately, and many unauthorised buildings were built. The country also lacked housing and commercial and business facilities for population and urban growth. The initial urban redevelopment policy was aimed at improving poor buildings and providing housing and offices⁶. Naturally, the ageing physical environment became the policy's target.

Korea's redevelopment policy, which focused only on improving the physical environment, has had negative effects. It was only concerned with the removal of poor housing, and there was insufficient consideration of the low-income inhabitants. Tenants and low-income homeowners were driven out of their homes due to the demolition. Since 1986, tenant regulations have been added to provide immigration subsidies and pre-sale rights⁷. However, this is insufficient to solve the housing problems of tenants and low-income families. After redevelopment projects, the resettlement ratio was only about 10%.⁸ Continuous policy restructuring has taken place, such as the construction of rental housing and the mandatory construction of housing below the size of national housing for low-income people.

In the early 2000s, the imbalance in urban areas emerged as an important buzzword. The Seoul Metropolitan Government tried to solve the unbalanced development of Gangnam/Gangbuk in Seoul with the New Town policy. This led to the enactment of the 'New Town Act', and the urban renewal promotion project became a representative rehabilitation project in Korea. Through improving the poor areas, Korea wanted to achieve balanced urban development.

The urban economic area was outside the scope of the Korean urban regeneration policy. Due to the decline of the first and second industries, the decline of jobs due to low growth and the shift of the industrial system, and the increase in the unemployment rate, the urban economic area has become the main object of urban regeneration policy. Therefore, an economy-based regeneration type was added to the 'Urban Regeneration Act'. According to the detailed criteria for the 'Urban Regeneration Activation Area' in the 'Urban Regeneration Act', the project target is as follows: areas where the population and the total number of businesses have decreased, and where the residential environment has deteriorated. Social, economic, and physical environmental issues have all been targeted by the policy in the form of legislation.

2) Spatial Scale

The spatial scale covered by the urban regeneration policy has fluctuated. When the policy was implemented by the early 'Urban Redevelopment Act', the project was carried out individually in local units without any specific regulations on area. When the 'Urban Maintenance and Improvement Act' was enacted, the minimum unit was specified for each project. The urban environment maintenance project did not have an area regulation, but in the case of the residential environment improvement project and the housing redevelopment project, an area of 2,000 m² or more, or more than 50 households, was designated. For housing reconstruction projects, 300 households, more than 300 residential areas, or an area of 10,000 m² or more were designated as project districts. These regulations have been removed or decreased over time, but most have been maintained.

In 2005, as the 'New Town Act' was being enacted, the scope of the policy area was expanded. The urban redevelopment project was not developed in a planned way and urban infrastructure such as roads, schools, and parks was not sufficiently installed. Therefore, it is necessary to designate a district for the new town project that

⁶ The Seoul Development Institute, Seoul, *Twentieth Century: Growth & Change of the Last 100 Years* (Seoul: The Seoul Development Institute, 2001):559.

⁷ Ibid, 575-576.

⁸ The Seoul Institute, *Key Issues and Improvements of New Town Project In Seoul*(Seoul: The Seoul Development Institute, 2008): 72.



integrates several redevelopment projects. The district for the new town project was as large as 500,000 m² or more for residential terrain.

As the urban regeneration of Seoul commenced in 2012, the scale of the policy shifted back to a smaller scale. This was because of criticism of large-scale maintenance projects such as the difficulties involved in project promotion and concerns over the destruction of local characteristics due to large-scale demolition and redevelopment. With the 2012 amendment of the ‘Urban Maintenance and Improvement Act’, a ‘block-unit housing rearrangement project’, a construction project for street houses in areas of less than 10,000 m², was newly established. In the 2013 ‘Urban Regeneration Act’, there is no specific area regulation; ‘The Special Act for the Maintenance of Empty Housing and Small-Scale Housing’ was enacted in 2017 and implemented from 2018 onwards.

