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Department of Architecture and Built Environment

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Urban Regeneration and the Transformation of the Urban Waterfront

A Case Study of Liverpool Waterfront Regeneration

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BSc (Honour), MArch

Thesis submitted to the University of Nottingham for the
degree of Doctor of Philosophy, April 2015

This thesis is dedicated to

„ My Family

Abstract

The transformation of urban waterfronts is one of the key urban design and planning stories of the late twentieth century. The decline of the waterfront in post-industrial cities meant the deterioration of both a physical and social nature of significant portions of urban fabric. Cities have reacted to this state of affairs with substantial regeneration programs, approaching the decline of waterfront as an opportunity rather than a problem. However, since the success of early regeneration programs in North America, changing urban waterfronts on a global scale has led to a manifestation of globalisation, becoming a synonym of uniformity and monotony of cities. The urban waterfront also has become a battleground for a number of intersecting forces and different interests and desires.

This research aims to study the phenomenon of urban waterfront regeneration, specifically analysing how it has operated within the UK context since the late 20th century until the present. It focuses on investigating the process of transformation of the urban waterfront in the city of Liverpool. Liverpool has suffered from a serious urban decline following the degeneration of its seven miles of docks due to a number of internal and external factors. However, since the 1980s, the image of an abandoned waterfront has started to change with massive waterfront regeneration schemes that aim to improve the physical, environmental, social and economic conditions of the area. This research argues that by understanding the process and the context of this regeneration, several lessons can be learned and models of good practice can be identified. The research is based on a series of lengthy interviews with key stakeholders closely linked with the development in the city, a review of documents related to the regeneration of Liverpool waterfront, including urban design policies and guidance, a substantial review of relevant news articles that were written throughout the periods of the recent transformation of the city, and numerous site visits to reflect upon the development carried out recently. The research also identifies and discusses a number of key urban issues such as image and identity, cultural built heritage, place marketing and branding, urban governance.

The research identifies three distinctive eras of waterfront regeneration and several key regeneration schemes. Each of these eras reflects the many factors that shaped the urban landscape. The research argues that there are no specific models that can create successful waterfront regeneration, yet, what is important is ensuring the complexity and the inclusiveness of the process of the regeneration. An inclusive and a complex process will result in attaining urban competitiveness besides securing distinctive, genuine and imaginative urban identity. The research also highlighted the central role of urban design as a mediator between the numerous processes and different forces that shape the urban landscape.

Published Work

Hussein, M., Porter, N., & Borsi, K (2013). *'Who Speaks for Liverpool?' Communicating Urban Identity through Place Branding*. Published Abstract, Communication and the City Conference, The University of Leeds, Leeds.
<http://communicationandthecity.leeds.ac.uk/abstracts/#codeword3>

Fageir, M. (2015). *Harmonious or Monotonous: Urban Regeneration and the Form of Contemporary Urban Landscape*. Accepted Paper, ISUF 2015 XXII international Conference: City as organism: New visions for urban life. Rome, September, 22nd-26th 2015, Faculty of Architecture, "Sapienza" University of Rome, Italy.

Fageir, M., Porter, N., & Borsi, K. *Regenerating Liverpool Pier Head Waterfront: the Role of Urban Design*. Accepted paper, Journal of City, Culture and Architecture. MacroWorld.

Fageir, M. (2015). *Sustainable Urban Regeneration: Learning from Liverpool Experience*. Paper submitted to the Sudanese Institute of Architect Fourth Scientific and Professional Conference: Towards Sustainable Urban Development. Khartoum, November, 9th-11th 2015,. Khartoum, Sudan.

Fageir, M., Porter, N., & Borsi, K (In Progress). *The Regeneration of Liverpool Waterfront: A Chronological Perspective*. Paper Submitted to the Journal of Town Planning Review.

Acknowledgement

I firstly would like to start by praising and thanking Allah 'God' Almighty for giving the endurance and the strength to complete this study.

