

1 **“Building smart cities, the just way. A critical review of “smart” and “just”**
2 **initiatives in Bristol, UK”**

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9 **ABSTRACT** This article investigates the application of the “smart cities” and “urban
10 climate justice” concepts to two urban initiatives based in Bristol, UK. Both ideas are
11 increasingly popular in academic literature. Yet, little is known about their
12 understanding by the practitioners such as policymakers, third sector organisations
13 and citizens. Two case studies, a community-based energy efficiency initiative, and a
14 local authority electric vehicle policy were critically reviewed using discourse analysis.
15 The method helped to reveal the explicit, implied and obscured aims of the examined
16 initiatives. Using discourse analysis, the researchers developed a heuristic which
17 could improve traditional policy analysis approaches. The examination of case studies
18 illustrates how practitioners understand the notions of “urban climate justice” and
19 “smart cities” and whether their conceptualisations differ from those present in the
20 academic literature. Finally, the paper offers methodological suggestions for
21 embedding justice in “smart” initiatives at each stage of policy and project design.

22

23 **Keywords** smart city/ urban policy / Bristol / climate justice / discourse analysis

24

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31

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33

34 **Printing** No need to use colour when printing

35

36 **Abbreviations**

37 EV- Electric Vehicles

38 CHEESE – Cold Homes Energy Efficiency Surveying

39 DA – Discourse Analysis

40 GHG – Greenhouse Gases

41 KPI – Key Performance Indicators

42 SDGs – Sustainable Development Goals

43 ULEV – Ultra-low-emission-vehicles

44 WEF – World Economic Forum

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47 **1. Introduction**

48 **1.1 Towards “smart” and “just” cities?**

49 The “grand challenges” of the future such as climate change, limited resources
50 availability and widening social inequalities are likely to transform how cities are
51 governed. Meanwhile, the unprecedented development of technologies promises

52 solutions to these issues. Yet, without an inclusive deliberation, technology poses
53 further risks to security or democracy (Stilgoe, 2017).

54 Sustainable urbanisation is indeed a subject of lively debates amongst academics and
55 policymakers. The initiatives promoting “smart cities” and “urban climate justice” are
56 components of this debate generating questions about the nature of the transition to
57 a sustainable future such as:

- 58 • How to harness the potential of technology?
- 59 • How will the residents be affected by the transition? Who will benefit, pay,
60 decide, be excluded or included?

61 Both concepts are relatively new in the urban policy realm, therefore they create a
62 potential for terminological confusion (de Jong *et al.*, 2015; Bulkeley *et al.*, 2014).
63 Additionally, it is not clear whether politicians, local civil servants, collaborating start-
64 ups and grassroots communities apply these ideas in the manner as intended or
65 expected by theorists who had proposed them.

66 In the context of this study, we define “smart cities” and “urban climate justice” as
67 follows:

- 68 • “Smart cities” as an agenda aiming to implement technological innovations and
69 utilise digital data collected about society as a means of policymaking and
70 urban development (Shelton *et al.*, 2015).
- 71 • Urban climate justice is theorised as the consideration for ethical issues in
72 policymaking. The key concerns are the distribution of resources, procedures
73 of inclusion, rights to emit GHG emissions, responsibility to ameliorate climate
74 change and the recognition of pre-existing injustices (Bulkeley *et al.*, 2014).

75 **1.2. Policy developments to date**

76 The idea of “smart cities” has gained remarkable popularity over the last few years (De
77 Jong *et al.*, 2015). For example, one of the strategic priorities of the World Economic
78 Forum (WEF) is co-creating “Fourth Industrial Revolution”. This involves multi-
79 stakeholder dialogue and concrete cooperation on urban governance challenges and
80 opportunities presented by advanced technologies (WEF, 2019). Similarly, the
81 European Commission (EC) established the European Innovation Partnership on
82 Smart Cities and Communities which aims to provide a “marketplace of ideas” for
83 smart mobility, procurement, planning etc. (EC, 2019). Following the agenda set by
84 the international organisations, tech companies and universities have mobilised their
85 resources to describe, account and rank the emerging “smart cities” (Huawei, 2017;
86 IESE, 2018, Eden Strategy Institute, 2018). Drawing from the smart city rankings
87 (*ibid.*), Table 1 outlines the instances of the “smart city” agenda applied in practice:

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91 **Table 1.** Examples of smart city projects implemented around the world.

Name	Description	Cities	Reference
GrowSmarter	Setting up a network of charging terminals for electric vehicles at strategic locations in the city.	Barcelona, Stockholm, Cologne	European Commission, 2019
Matchup – Internet of Things	Gathering urban data and designing Key Performance Indicator (KPI) dashboards to manage all of the city’s assets in the mobility, transport and energy sectors.	Valencia, Dresden, Antalya	European Commission, 2009

Project-DISC	Informing policy and strategic service developments using unified data, simulation, and modelling. This will be applied to the construction of a new rail terminus.	Birmingham	Huawei, 2017
Smart Street Lighting	Improving energy efficiency while supporting other applications such as monitoring movement (footfall and traffic flow), air, and noise pollution levels.	Glasgow	Huawei, 2017
Tech Skills Accelerator	Training over 27,000 people in data analytics, artificial intelligence, and cybersecurity.	Singapore	Eden Strategy Institute, 2018
Ofo Bike sharing	Sharing the location, distribution data and utilization heatmaps with the government. The data allows the city to support new bus routes planning.	Shanghai	Eden Strategy Institute, 2018