3) Project Types

Housing redevelopment, reconstruction, urban environment maintenance and residential environment improvement projects under separate laws were integrated into the ‘Urban Maintenance and Improvement Act’ in 2002. From 1990 to 2008, 47,000 out of 89,000 housing units were provided as the public rental housing through the maintenance and improvement projects. Moreover, 19% and 13.3% of the infrastructure facilities in the Seoul redevelopment and reconstruction districts were expanded.⁹

In 2012, residential environment maintenance projects and block-unit housing rearrangement projects were added. The strategy was changed to focus on the maintenance and management of the residential environment by considering the quality of the housing environment beyond the limits of the physical project. This law was amended in February 2018, and housing redevelopment and reconstruction and residential environment improvement projects are now being processed. Since the ‘Urban Maintenance and Improvement Act’ had a complex legal system, the project types needed to be simplified in 2017.

It was strategically highlighted that the pattern and cause of the decline varied according to the region after the enactment of the ‘Urban Regeneration Act’ in 2013. Project types were divided into ‘economy-based’ and ‘neighbourhood-based’ regeneration, and 13 areas that urgently required urban regeneration and have high ripple effects were designated as priority areas. Urban regeneration projects were put into place in 33 regions in 2016 and are expected to be completed by 2021.

In 2017, Moon Jae-in’s administration launched the New Deal Policy under the determination that residents should lead urban regeneration projects to ensure lasting urban regeneration policy effects. It emphasised small neighbourhood restorations and expanded the project types. The amount of government financial support varied depending on the type of project, and 68 pilot projects were designated in December of 2017.

Project types have also changed in response to systematic changes, such as expansion, integration, and transfer. Although the ‘Urban Maintenance and Improvement Act’ recently simplified the types of projects, the ‘Urban Regeneration Act’ project still contains some confusion with regard to type classifications. In the past, the project in question changed large-scale physical projects to small-scale neighbourhood regeneration projects. This project will be carried out under the initiative of residents to activate and restore communities.

2. Process Changes

1) Development Method

Past Korean regeneration methods mostly took the form of clearance. As a way of redevelopment, the ‘joint redevelopment method’ was implemented in 1983. It aimed to provide land to local governments and landowners rather than having to pay for it, and the builders would charge the costs required to complete the buildings from demolition to fixing the faulty housing. The landowners found new houses in return for providing their faulty housing, while the builders took on the costs and profits from selling these houses. After 1984, this method was applied to almost all housing redevelopment projects.

⁹ Korea Planning Association & Korea Housing Institute, *the Seminar for Basic Policy on the Maintenance and Improvement of Urban Areas and Dwelling Conditions for Residents*, 2013.



In clearance-led redevelopment, the public maintains residential areas without having to provide much assistance, and it has produced many achievements. However, local communities have collapsed, indigenous people have found it difficult to resettle, and it could not be applied in small and medium cities where business demands were low or in areas requiring small renovations.

Areas were regenerated after the 2000s to overcome the limitations of maintenance and management paradigms, such as conservation, improvement, and rehabilitation. The revised 'Urban Maintenance and Improvement Act' of 2012 reflects these changes. Under that amendment, the residential environment management project was created. This project can be carried out in areas where it is necessary to improve the residential environment, but where it is difficult to remove the entire structure. With this method, the public needed to improve the infrastructure of densely populated ageing residential areas, such as single and multiplex houses, and residents could manage and improve their own houses. The block-unit housing rearrangement project led to gradual and sustainable regeneration in areas where street conditions were relatively good by maintaining the existing urban organisation and landscape, while allowing for small improvements in the residential environment.

This paradigm shift was also applied to projects that were carried out after the enactment of the 'Urban Regeneration Act', such as in priority and general areas of urban regeneration projects and pilot projects of the New Deal Policy. Those projects' purpose was also improved beyond the housing and residential environment improvements such as community revitalisation and restoration, housing welfare, social cohesion, and job creation.

2) Agents

Various agents participated in the regeneration of related policies in Korea. Regeneration policies, while seeking public interest, also affect private property. It is reasonable to expect agents to play different roles in the public and private sectors¹⁰.

At the beginning of the enactment of the 'Urban Redevelopment Act' in 1976, the public sector, especially the national government, designated the project area. Since the mid-1990s, when local governments were in control of project planning and designating areas for regeneration, the role of the national government has been reduced.

In 2002, the 'Urban Maintenance and Improvement Act' established local governments' comprehensive plans. In 2005, the 'New Town Act' expanded the project scale into super blocks to facilitate efficient housing supply and infrastructure construction. Despite these laws, the public's role was confined to suggesting guidelines, designating project districts, and approving projects.