I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my supervisors Dr. Katharina Borsi, Dr. Nicole Porter, and Dr. Swinal Samant for their guidance, insights and continuous support. I remain indebted to you as you have made my experience of undertaking this PhD a very enjoyable one. I would like also to express my appreciation to my internal assessor Prof. Tim Heath for his valuable comments and insights. Many Thanks also to the participants of this study who generously gave their time and share with me their knowledge, this study would not have been possible without their participation. My gratitude also goes to Dr. Asam Latif for his generous advices and valuable feedback.

I would like also to take this opportunity to thank the Physical Environmental Centre of Khartoum 'PECK' for their sponsorship, in particular, my deepest appreciation goes to Dr. Sharf Eldin Bannaga for his tremendous efforts in sustaining the financial support throughout the period of my study. Also, a special thanks to my colleagues and the staffs at the Faculty of Architecture, University of Khartoum, in particular, Dr. Gamal Hamid 'the Dean Faculty' for his tremendous help and logistical support.

Last, but certainly not least, I would like to thank my wife Malathe and my little daughter Judi who were exceptionally supportive and shared my joys and my difficult times. Also a heartfelt thanks to my father, my mother, my brother and my sisters whom their compassionate and encouragement helped me to sustain my efforts throughout my studies. I would like also to extend my gratitude to my father and mother in law for their fabulous support.

The Motivation

Why the Urban Waterfront?

My interest in the urban waterfront started when I was a student at the Department of Architecture, University of Khartoum. My home town Khartoum, the capital of Sudan, has a very unique natural setting that had shaped its identity and subsequent growth. The city is located at the confluence of the Blue Nile which flows west from Lake Tana in Ethiopia and the White Nile which flows north from Lake Victoria. From these points the two Niles merge to form the one Nile which continues its journey north to Egypt and then to the Mediterranean Sea. The city is known as the triangular metropolitan or the three-town capital as the three Niles divide the capital into three distinct cities – Khartoum to the south, Omdurman to the north-west, and Khartoum North to north-east. Despite this very unique setting, what is noticeable is that the Nile is seen as a threat rather than an opportunity and also as a source of segregation instead of integration. Furthermore, with the significant increase of the population of the city in the recent decades, Khartoum has grown significantly from harsh desert areas leaving aside the virgin waterfront redundant and obsolete. This, however, has inspired my interest about how a city's waterfronts can be developed, what are the right forms for development and how we can use the waterfront as a tool for improving a city's urban qualities.

My first practical step to study the urban waterfront was when I was a Master's student at the University of Nottingham in 2009/2010. I tried in my Master's dissertation to focus on developing a set of principles for achieving sustainable waterfront development for Khartoum. However, in setting about this I realised that the phenomenon of waterfront regeneration is complex and intricate. There is also a substantial literature base about phenomenon of waterfront regeneration globally. Since then, I have become more determined and interested to understand the process and reveal some of the complexity of the phenomenon of waterfront regeneration. Indeed, I believe this research is an outcome of that dedication.

Table of Contents

Abstract.....	II
Acknowledgement.....	III
The Motivation	V
Table of Contents.....	I
List of Figures.....	VI
List of Tables	XI
Acronyms and Abbreviations.....	XII
Chapter 1\ Introduction.....	1
1.1 The Research Background	1
1.3 Aim and Objectives	3
1.4 The Research Methodology	4
1.5 Structure of the Thesis	6
Chapter 2\ Urban Transformation.....	10
2.1 Introduction	10
2.2 The Necessity for Urban Change; Urban Problems and Opportunities	11
2.2.1 Physical Conditions and Social Response.....	11
2.2.2 Social Welfare and Economic Progress	13
2.2.3 Containing Urban Growth.....	13
2.2.4 Changing Urban Policy	14
2.3 Urban Regeneration	16
2.3.1 Defining Urban Regeneration.....	16
2.3.2 The Features of Urban Regeneration	18