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93 Meanwhile, calls for climate justice at the urban level have also been raised by high-
 94 profile strategies, such as Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs) (UN, 2015). For
 95 example, Goal 11 of SDGs (Sustainable cities and communities) specifies:

96 *“11.2. By 2030, provide access to safe, affordable, accessible*
 97 *and sustainable transport systems for all, improving road*
 98 *safety, notably by expanding public transport, with special*
 99 *attention to the needs of those in vulnerable situations,*
 100 *women, children, persons with disabilities and older persons”*
 101 (UN, 2015).

102 Indeed, both academics and practitioners have started to recognise the importance of
 103 citizens in co-creation of “smart cities” (Saunders and Baeck, 2015). However, there
 104 is little clarity, guidelines and evidence on what people-centred “smart cities” could

105 mean in practice (Cowley *et al.*, 2017). Without the explicit reference to the justice
106 discourse, “smart cities” might become a buzzword, a term characterised by a high
107 frequency of usage but a low potential for accountability (Rist, 2013; Finger and
108 Razaghi, 2016).

109 **2. Theory**

110 **2.1. Smart cities**

111 The literature on smart cities characterises its agenda as 1) Improving economic and
112 administrative decision making through technological innovation; 2) Improving social
113 inclusion in the development and adaptation of the emerging technologies; 3) Raising
114 the profile of high-tech industries in contributing to the economic growth 4) Effective
115 embedding of technology in wider physical and social systems (Caragliu *et al.*, 2011;
116 Allwinkle and Cruickshank, 2011).

117 However, an academic critique arising from the closer examination of the smart city
118 goals questions the assumptions coming from the paradigm. For example, Shelton *et*
119 *al.* (2015) challenge the notion of “objectivity” as a result of the integration of
120 technology into policymaking. They argue that all datasets are socially constructed
121 and can, therefore, result in competing representations of the world (*Ibid.*).

122 Furthermore, upon completing a large scale bibliographic analysis of peer-reviewed
123 urban development literature, De Jong *et al.* (2015), argues that “smart cities” are only
124 weakly related to the environmental agenda (e.g. “sustainable” or “low carbon” cities).
125 Instead, they suggested that the idea of “smart city” builds on the other
126 conceptualisations of urban modernisation, e.g. “information city”, “digital city” or
127 “intelligent city” (*Ibid.*). The database analysed by de Jong *et al.* (2015) spanned the
128 period 1996 to 2013. Their analysis revealed that in the final year of the analysis,

129 “smart city” was the most commonly used urbanisation concept in the academic
130 discourse (de Jong *et al.*, 2015). Nevertheless, without a detailed analysis of the
131 “actually existing” smart initiatives, it is difficult to assess whether this correlates to the
132 popularity of the term in practice and how the decision makers bring academic
133 concepts to life.

134 To explore whether the real-life applications of smart city conceptualisations stands
135 up to scrutiny, Caprotti *et al.* (2016) examined 398 UK initiatives labelled as “smart” by
136 their organisers. Here, the researchers highlighted the issues of the longevity of the
137 projects, long-term adaptation of the technology from the bottom-up and, finally,
138 upscaling pilot initiatives. As a result, UK-based smart initiatives could potentially
139 become unaffordable and unengaged with the majority of citizens. Caprotti *et al.* (*ibid.*)
140 highlighted that the impact of smart technologies on social equality remains
141 underexplored.

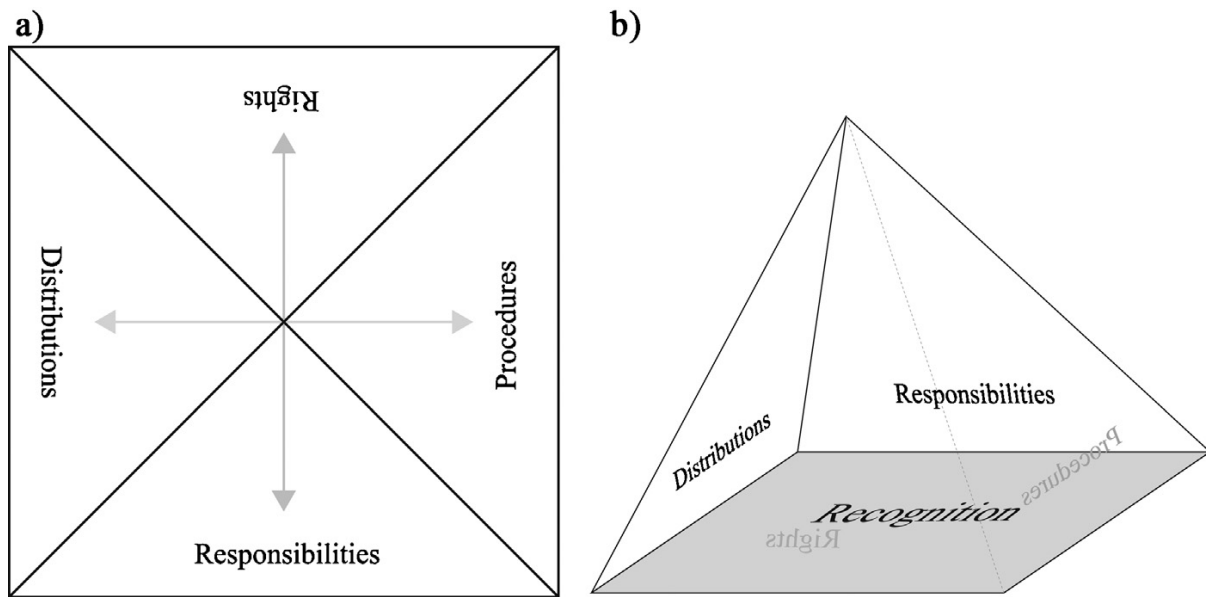
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145 **2.2. Urban Climate Justice**