After launching a joint redevelopment method in the 1980s, the actual projects had been focused on the redevelopment or reconstruction methods of property-owner associations, a private sector. These owner-driven projects caused conflict with residents¹¹. Only the project's profitability was considered rather than public interests, and small landlords or tenants were not taken into consideration, problematizing the resettlement of residents.

Since the 2008 global financial crisis, the profitability of redevelopment projects greatly deteriorated due to external factors. Private-led projects no longer worked. In 2012 the 'Urban Maintenance and Improvement Act' was revised. The revision strengthened the public's role by introducing new public-led methods, expanding financial support, coordinating with existing plans, and encouraging residents' participation. Establishing the 'National Basic Policy' strengthened the role of the national government. This resulted in strengthened support for bottom-up proposals, rather than public top-down regulations, and reinforced the role of the public in supporting and facilitating projects.

In 2013, the 'Urban Regeneration Act' was enacted and reflects the great transformation in the urban planning paradigm. This law seeks to restore the physical environment and to preserve socioeconomic values¹². It includes public support for communities to solve their own problems through urban regeneration projects. The new law can establish 'Urban Regeneration Support Centres(URSC)' which are middle-support organisations that strengthen the linkage between the public and the private. It supports communities in running projects to solve their own problems with the use of public finance. Until recently, it was difficult to find communities with sufficient abilities to run self-renewal projects and the public could not easily support the community in terms of efficiency and ties

¹⁰ Lee, Myeong-hoon, "Strengthen public roles and responsibilities in urban maintenance projects", *Urban Information Service* 325(2009):3-4.

¹¹ Bae, Woon-kyu, "Introduction and task of new maintenance business according to revision of Urban Maintenance and Improvement Act" *Urban Information Service* 366(2012):3-21.

¹² Jang, Nam-jong, Kim, Sangil, Lee, Hyun-jung, and Baik, Ce-na, *Search for Main Issues and New Direction on Urban Regeneration in Seoul*, (The Seoul Institute, 2017):9.



with the field. It is a 'third sector', not a private sector or a public entity and its role in the success of urban regeneration will be strengthened in the future¹³. The number of URSCs has been increased since 2013, and there are 77 centres in 2017¹⁴.

3) Citizen Participation

Citizen participation is increasing in Korea's urban regeneration policy changing process. In the urban regeneration policy, devices for 'citizen participation' have been applied in a variety of ways: 'allowing residents to browse administrative documents', 'holding public hearings', 'obtaining residents' consent', and 'organising a community council'¹⁵. Through an analysis of these factors in accordance with Arnstein's (1969)¹⁶ 'Ladder of Citizen Participation' theory, the changes in the level of participation in urban regeneration in Korea will be explained.

The 1976 'Urban Redevelopment Act' allows residents to view documents related to redevelopment projects and requests residents' consent for project implementation. However, 'residents' only referred to property owners who only consider their property rights without considering the impact on those around them. Actual inhabitants were not sufficiently considered, and the resettlement rate of residents after the project was less than 20%.

The revised 'Urban Redevelopment Act' of 1995 required local governments to establish a 'Maintenance and Improvement Comprehensive Plan' and hold a public hearing as part of the proposal. The 2003 'Urban Maintenance and Improvement Act' strengthened the consideration of tenants in the 2005 revision. For some projects, the tenant's consent was included in the project execution conditions. However, the effect was negligible because the number of projects requiring tenant consideration was low in the total number of regeneration projects. Until the late 2000s, the factors of 'administrative document disclosure', 'public hearings', and 'residents' consent' amounted to mere 'tokenism' to meet the legal requirements for project implementation¹⁷.

The expansion of citizen participation was an important issue in the amended 'Urban Maintenance and Improvement Act' of 2012. After the global financial crisis, as large-scale redevelopment projects became more difficult, the amended law allowed residents to request zoning cancellation. By introducing the citizen participation-type methodology, the 'urban environment maintenance project' and the 'block-unit housing rearrangement project', residents could participate in urban regeneration projects. With the 2013 enactment of the 'Urban Regeneration Act', resident-led small-scale rehabilitation projects became possible. This strengthened the capacity of the people by supporting public-private partnerships and raised the citizen participation level to 'Citizen Power'. Although it has only been five years since the beginning of the 'Citizen Power' phase, small-scale projects led by 'resident councils' and the excavation of 'the third sector' are rapidly expanding¹⁸.