2.3.3 The Evolution of Urban Policy in the UK.....	20
2.3.3.1 The Early Days (post war- 1979)	20
2.3.3.2 Introducing the Market: Urban Competition (1979-1997)	22
2.3.3.3 The Future of Urban Regeneration (post-1997)	24
2.4 Urban Waterfront Regeneration.....	26
2.4.1 The Urban Waterfront	27
2.4.2 The Transformation of the Urban Waterfront.....	28
2.4.3 The Evolution of Urban Waterfront Regeneration	30
2.5 Conclusion.....	36
Chapter 3\ Issues and Instruments of Urban Regeneration; Establishing a Theoretical Framework	38
3.1 Introduction	38
3.2 Urban Competitiveness	39
3.2.1 Globalisation and Urban Competitiveness	40
3.2.2 Changes in Urban Governance	41
3.2.3 Place Marketing and Branding and the image of the city.....	42
3.3 Urban Design.....	46
3.3.1 The Rise of Urban Design	46
3.3.2 Place Identity and Placelessness	48
3.3.3 Urban Architecture	52
3.3.4 The Management of Change	54
3.4 Cultural Heritage	56
3.4.1 The Need for Cultural Heritage.....	56
3.4.2 Conservation and Place Continuity	58
3.4.1 The Regeneration of Historic Quarters.....	60
3.5 Conclusion.....	61

Chapter 4\ The Research Methodology	63
4.1 Introduction	63
4.2 The Research Methodology; the Rationale for Case Study	63
4.3 The Research Design	66
4.3.1 What Type of Case Study Research is More Appropriate?	66
4.3.2 The Selection of the Case Study; Why Liverpool Waterfront Regeneration?	68
4.4 Sources of Evidence; the Data Collection Procedures	70
4.4.1 Documentation	71
4.4.2 News Articles Collection	72
4.4.3 Direct Observation	73
4.4.4 Interviews.....	74
4.5 Data Analysis and Organisation	78
4.5.1 The Qualitative Analysis of Data.....	78
4.5.2 The Quantitative Analysis of the News Articles.....	80
4.6 Conclusion	82
Chapter 5\ the City of Liverpool; Historical Account and the Early Regeneration of the Waterfront (1980 - 1997)	84
5.1 Introduction	84
5.2 Liverpool; the History of the Urban Transformation	84
5.2.1 Origin and Growth.....	84
5.2.2 The Decline of the City.....	90
5.2.3 The Beginning of Change; From Confrontation to Partnership.....	93
5.3 Liverpool Waterfront Regeneration 1980-1997	98
5.3.1 The Merseyside Development Corporation MDC.....	98
5.3.2 The Albert Dock Restoration	102
5.3.3 The International Garden Festival.....	106
5.4 Conclusion	107

Chapter 6\ Liverpool Waterfront Regeneration (1997 - 2012)	109
6.1 Introduction	109
6.2 The Context for the Development in Liverpool between 1997 and 2012	110
6.2.1 A New Approach and a New Vision; the Establishment of Liverpool Vision	110
6.2.2 Assuring the Quality of the Urban Environment: Design Review and Design Guides.....	116
6.2.3 Seeking A Global Recognition; UNESCO World Heritage Site WHS (2004).....	123
6.2.4 A Catalyst for Regeneration; Liverpool Capital of European Culture 2008.....	125
6.3 The Major Development Schemes between 1997 and 2012	129
6.3.1 The Pier Head Waterfront.....	129
6.3.1.1 The Fourth Grace ‘The Cloud’	131
6.3.1.2 The New Museum of Liverpool.....	139
6.3.1.3 Mann Island Development.....	144
6.3.1.4 Pier Head Canal Link and Public Realm Project	152
6.3.2 Paradise Street Development Area ‘Liverpool One’	155
6.3.2.1 Shaping the Vision	157
6.3.2.2 The Selection of the Developer ‘Grosvenor’	158
6.3.2.3 The Masterplan and the Delivery of the Project.....	160
6.3.3 Kings Waterfront	167
6.3.3.1 Liverpool Arena and Convention Centre ACC	168
6.4 Conclusion	170
Chapter 7\ Liverpool Waterfront Regeneration (post-2012)	173
7.1 Introduction	173
7.2 The Context for Potential Future Regeneration	173
7.2.1 Renewing the Vision; the Strategic Investment Framework (2012)	174
7.2.2 The Role of Culture in Liverpool’s Future Regeneration.....	178
7.2.3 Place Marketing and Branding in Liverpool.....	179
7.3 Future Proposed Development on Liverpool Waterfront; Liverpool Waters Scheme	182