146 Urban climate justice is conceptualised at a more academically mature level
147 comparing to the emergent “smart cities” discourse. Numerous definitions of climate
148 justice have burgeoned over the past few years (Bulkeley *et al.*, 2014; Steele *et al.*,
149 2015; Shi *et al.*, 2016). What they all have in common is the emphasis on 1) equitable
150 access to resources 2) responsibility for emissions 3) right to emit GHG gases and
151 benefit from policies 4) inclusion and diversity in policy procedures 5) recognising the
152 pre-existing injustices in the first place (Fig.1).



153

154 *Figure 1. A conceptualisation of climate justice based on recognition of injustice as a*
 155 *necessary basis for assessment of responsibilities, rights, distributions and*
 156 *procedures. (Bulkeley et al., 2014; licensed under CC BY 3.0)*

157 Climate justice is explicitly recognised at the international level by the major
 158 frameworks like Sustainable Development Goals (UN, 2015) or Paris Agreement
 159 (UNFCCC; 2015). However, similarly to the smart cities agenda, there is not enough
 160 empirical evidence suggesting whether the international frameworks set from the top-
 161 down are applied in cities with the same ethical principles in mind (Shi et al., 2016).
 162 Policymakers still lack practical and mixed method tools (e.g. applying both “smart”
 163 data and qualitative reviews) to assess the contribution to climate justice both before
 164 and after the implementation of the policy.

165 Furthermore, the application of climate justice to the political sphere is not fully
 166 understood yet. Terms like “social justice”, “social sustainability”, equality”, “equity”
 167 and “inclusion” carry varying degrees of ambiguity (Michalec et al., 2019). They can
 168 be either explicitly politically charged or appropriated to suit the current hegemony
 169 (Fuchs, 2017).

170 Finally, urban climate justice is most commonly researched in terms of climate
171 adaptation policies in the Global South (Shi *et al.* 2016). However, climate mitigation
172 policies are also subjected to possible injustices which exist across all scales of
173 governance and dimensions of the justice pyramid (Bulkeley *et al.*, 2014). This
174 argument furthered the climate justice agenda into exploring the possibility of
175 “intersectional” analysis and policymaking. Intersectionality research calls for the
176 recognition of the multiple co-existing forms of disadvantage and vulnerability, e.g.
177 income, gender, ethnicity, age and health. Despite a growing body of research on
178 intersectionality and climate justice, these ideas are yet to be encountered in policy
179 practice (Kaijser and Kronsell, 2014; Agyeman *et al.*, 2016).

180 **2.3. The potential for cross-fertilisation of “smart” and “just” agenda**

181 The potential for co-creating “smart” **and** “just” cities has not been fully realised so far
182 (De Jong *et al.*, 2015). This raises the questions:

- 183 • Do “smart city” initiatives take into account social justice issues?
- 184 • Do climate justice policies make the most of the available opportunities
185 provided by technology and open data?

186 The point of departure of this article is building on the promises of “smart city” and
187 “urban climate justice” agenda. Whereas both theories propose improvements in
188 sustainable policymaking, “smart cities” tend to be most commonly driven by
189 “objective” data, and depoliticised decision-making (Cowley *et al.*, 2017). On the other
190 hand, the “urban climate justice” paradigm is explicitly value-laden (Agyeman *et al.*,
191 2016). Therefore, the article examines whether “smart cities” can be deliberately
192 politicised so they openly include urban climate justice aims. The paper also considers
193 the potential for improvements in urban climate justice methodologies – whether the

194 recent advancements in data science and technology can offer new insights beyond
195 the traditional evaluation methods.

196 **2.4. Research aims**

197 The aim of this paper is to enrich the agendas of smart cities and urban climate justice
198 as well as contribute to their development in practice. By critically reviewing existing
199 projects in Bristol, UK, this article investigates how justice is understood and applied
200 to “smart city” initiatives. Finally, the paper presents a heuristic for evaluating urban
201 initiatives through the lens of climate justice. This methodology could be readily
202 applied by practitioners, policymakers and researchers. Finally, the paper concludes
203 with suggestions on communicating the results of the analysis as well as the
204 methodology to the decision makers.

205 **3. Research design**

206 This paper presents a critical in-depth review of two qualitative case studies. Both
207 projects are focused on climate mitigation initiatives labelled as “smart”. The work
208 builds upon the previous conceptualisations of “smart cities” (Caprotti *et al.*, 2016; de
209 Jong *et al.*, 2015) and “urban climate justice” (Bulkeley *et al.*, 2014).