¹³ Park, Se-hoon & Yim, Sang-yeon, *Rebuilding Intermediary Organizations for Urban Regeneration in Korea : A Government-Civil Society Relation Perspective*, (Korea Research Institute for Human Settlements, 2014):21.

¹⁴ Kim, Yea-Sung, *Improvement Strategies for Urban Regeneration Center*, (Seoul: NARS, 2008):22

¹⁵ Kim, Jong-su, "Expansion of Residents' Participation in Urban and Regional Planning", *The Journal of Korean Policy Studies* 10, no2(2010):51-67

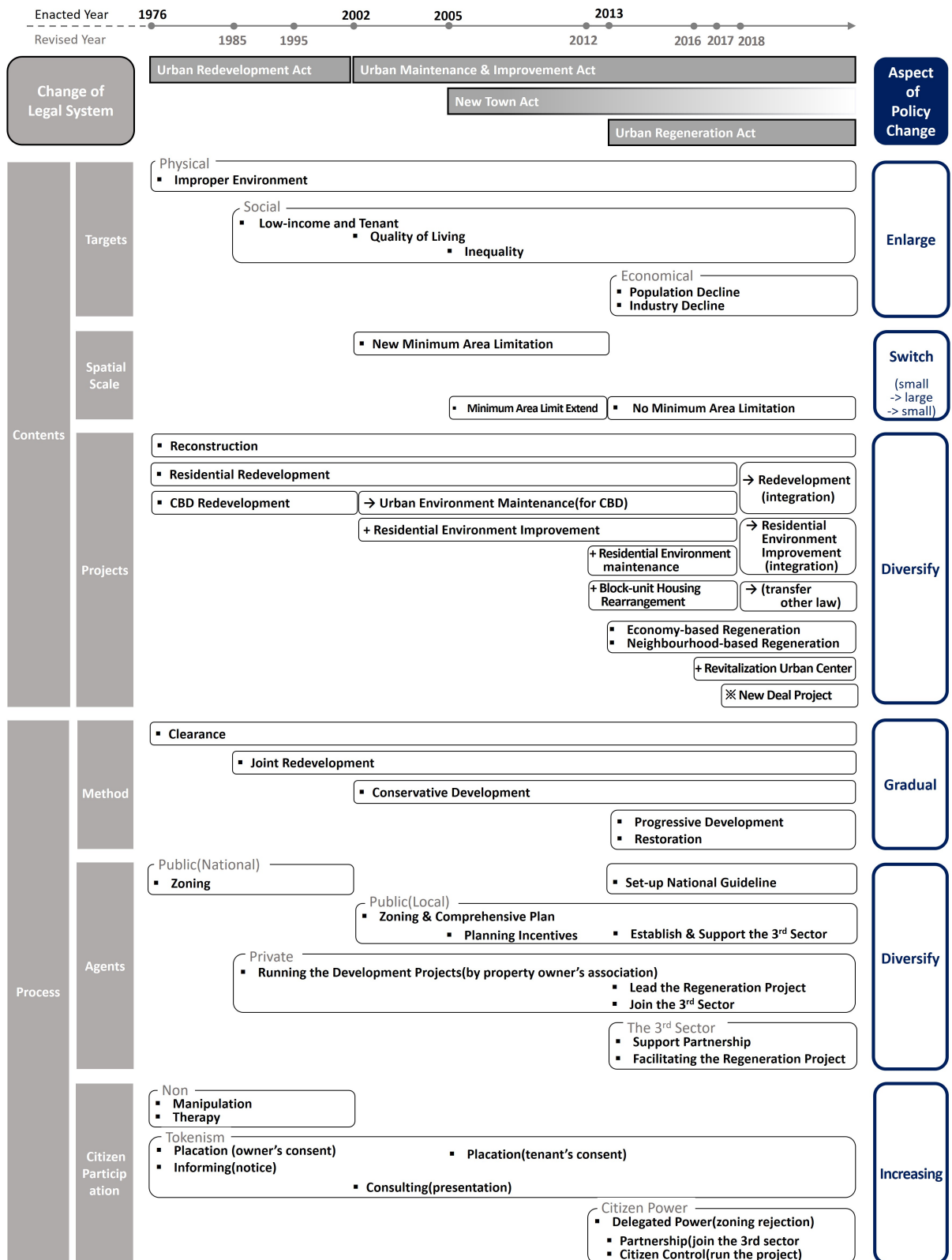
¹⁶ Arnstein, Sherry R. R. "A Ladder Of Citizen Participation." *Journal of the American Planning Association* 35, no. 4 (1969): 216-24.