7.3.1 The Evolution of Liverpool Waters Scheme	182
7.3.2 Liverpool Waters from the stakeholders' points of view.....	194
7.3.2.1 Liverpool Waters and Peel Holding.....	194
7.3.2.2 The Conservation of Built Heritage and the Development of Liverpool Waters	197
7.3.2.3 The Impact of WHS on Liverpool.....	203
7.4 Conclusion.....	206
Chapter 8\ Conclusions; Urban Regeneration and the Transformation of Liverpool Waterfront	208
8.1 Introduction	208
8.2 The Eras of Liverpool Waterfront Regeneration: A Chronological Perspective	210
8.2.1 The Era of Physical and Environmental improvement (1980-1997)	210
8.2.2 The Era of Image Creation and Place Making (1997-2012).....	211
8.2.3 The Era of Global Competition and Investment Attraction (post-2012).....	214
8.3 Learning from Liverpool Waterfront Regeneration Experience.....	218
8.4 Concluding Remarks	221
8.4.1 The Limitations of the Study.....	224
8.4.2 Areas for Future Research	225
References.....	227
Appendices.....	238

List of Figures

Figure 1. 1\ the research approach Source\ the author	6
Figure 1. 2\ Diagram illustrates the Structure of the thesis Source\ the author.....	9
Figure 2. 1\ The Urban Regeneration Process Source\ adapted from (Roberts, 2000, p. 20).....	18
Figure 2. 2\ a redundant dock in Liverpool waterfront Source\ the author (2013).....	30
Figure 2. 3\ Baltimore Inner Harbour, Source\ http://www.baltimore.to/baltimore_panorama.html [Accessed 27th April 2012]	32
Figure 2. 4\ London Docklands, the regeneration was the largest in Western Europe Source\ author (2012).....	33
Figure 2. 5\ Cardiff Bay, the regeneration recognized the value of old buildings as symbol of community memory Source\ http://www.gezipartisi.com/wp-content/uploads/galler- gezilecek-yerler.jpg [accessed 5th August 2014]	34
Figure 4. 1\ Basic Types of Designs for Case Studies Source\ Yin (2009, p. 46)	66
Figure 4. 2\ the research is employing a single embedded case study approach Source\ Adapted from (Yin, 2009).....	68
Figure 4. 3\ Liverpool waterfront, placing boundary on the area of the study Source\ Adapted from Google Earth (2014).....	70
Figure 4. 4\ a diagram shows the process of the development of the interviews' questions Source\ the author	76
Figure 4. 5\ NVivo Workspace, the program was used extensively to organise and categorise the research data Source\ NVivo.....	79
Figure 4. 6\ the themes of the news articles Source\ the author	81
Figure 4. 7\ the sources and the frequency Source\ the author.....	81
Figure 4. 8\ Convergence of Multiple Sources of Evidence Source\ adopted from (Yin, 2009, p. 117)	83
Figure 5. 1 Liverpool in the wider context of the UK. Source\ Office of the Deputy Prime Minister (ODPM) (2002), Your Region Your Choice, The Stationary Office, London.....	85
Figure 5. 2 Merseyside and Liverpool City Region. Source\ Sykes et al. (2013)	85
Figure 5. 3\ Liverpool Population 19 th and the 20 th century. Source\ Sykes et al. (2013).....	86
Figure 5. 4\ The map of Liverpool 1836, it shows that the built environment Identity of Liverpool is largely shaped by its mercantile past Source\ acquired from	