210

211 **3.1. Study area**

212 The research is concerned with climate change mitigation initiatives implemented in
213 the city of Bristol, UK. The city is located in the South-West of the UK, with a population
214 of 442 000 residents. It is a signatory of the UN-wide climate change mitigation
215 commitment; Compact of Mayors (2014). In 2015, the city adopted its own Climate
216 Change Framework (BCC, 2015a), building upon the national legally binding Climate
217 Change Act (HM Government, 2008). The document sets ambitious targets of
218 reducing urban CO₂ emissions by 40% by 2020 (based on 2005 baseline). Recently,

219 Bristol City Council declared an ambition to become carbon neutral by 2030 (BBC,
220 2018).

221 In terms of technological improvement, Bristol has already been embracing the “smart
222 city” agenda at the project-scale in recent years (Cowley *et al.*, 2017). This led to city
223 scoring first position in the Huawei UK Smart Cities Index (Huawei, 2017). The city
224 topped the ranking thanks to the implementation of the innovative initiatives, such as:

- 225 • Data Dome: data visualisation facility
- 226 • Bristol is Open: data sharing platform
- 227 • Citizen Sensor: a project involving citizens in prioritising policy issues which
228 can be then tackled using technology
- 229 • Bristol Energy: a municipally-owned energy company, responsible for the
230 smart meters rollout
- 231 • Electric vehicles charging points (Woods., 2016)
- 232 • Cold Homes Energy Efficiency Surveying (BEN, 2017).

233 Out of the above projects, three have encompassed climate change mitigation
234 explicitly in their agenda. Smart meters rollout, cold homes energy efficiency surveying
235 (CHEESE) and electric vehicles (EV) initiatives are concerned with reducing CO₂
236 emissions with the help of state-of-the-art technology.

237 Despite its recent technological innovations, as the city struggles with social inequality.
238 It is estimated that 69 000 (or 16%) people are amongst the poorest 10% of English
239 residents. Over 13% live in fuel poverty, comparing to 10.6% of the national average.
240 One in four children lives in poverty – which is the highest figure in the south west of
241 England (BCC, 2015b). As tackling social inequalities is one of Bristol’s strategic

242 priorities, the emerging “smart city” projects ought to consider their impact on the most
243 vulnerable residents (BCC, 2019).

244

245 **3.2. Selection process**

246 CHEESE project and Electric Vehicles rollout were selected as case studies for the
247 research. These initiatives were selected as currently little is known about the inclusion
248 of justice agenda in them. So far, the theoretical literature on “smart cities” and “urban
249 justice” warned against technologies and policies impacting the residents unevenly,
250 as a result, deepening social inequalities (Shelton *et al.*, 2015; Preston *et al.*; 2014).
251 The issues of metering implementation in Bristol are described elsewhere (Michalec,
252 2019).

253 In order to select suitable case studies, the researchers undertook a detailed database
254 search using specialist literature on smart cities (Woods *et al.* 2016; Caprotti *et al.*,
255 2015), the local council website (<https://democracy.bristol.gov.uk/>) and websites of the
256 sustainability sector organisations (<http://bristolenergynetwork.org/>;
257 <http://bristolgreencapital.org/>). The initial literature review led to the selection of two
258 case studies based on the variety of information and diversity of the projects (Tab. 2).
259 Selected case studies reflect various types of climate mitigation initiatives present in
260 the city:

- 261 • EV: A major national government-led initiative. It aims to disseminate the
262 electric transport infrastructure, so EV become more accessible and
263 affordable.
- 264 • CHEESE: A community-led small size project. CHEESE project offers low-cost
265 and free thermal imaging surveys and advice on affordable insulation. The

266 project aims to tackle fuel poverty by giving the residents the capability to
267 improve the efficiency of their households.

268 **Table 2.** Case studies selected for the discourse analysis

Name of the project	Short description	Number of sources	References used for the analysis
Electric Vehicles (EV)	Infrastructure features (e.g. charging stations) and financial incentives (e.g. reduction in parking fees) aimed at EV owners, car clubs and council fleet vehicles.	2	BBC, 2016; WoE, 2016;
Cold Homes Energy Efficiency Surveying (CHEESE)	A community-led project using thermal imaging surveys indicating the best ways to improve energy efficiency in the local households.	1	BEN, 2017

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273 **3.3. Discourse Analysis**

274 The case studies were investigated qualitatively, using desk-based analysis. Following
275 the selection of the relevant initiatives, the initiatives were assessed using discourse
276 analysis (DA), in particular:

- 277 • Bulkeley *et al.* (2014) framework for climate justice (Fig. 1) asking not only
278 about the impact on stakeholders but also on issues of recognition, inclusion,
279 exclusion and omission of potential stakeholders (Tab. 3)

- 280 • Bax (2010) heuristic for aims and impact of the project at the explicit, implied
281 and obscured levels (Tab. 3).