¹⁷ Shin, Hyun-ju., and Kang, Myoung-gu. "Level of Community Participation in Urban Regeneration: Focusing on Haebangchon Case, Yongsan-gu, Seoul." *Journal of The Korean Regional Development Association* 29, no. 3 (2017): 25-46.

¹⁸ Heo, Ja Yun, Jung, Chang Mu, and Kim, Sangil, "Gentrification and Local Communities of Shopkeepers on Commercial Areas in Seoul.", *Space and society* 55 (2016): 313-16.



Figure 2: Urban Regeneration Policy Change in South Korea 1976~2018





3. Discussion

Policy changes related to Korean urban regeneration have occurred in stages that complemented previous systems and considered changes in socioeconomic conditions. Previous policies' cumulative adverse effects confirmed that existing policies lost their purpose and major changes occurred when the socioeconomic context was rapidly changing. In the late 1970s, the 'Urban Redevelopment Act' put a policy in place to provide space for housing and offices. In the 1990s, when the existing system was unable to show its strength due to conflicts between stakeholders and the pursuit of lasting good interests in the process of the redevelopment project for the past 20 years, the government established the 'Urban Maintenance and Improvement Act' in 2003. It stipulated spatial scales, project types, and the role of stakeholders. As unbalanced growth emerged as a social problem, the 2005 'New Town Act' was introduced to develop relatively low-growth areas into rehabilitation projects.

During the designation of the maintenance district by the 'New Town Act' and the scale of the enlargement, the existing urban development mechanism became inoperable due to the 2008 global financial crisis¹⁹. The sluggish maintenance project caused both urban and national competitive decline. The 2012 amendment of the 'Urban Maintenance and Improvement Act' and the 2013 'Urban Regeneration Act' reorganised the relevant policies. The transformation of urban regeneration policy was based on economic conditions, the response to the low growth era, and the growing demand for public services due to the growth of civil society. The related decline in population and urban industry became regeneration targets, and urban regeneration policy became an integrated policy dealing with the physical, social, and economic environment. The scale of the urban regeneration project was reduced and the project was flexibly promoted. Public and private roles were simultaneously strengthened, but the public role played a service (support) role to the private sector. A new entrant, 'the third sector', strengthened residents' participation and the governance of urban regeneration policy.

Policy changes are also related to changes in the political environment surrounding the policy²⁰, as is true for the Korean urban regeneration policy. Before 2012, policy makers tried to drive development through large-scale development projects. However, in 2011, with the election of a progressive civil society-based mayor in Seoul, the policy changed from being place-based to people-based²¹. Small-scale maintenance and citizen participation have become important policy factors. The capital's policy change affected all of Korea. As the Moon Jae-in government, whose own policies are in line with the policy trend in Seoul, took office in 2017, the 'Urban Regeneration New Deal' became the country's main policy.

Conclusion

This study attempted to explain urban regeneration policy changes and their causes in Korea. Since the 1970s, Korea's urban regeneration policy has undergone 'partial change'. This can be divided into 'contents' and 'processes'. By examining the 'contents change' of the policy, policy targets were expanded and the types and sizes of the projects varied. In terms of 'process change', the regeneration methodology was diversified, 'the third sector' was added to the 'public' and 'private' divisions, and citizen participation increased.

This study shows that the Korean urban regeneration policy is changing dynamically due to the combination of the existing system's defects and domestic and foreign socio-economic factors. The changes were rapid and a result of ground-breaking work. From the introduction of the 'comprehensive maintenance and improvement planning system' in the late 1990s to the 'national government's' 'New Deal' initiated in recent decades, policy changes in Korea took the form of a compressed process. In 20 years, Korea underwent 'the urban regeneration paradigm shift' that Western cities have experienced for over 50 years.