http://www.gillmark.com/images_CMS/products/506/12819614728260_506_largeimage.jpg [Accessed 16 th May 2013].....	88
Figure 5. 5\ St. George’s Hall is an example of the wealth of the city during the 19th century Source\ acquired from http://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/f/fc/St_Georges_Hall_Liverpool_3_%286727529617%29.jpg [Accessed 12 th May 2013].....	89
Figure 5. 6\ the Three Graces of Liverpool are considered the most outstanding architectural masterpieces on the Pier Head waterfront, recently the site has been inscribed as World Heritage Site Source\ the author (2013)	90
Figure 5. 7\ Liverpool City Centre, large parts of Liverpool City Centre and waterfront were destroyed after the WWII Source\ acquired from http://www.pixmule.com/blitz-2011/6/ [Accessed on 23 rd July 2013]	91
Figure 5. 8\ Tower Block on Rokeby Street, Liverpool 1970s, the picture reflects the official thinking at that time, demolishing whole areas in which communities were established and then rehouse them in what has been considered at that time modern houses. Source\ acquired from Liverpool Forum Archive, http://streetsofliverpool.co.uk/?s=Blitz [Accessed 5 th January 2014]	92
Figure 5. 9\ Byrom Street in 1950s (left) and 1978 (right), the two photos show the changes that occurred during the 1970s with the adoption of the new inner city town policy) Source\ acquired from Liverpool Forum Archive, Photographer (unknown), http://streetsofliverpool.co.uk/liverpools-managed-decline/?utm_source=rss&utm_medium=rss&utm_campaign=liverpools-managed-decline [Accessed 5 th January 2014]	93
Figure 5. 10\ Liverpool Dockland 1981, this photo shows the amount of dereliction in Liverpool Docklands, this photo was taken by Photographer Matt Reardon (1981), Source\ acquired from Liverpool Forum Archive, http://www.yoliverpool.com/forum/showthread.php?108121-Liverpool-s-Albert-Dock-Unseen-1981-Black-and-White-Images-Taken-by-18-Year-Old-Photographer-Matt-Reardon [Accessed 9 th January 2014]	94
Figure 5. 11\ The Albert Dock 1981, this picture shows the state of dereliction of the Albert Dock before the regeneration Source\ picture was taken by Photographer Matt Reardon (1981), Liverpool Forum Archive, http://www.yoliverpool.com/forum/showthread.php?108121-Liverpool-s-Albert-Dock-Unseen-1981-Black-and-White-Images-Taken-by-18-Year-Old-Photographer-Matt-Reardon&highlight=albert+dock [Accessed 5 th February 2014]	103
Figure 5. 12\ the Albert Dock after regeneration, the dock is now one of the most visited attractions in the North West region and it contains number of the leading cultural institutions Source\ the author (2013)	104
Figure 5. 13\ The Albert Dock, this photo shows the liveliness of the Albert Dock today Source\ It’s Liverpool website http://www.albertdock.com/attractions/tate-liverpool/ [Accessed 3 rd February 2014].....	106