282 This stands in contrast to the evaluation criteria commonly applied in policy studies:
283 logic model and stakeholder analysis (Smith, 2010). A departure from the traditional
284 methods of policy analysis is justified with a need for self-reflexivity and caution of the
285 analyst when it comes to assessing the application of emerging, complex and
286 contested terms. Methods like logic model do not question the assumptions behind
287 the theory-laden terms, potentially contributing to further misuse of the aforementioned
288 “buzzwords” (House and Howe, 1999). Similarly, although stakeholder analyses often
289 ask about impacts and involvement of the stakeholders, they do not question who is
290 *not* considered a stakeholder; neither who is *not* impacted by a policy at all and
291 whether this is a positive thing. The paper argues for practicing self-reflexivity and
292 caution both by academics conceptualising the urban development theories as well as
293 policymakers, whose framing often contributes to the prevailing discourse in practice.

294 The researchers chose DA as a vehicle of policy and project analysis. The method
295 employs a critical level of text analysis as it goes beyond that which is presented
296 explicitly (Wodak and Meyer, 2009). Questioning the issues of power, inclusion,
297 foregrounding and backgrounding, typical for DA, fits well with the objectives of the
298 paper. By examining the understanding and application of “smart” and “just” projects
299 in Bristol, the paper aims to improve the clarity of the urban climate change mitigation
300 policies.

301 Table 3 outlines the detailed heuristic for the application of the method both within and
302 outside of the academia. The purpose of the heuristic is not to present an exact
303 protocol to follow, but rather to provide an exhaustive set of potential questions that
304 could be asked about the smart initiative analysed. When reproducing the results, it is

305 critical to identify both the explicit, implied and obscured aims. The analysts ought to
306 pay attention to the definitions, language and tone present in the. A set of detailed
307 questions referring to rhetorical tools contributes to the rigour of the analysis. They ask
308 to draw the conclusions directly from the text, as opposed to the analyst's prejudices
309 and positionality.

310 **Table 3.** *A heuristic for the analysis of justice in sustainable and smart projects*

Questions for discourse analysis

1. What does the text achieve or aim to achieve?

- 1. A What is the intended function of the text?
- 1. B What is the impact on the individual reader and wider society?
- 1. C Who is the target audience?

2. How does the text achieve their impact or function?

- 2. A What specific genre(s) does the text draw on?
- 2. B What aspects of the structure does the text apply?
- 2. C What layout, auditory or visual resources does the text draw on?

3. How is justice understood?

- 3. A How does the text conceptualise justice/inequality/fairness/equity – which words are used?
 - 3. B Are references to climate justice explicit or implied?
 - 3. C References to justice by recognition?
 - 3. D References to distributive justice?
 - 3. E References to retributive justice?
 - 3. F References to procedural justice?
 - 3. G References to Intersectionality?
 - 3. H Who is included /excluded/omitted in policy/consultations/decision making? How are these people characterised?
-

4. What are the methods of achieving justice?

- 4. A At what stages of policy/project cycle is justice considered?
- 4. B Do these methods draw from local/ expert/ citizen/ community/ research knowledge?
- 4. C Do these methods draw from quantitative data?
- 4. D Methodological assumptions and limitations?
- 4. E Methodological innovations?
- 4. F Are these methods “smart”? (As defined by the authors OR by the researchers?)

5. Why does the text seek to achieve its aim and function?

- 5. A what are the socio-political and ideological underpinnings of the text?
 - 5. B What does the text seek to foreground or background and why?
-

311

3.4. Limitations to the methodology

313 There are several limitations related to the application of DA and the design of the
314 research. As the analysis is concerned with the ambiguity and complexity of language,
315 the results will be most relevant to the organisations and countries using English as
316 their first language. Moreover, as this study focuses on secondary sources, it does not
317 give a chance for the authors of the selected documents to defend their application of
318 the ambiguous terms present. A degree of the researcher’s own interpretation of the
319 complex data is a necessary feature of DA. However, sometimes it is poised as an
320 overall criticism of qualitative methods positioned in the social constructivist paradigm
321 (House and Howe, 1999). An appropriate way to respond to such criticism is to
322 emphasise the analyst’s transparency and rigour. This could be achieved by providing
323 a detailed account of the methodology and a self-reflection on the researcher’s agenda
324 (Yanow, 2000). The requirements for rigour, a critical level of analysis and self-
325 reflection make this methodology labour-intensive and challenging to disseminate

326 across academic disciplines, let alone across the urban practitioners. Nevertheless,
327 the researchers anticipate that publicising a detailed heuristic will increase the
328 likelihood of its successful dissemination.

329 The study is concerned with the emerging policies and projects, which hinders access
330 to the policy-relevant information. At the time of writing, the available data were
331 incomplete. Moreover, acquiring the data via direct contact or a Freedom of
332 Information Request proved to be complicated and lengthy. However, limited
333 availability of information could be a point of reflection for the analysis as it sheds light
334 on the existing procedures of communication with the public. The questions arising
335 are: what is communicated to the public and at which point in the policy cycle?

336 Finally, the small sample size could be considered as a drawback of the research. As
337 mentioned previously, the depth and rigour of the research are expected to
338 compensate for the small sample size. Since DA is seen here as a pilot method for
339 project design evaluation, there is a potential for other organisations and cities to adopt
340 and apply this heuristic.