Particularly, this study shows that Korea's urban regeneration policy has been lack of socio-economic consideration and a comprehensive policy is needed. Urban regeneration policy should work with housing welfare policy for the low-income and the former residents. Now, Korea's 'New Deal for Urban Regeneration' includes the public rental housing. Korea's experience will provide implications for the urban maintenance and management of third world cities, which are in a similar developmental process to that of Korea in the past.

¹⁹ Cho, Myung-Rae, "From Housing Development to Human-Centered Residential Regeneration: Focused on the New Residential Policy of Seoul," *Space and Society* 46, (2013): 6–7.

²⁰ Daniel A. Mazmanian and Paul A. Sabatier (eds.), *Effective Policy Implementation* (Lexington: Heath, 1981):178–181.

²¹ Cho, Myung-Rae, 31–54.



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Balancing Environment, Economy and Equity: planning initiatives in three cities in Brazil, Mongolia and India

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By 2050, 66 per cent of the world's population will be living in urban areas, with approximately 90 per cent of this increase occurring across Africa and Asia. While urbanisation is proving to be rewarding in terms of providing access to employment and infrastructure, its rapid pace is equally challenging to deal with as poverty, urban sprawl and environmental degradation are some outcomes of urban life that far outweigh the positives. Most often noticeable in developing countries is a trend of disproportionate distribution of population across urban areas, which in most cases has led to huge pressures on land, infrastructure, environment and economy(s) of cities. This paper seeks to examine the role of urban planning and the integration of current concerns of environment, economy and equity into master planning of three cities, on the basis that master plans can be more effective in enabling the sustainable growth of cities. The master plans of three cities – Sawai Madhopur in India, Curitiba in Brazil and Ulaanbaatar in Mongolia, are discussed in this paper with the intention of examining how these cities have dealt with rapid urbanisation and economic growth by employing master planning initiatives that seek to protect the environment, while allowing for sustainable growth in terms of the city's land use and its infrastructure.

Keywords: urban planning, sustainable urbanisation, environment, economy, equity

Introduction

Urbanisation has been increasing at a tremendous rate – in 2016, 54.5 per cent of the world's population lived in urban settlements, and by 2050 this number is expected to rise to 66 per cent. Approximately 90 per cent of urbanisation will occur in Africa and Asia up until 2050.¹ While urban areas provide greater opportunities in terms of education, health, social services, livelihood and employment, stress on existing city infrastructure along with disparities in access to public services and utilities, has resulted in fast growing urban areas often being marked by poverty, urban sprawl, pollution, and environmental degradation. This paper seeks to examine the role of urban planning in cities in developing countries, with a focus on the integration of current concerns of environment, economy and equity into master planning of cities, on the basis that master plans can be more effective in enabling the sustainable growth of cities.

Master planning or modernist urban planning as we know it today, has its origins in 19th century Western European planning and the values espoused by developed countries. Its spread through the rest of the world has occurred through “processes of colonialism, market expansion and intellectual exchange”, and through the influence of “professional bodies and international and development agencies”.² It is now widely acknowledged that the colonising imperative of ‘modernizing and civilizing’ was seen reflected in urban planning systems which sought to control urbanization processes and urbanizing populations. The legacy of modernist urban planning systems has persisted in many regions of the world, especially in developing countries like India where the “early 20th-century idea of master planning and land-use zoning, used together to promote modernist urban environments” continues to be employed.³ The result is a planning system which,

...fails to accommodate the way of life of the majority of inhabitants in rapidly growing, and largely poor and informal cities, and thus directly contributes to social and spatial marginalization or exclusion...fails to take into account the important challenges of 21st-century cities...fails to acknowledge the need to involve communities and other stakeholders in the planning and management of urban areas.⁴

In growing recognition of these issues there is a move towards urban planning initiatives which seek to make cities inclusive, safe, resilient and sustainable – this is also the basis of one of the goals of the *17 Sustainable Development Goals* (SDG) of the *2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*.⁵ SDG 11 seeks to “enhance inclusive and sustainable urbanization and capacity for participatory, integrated and sustainable human settlement planning and management in all countries”.⁶ In fact, this is accentuated by the very idea of a sustainable city, as