Figure 5. 14\ The International Garden Festival in Liverpool Source\ http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Liverpool_International_Garden_Festival_Japanese_Garden.jpg [Accessed 6 th July 2013]	107
Figure 6. 1\ The Third Way policy which characterised this period of development Source\ the author.....	112
Figure 6. 2\ SRF Action Areas plan Source\ (SOM, 2000).....	114
Figure 6. 3\ The City Centre Movement Strategy Map Source\ (LCC et al., 2000)	120
Figure 6. 4\ Liverpool City Centre, the quality of public realm has significantly improved with the adoption of the CCMS Source\ the author (2013).....	121
Figure 6. 5\ Public Realm Implementation Framework Source\ LCC (2004a)	122
Figure 6. 6\ World Heritage Site and its buffer zone Source\ (LCC et al., 2009).....	124
Figure 6. 7\ Liverpool Capital of Culture 2008 helps to rebrand the city Source\ acquire from http://www.ibocc.org/news.php?ref=64 [Accessed 12 th August 2014]	126
Figure 6. 8\ La Machine's giant spider, making her way through the streets of Liverpool - one of the events of Liverpool CoC 2008 which has contributed in engaging the public and changing the image of the city Source\ acquired from http://www.liv.ac.uk/researchintelligence/issue39/images/la_machine.jpg [12th August 2014]	128
Figure 6. 15\ the Key Development Areas within Liverpool Waterfront between 1997 and 2012 Source\ Adapted from Google Earth (2014).....	129
Figure 6. 16\ Map of the Pier Head Waterfront in 2000 (left) and 2012 (right) which shows the transformation in the southern part, it was a car show and now it is the location of the Museum of Liverpool and the Mann Island Mixed-use development Source\ Adapted from google earth (2014)	130
Figure 6. 17\ The Three Graces in the Pier Head Waterfront from left to right The Liver Building, Cunard Building and the Port of Liverpool Source\ the author (2013)	131
Figure 6. 18\ The site of the Fourth Grace (2000) between the Albert Dock and the Three Graces offered the city a great opportunity to build an iconic building on its waterfront Source\ acquired from http://www.edwardcullinanarchitects.com/projects/4g.html adapted by the author [Accessed 15 th June 2013].....	132
Figure 6. 19\ The Fourth Grace Proposals for Richard Rogers and Norman Foster respectively Sources\ acquired from http://www.skyscrapernews.com/4th_grace_foster1.jpg & http://www.richardrogers.co.uk/render.aspx?siteID=1&navIDs=1,4,25,474&showImages=detail&sortBy=&sortDir=&imageli=768 [accessed 15 th June 2013]	134
Figure 6. 20\ The Cloud, the winning project of the Fourth Grace competition in Liverpool Waterfront Source\ acquired from http://stevocreative.com/category/portfolio/architectural_illustration/ [Accessed 18 th June 2013]	139

Figure 6. 21\ the Museum of Liverpool aims to resonate the trading ships of the harbour Source\ the author (2013)	141
Figure 6. 22\ the external cladding of the building seeks to find a new interpretation for the historical architectural details of the Three Graces Source\ the author (2013)	142
Figure 6. 23\ the museum building has been criticised on the micro level for not been able to adequately integrate with the surrounding public space Source\ the author (2013)	144
Figure 6. 24\ The Mann Island Development, a very strikingly different design from its surroundings Source\ the author (2013).....	145
Figure 6. 25\ the left picture shows the public space that collects the pedestrians from the city and the covered public space between the two buildings, the right picture shows the third public space around the canal basin Source\ the author (2013)	146
Figure 6. 26\ the reflection of the port of Liverpool Building on Mann Island’s façade Source\ the author (2013).....	147
Figure 6. 27\ the Mann Island Development retains some glimpse through its inclined roofs to the Three Graces Source\ the author (2013).....	149
Figure 6. 28\ The Pier Head Master plan Source\ http://www.aecom.com/What+We+Do/Design+and+Planning/_projectsList/Pier+Head+Mas terplan+and+Design,+LLiverpool,+U.K	153
Figure 6. 29\ The Pier Head public realm and the canal link, the left picture shows the ferry terminal building and the right shows the Three Graces Source\ the author (2013)	154
Figure 6. 30\ the Pier Head provides the city with large public space to host huge public events Source\ acquired from http://www.liverpoolecho.co.uk/news/liverpool-news/liverpools- waterfront-festival-attracts-more-4283276 [Accessed 23rd September 2013].....	155
Figure 6. 31\ left Chavasse Park before the PSDA, right The Bluecoat Chambers in Liverpool which regards one of the finest historical buildings in the PSDA. Source\ respectively http://www.skyscrapercity.com/showthread.php?t=637859&page=17&langid=5 & the author (2013).....	156
Figure 6. 32\ The Transformation in Paradise Street area before and after the PSDA Source\ Google Earth maps modified by the author (2014)	157
Figure 6. 33\ PSDA Masterplan, developed by BDP, 26 architectural practices have been involved in the design of each building plot of the scheme Source\ BDP (2014)	161
Figure 6. 34\ Paradise Street, Liverpool One Source\ the author (2014).....	162
Figure 6. 35\ The Arcade, Liverpool One Source\ the author (2014).....	162
Figure 6. 36\ South John Street, Liverpool One Source\ the author (2014).....	163
Figure 6. 37\ Hanover Street includes a mix of historic and contemporary buildings Source\ the author (2014).....	164
Figure 6. 38\ The Park, Liverpool One Source\ the author (2014)	165
Figure 6. 39\ Liverpool One, aerial view Source\ BDP website	166
Figure 6. 40\ the significant transformation in Kings Waterfront between 2005 and 2014, the availability of large parcels of land on a highly visible area of the city provided the city with	