341

342 **4. Results and Discussion**

343 **4.1. Electric vehicles (EV)**

344 The rollout of the Electric Vehicles is a part of the national government decarbonisation
345 strategy. In 2016, the UK government awarded the city of Bristol £2.2 millions of direct
346 funding for promotion and uptake of EV. The policy package includes a set of
347 infrastructure features (e.g. charging stations, car club bays, rapid charging hubs,
348 priority lanes, preferential parking spaces) and financial incentives (e.g. reduction in
349 parking fees, discounts for taxi licensing, business engagement) aimed at EV owners,

350 car clubs and council fleet vehicles (BBC, 2016). This case study analyses two
351 documents submitted to the Bristol City Council as a part of EV policy design:

- 352 • A detailed funding bid drafted by “Business West”, a partnership between the
353 private and public sector (WoE, 2016).
- 354 • An internal cabinet report with recommendations for the Mayor’s approval
355 (BCC, 2016).

356 **4.1.1. Funding bid**

357 The first document relevant to the EV policy is a funding bid authored by “Business
358 West” a partnership between local authorities and private sector representatives. The
359 aim of the bid is to present a business case for the large-scale uptake of EV, providing
360 a vision for Bristol as a city leading the trend. The text is written in a formal, yet
361 promotional language, bringing attention to the opportunities and plans. It includes
362 numerous figures (infographics, bar charts, maps), many of them illustrating potential
363 for the growth of the project. Photographs present in the bid are symbolic of innovative
364 technologies (e.g. photographs of EV charging points; WoE, 2016, pp. 1, 11, 12),
365 Bristol’s prosperity (a photograph of fireworks over Harbourside; WoE, 2016, p II) and
366 people leading the initiative (photographs of senior professionals at meetings; out of
367 48 identifiable people, 48 are white, 41 are male and 7 are female; WoE, 2016, p. 16).

368 The bid does not explicitly refer to the “smart” or “just” agenda. However, the
369 consideration for “smart” and just” city is implied in the text as the bid frames its aims
370 as follows: 1) commitment to low carbon objectives 2) improving air quality for all 3)
371 raising the city profile as a “*laboratory for change*” - place for creativity, new
372 technologies, innovation (WoE, 2016, p.3). The document explicitly targets the
373 proposed policies (e.g. locations of charging stations and discounts for parking) at
374 people most likely to purchase EV. In the document, they are described as “*male, aged*

375 *40-69, likely to be educated to degree level, affluent, have access to two or more cars”*
376 (WoE, 2016, p.17). The bid recognises the need to *“help those residents without the*
377 *means to purchase an ultra-low-emission vehicle (ULEV) to join a car club”* by
378 releasing a *“community package”* with support for car club initiatives (WoE, 2016,
379 p.17). However, the bid does not specify the level of support in comparison to the
380 owners of EVs; neither does it provide a plan of engagement with the disadvantaged
381 communities. This poses a risk of the already wealthy target demographics
382 disproportionately benefitting from the discounts for EV charging or parking.

383 The lack of engagement with the idea of distributive justice might stem from the fact
384 that the EV technology is still in a development phase, therefore requiring so-called
385 *“early adopters”* to help with dissemination (WoE, 2016, p. 8). However, in the age of
386 austerity and council budget cuts (BCC, 2017) any policy benefitting a privileged few
387 becomes problematic. The EV bid is keen to portray Bristol as a leader in innovation
388 (WoE, 2016, p.4). However, more needs to be done in order to make sure no one will
389 be left behind as a result of modernisation.

390 Two other potentially socially just EV policy options were outlined in the bid. Namely,
391 the development of EV council fleet and freight consolidation scheme (WoE, 2016,
392 p.12). However, none of them was justified with a social justice agenda. This leaves
393 the policy proposals open to an interpretation for the council officers on the ground.

394 The bid does not acknowledge the need for procedural justice – including diverse
395 demographic of citizens as both precursors and beneficiaries of the policy.
396 Photographs presented throughout the document show a very narrow demographic of
397 sector leaders (WoE, 2016, p. 16). The policy explicitly targets people who are already
398 in financial advantage as they *“(represent) socio-economic segments with*
399 *characteristics which increase the likelihood of ULEV purchase”* (WoE, 2016, p.7).

400 **4.1.2. Cabinet report**

401 The aim of the cabinet report was to analyse the impacts of the proposed bid and
402 provide comprehensive evidence for policymaking. The text uses formal language,
403 passive voice and includes figures and references to interconnected assessments in
404 order to create an impression of legitimacy and neutrality. The report states the
405 objectives of the policy as: reducing carbon emissions, supporting economic growth
406 and improving air quality.

407 The report mentions justice-related terms numerous times (e.g. *“burden not distributed*
408 *equally”*, *“living in more deprived areas”*, BCC, 2016, p. 4). However, this is mostly in
409 the context of indirect anticipated policy outcomes, such as reduction in air pollution.
410 In terms of the just participation in policy design and the uptake of the initiative itself,
411 the council frames it as the case of having *“no negative impact on equalities*
412 *communities”* (BCC, 2016, p. 9). The document doesn't refer to a risk of a low take up
413 of EVs by the disadvantaged people. This understanding of climate justice makes EVs
414 a solution potentially benefiting all citizens indirectly in the long term. However, in short
415 timescales it is likely to directly benefit merely a privileged few.

416 Although the notion of “equality” is considered at the early stage of policy design, the
417 cabinet report concluded that a brief impact assessment is satisfactory and there is no
418 need for a full analysis. This might be due to the fact that the council frames “equality
419 analysis” as a question of the potential negative impact rather than a risk of low
420 participation. Finally, the UK Government defines *“equality groups”* as those with the
421 following protected characteristics: *“age, disability, gender, marriage, civil partnership,*
422 *pregnancy, maternity, race, religion, belief, sex, sexual orientation”* (BCC, 2016, p. 8).
423 Absent from the formal consideration is any identification of income deprivation as a
424 consideration. This is particularly surprising in the context of the common criticism

425 about EV present in media, e.g. “Electric cars - the ultimate subsidy for the rich” (The
426 Spectator, 2013) or “Minorities Are Being Left out of the Electric Vehicle Revolution”
427 (Schwarz, 2011).

428 **4.1.3. Suggestions for improvement**

429 This paper suggests methodological improvements in assessing the success of the
430 urban “smart” policy in terms of climate justice. Firstly, the policy proposals ought to
431 link to climate justice in an explicit way, taking into account income deprivation as one
432 of the factors affecting pre-existing inequalities. Secondly, forming partnerships
433 between the public and private sector creates new opportunities for data collection on
434 the popularity of the technology and uptake of policy. Increased awareness of the
435 customer base could improve the allocation of funding in future policy cycles, e.g. by
436 helping to determine whether to spend it on purchased cars, car clubs, fleet vehicles
437 or public transport. Moreover, since the policy is explicitly linked with the air quality
438 objectives, the data from pollution monitoring could be further utilised for prioritising
439 EV in air pollution hotspots, e.g. using community transport or council fleet cars on
440 routes with the highest air pollution. Finally, opening up the datasets and referring to
441 urban climate justice agenda in press releases will improve the communication
442 between the local authorities and the citizens.

443 **4.2. Cold Homes Energy Efficiency Surveying (CHEESE project)**

444 CHEESE project is a small-scale initiative led by a community energy organisation,
445 Bristol Energy Network. The project was designed in 2014 and started its official
446 development phase in 2016, after receiving nearly £20 000 of funding from the UK
447 Government and The Big Lottery. This case study analyses the report entitled
448 “Progress of the CHEESE Project” (BEN, 2017).

449 The aim of the progress report was to inform the BEN stakeholders on the
450 development phase of CHEESE project. The idea behind CHEESE project is to
451 provide local householders with low cost (or free for the residents on low income)
452 energy efficiency surveys using thermal imaging technology. The developers of the
453 projects argue that gaining knowledge about gaps in building efficiency will incentivise
454 Bristol residents to invest in home improvements (e.g. insulation, stopping of draughts)
455 and behavioural change measures (BEN, 2017, p. 5). The report tells the story of
456 project development from the managerial point of view, praises achievements of the
457 team, shares best practice, justifies delays and set outs plans for the future. The report
458 is written in a semi-formal language using first person to convey a narrative about
459 project development. The paragraphs are brief and the author avoids specialist jargon.
460 The document provides quantitative data on issues like the length of staff training,
461 funding received, number of images and surveys taken. Although the report avoids
462 technical details, it includes comprehensive references to the academic literature,
463 videos with staff training and hyperlinks to the software used in the project.

464 The report explicitly includes urban climate justice, both by recognising that “*poor and*
465 *black neighbourhoods*” suffer disproportionately from inefficient housing and targeting
466 “*fuel-poor areas*”¹ (BEN, 2017, p. 2). The procedure of targeting disadvantaged areas
467 is undertaken using “smart” technology as, “*(the) technical manager has developed*
468 *energy mapping by ward in Bristol which allows us easily to select fuel-poor target*
469 *areas*” (BEN, 2017, p.2). Nevertheless, the report does not outline whether the
470 targeting strategy was successful and who benefitted from the initiative in the first few
471 months of operation. The report to some extent recognises the complexity and

¹ A household is considered to be fuel poor if they have required fuel costs that are above average (the national median level), were they to spend that amount, they would be left with a residual income below the official poverty line (DBEIS, 2017)

472 intersectionality of climate justice, referring to poverty, tenure (e.g. owning or renting
473 property) and race. However, it does not mention the age, health or digital literacy as
474 factors potentially contributing to fuel poverty and the uptake of the initiative.

475 The text emphasizes the community-oriented nature of the project, e.g. partnerships
476 with neighbourhood-level low carbon energy groups, work of volunteers and managing
477 the initiative on a low budget. However, it obscures the demographics of the
478 beneficiaries of the project. For example, whether the residents living in fuel poverty
479 benefitted from the CHEESE survey and made subsequent improvements to energy
480 efficiency in their homes. This might be due to the fact that the document reports on
481 the early phase of the project, e.g. *“We have so far done 13 (surveys) and are just
482 gearing up, but we think 120 surveys may be more realistic target before it gets too
483 warm after Easter. However, the time has been well spent on perfecting equipment
484 and all the ancillary management tools needed to record and interpret the results. This
485 is still the second development phase”* (BEN, 2017, p.4; emphasis added by the report
486 author).

487 The notion of urban climate justice is embedded in every stage of the project
488 development: from the recruitment of the target area, the design of advertising (*“we
489 are putting up flyers in libraries, community centres, shops, local notice boards (...)
490 We are using the contacts of other community organisations to seek out fuel-poor”*,
491 BEN, 2017; p. 5) to finally – the design of survey tools (*“In the event of a lack of Wi-Fi,
492 we have printed forms for householders”*, BEN, 2017, p. 4). Methods of improving
493 urban climate justice through the project are both qualitative (e.g. multiple channels of
494 advertising, adjustments done for the residents without access to the Internet) and
495 quantitative (interactive energy mapping). The project developed a number of

496 technical innovations, e.g. *“own sophisticated, unique software”* (BEN, 2017, p. 3) and
497 an app compatible with smartphone cameras.

498 **4.2.1. Suggestions for improvement**

499 Discourse analysis reveals that in the CHEESE project “smart” and “just” agenda are
500 understood in line with the academic literature. The progress report analysed provided
501 an explicit justification of the climate justice agenda. It also set out a detailed protocol
502 for the project, involving both qualitative local knowledge and quantitative “smart”
503 equipment. The researchers, however, recommend placing more emphasis on
504 consistently updating on the uptake of the project. The project stakeholders would also
505 benefit from finding out about the successes and limitations related to the recruitment
506 of fuel poor households. The second recommendation is to consider analysing data
507 on health and age while conducting surveys. Health and age are significant
508 dimensions of intersectionality in climate justice; they also might potentially be
509 significant barriers for benefiting from the project. The above practices are expected
510 to improve the accountability of the project and facilitate the replicability of the protocol.

511 **4.3 Synthesis**

512 Bristol City Council's cabinet report on EVs frames “justice” as a potential for negative
513 impact on equality groups enshrined in law (which include e.g. gender, race but not
514 income deprivation), without referring to the risk of a low uptake of a policy by the
515 disadvantaged residents. The West of England EV bid does not recognise income
516 deprivation as a dimension of inequality either - it actively targets financially privileged
517 residents as the potential beneficiaries. Although the policy includes a “community
518 package” aimed at those without the means to purchase EVs, it does not specify the
519 level of support in the budget outline.

520 In contrast, the CHEESE project progress report embeds justice explicitly in its aims.
 521 The project’s targeting strategy refers to the ideas of justice by recognition,
 522 redistribution and – to a certain extent – intersectionality (of income deprivation, tenure
 523 type and race). Although CHEESE aims to target fuel-poor households, it does not
 524 report on whether it achieved the expected outcomes at the time of writing.

525 Although both projects display a potential to contribute to the ideas of smart and just
 526 Bristol, they require further detailed analyses in terms of policy impact on climate
 527 justice. Bristol City Council ought to report how EVs could benefit the most deprived
 528 residents. An analysis of impacts on income deprivation could complement the current
 529 equality assessments. CHEESE project would benefit from a thorough account of the
 530 survey uptake and following home improvements in order to improve the accountability
 531 of the project. Table 4 summarises how these two case studies contributed towards
 532 tackling climate injustices.

533 **Table 4.** A summary of the research results

EV	CHEESE
Understanding of justice	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Avoiding negative impacts on “equality groups”, 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Recognising that income, race and tenure are relevant to the project design
Potential benefits	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Improving air quality for all, • Widespread dissemination of an emerging technology, 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Tackling fuel poverty, • Improving home efficiency, • Improving the awareness of low-cost efficiency measures

-
- Community package for those without means to purchase own EVs
-

Suggestions for improvements

- Adding “income deprivation” dimension to equality assessments,
 - Considering benefits of the policy to the most deprived residents.
 - Adding dimensions of health and age when targeting vulnerable participants,
 - Regularly publishing information on the project uptake.
-

534

535 **5. Conclusions**

536 This paper outlined a new heuristic for DA as a tool for project evaluation of “smart”
537 and “just” initiatives and presented a critical review of two urban development
538 initiatives in Bristol, UK. DA was applied in the study, as it is suitable for contested and
539 politically charged terms, which are often applied differently by the theorising
540 academics comparing to the practitioners working on the ground. The review of two
541 case studies of urban level projects reveals differing conceptualisations and
542 applications of urban climate justice in the local policies and community projects.
543 Although both initiatives acknowledged justice as an overarching goal for urban
544 development, each case study defined justice differently and embedded it at different
545 stages of project development.

546 This article suggests methodological improvements in policy design, which would
547 ensure rigorous implementation of “smart” and “just” agendas. The researchers
548 recommend benefitting from the “smart” data collected about the residents (data on
549 air quality, fuel poverty, tenure, car ownership, income deprivation, uptake of
550 environmental policies and voluntary initiatives) in order to target policies with social
551 justice in mind.

552 Furthermore, the paper suggests taking into account multiple dimensions of justice
553 (e.g. recognition, rights, distributions, intersectionality) at every stage of project
554 development. Finally, the article suggests that the techniques drawn from DA could be
555 introduced into policy analysis. DA has the potential to clear the conceptual
556 ambiguities, improve transparency and encourage critical self-reflection of urban
557 development practitioners.

558

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562

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