opportunities for a number of flagship projects Source\ images from Google Earth modified by the author (2014)	168
Figure 6. 41\ Arena and Convention Centre in Kings Waterfront, a bold contemporary architectural on the waterfront Source\ acquired from http://www.wilkinsoneyre.com/projects/liverpool-arena-and-convention-centre.aspx?category=cultural [accessed 3 rd January 2014]	170
Figure 6. 9\ The sources and the frequency Source\ the author	263
Figure 6. 10\ the news articles sources and their frequency throughout the years Source\ the author	263
Figure 6. 11\ the change of the perception throughout the time Source\ the author	264
Figure 6. 12\ attitude towards the themes Source\ the author	264
Figure 6. 13\ the frequency of themes throughout the years Source\ the author	265
Figure 6. 14\ attitudes and the news sources Source\ the author	265
Figure 7. 1\ Liverpool City Centre Distinctive Neighbourhoods as defined by SIF (2012) Source\ adopted from (LiverpoolVision, 2012b, p. 14)	175
Figure 7. 2\ SIF (2012), the major future transformational projects in Liverpool city centre waterfront Source\ adopted from Liverpool Vision (2012b, p. 37).....	177
Figure 7. 3\ It's Liverpool branding campaign, aims to attract further investment into the city by destroying the negative perception and image Source\ It's Liverpool website http://www.itsliverpool.com/ [accessed 15 th June 2014]	181
Figure 7. 4\ the initial proposal of Liverpool Waters Source\ Liverpool Water website, http://www.liverpoolwaters.co.uk/content/home.php http://www.liverpoolwaters.co.uk/content/home.php [Accessed 17th June 2014]	184
Figure 7. 5\ Liverpool Waters, the new modified scheme Source\ Liverpool Waters website http://www.liverpoolwaters.co.uk/media/images [Accessed 17th June 2014]	186
Figure 7. 6\ Liverpool Waters Axonometric masterplan seen from the north, it shows the two clusters of tall buildings which UNESCO is very critical about. Source\ UNESCO (2011, p. 17)	190
Figure 7. 7\ SPD, locations of the opportunities for high-rise building in the WHS Buffer Zone Source\ Liverpool City Council (2009, p. 59)	193
Figure 8. 1\summary of the key regeneration areas in Liverpool waterfront and the eras of transformation Source\ Google Earth images modified by the author (2014)	209
Figure 8. 2\ this graph summarises the eras of transformation and the significance of the instruments of urban regeneration (note: the thickness of the lines indicates the significance) Source\ the autho	217

List of Tables

Table 2. 1\ the evolution of urban regeneration Source\ (Roberts, 2000, p. 14)	16
Table 2. 2\ A summary of the key studies about the regeneration of Liverpool Source\ the author	36
Table 3. 1\ a summary of the theoretical framework key investigation areas Source\ the author.	62
Table 4. 1\ Major Stakeholders in Liverpool were identified through documentation evidence Source\ the author	72
Table 4. 2\ the interviewees list of the research, their institutions and positions. Source\ the author.....	78
Table 6. 1\ this table summarises the SRF (2000) action areas and supporting themes Source\ adapted from SOM (2000)	116
Table 6. 2\ Summary of ‘Conservation Principles, Policies and Guidance for the Sustainable Management of the Historic Environment’ Source\ (English Heritage, 2008)	119
Table 7. 1\ SIF (2012), the future waterfront projects in Liverpool Source\ adopted from Liverpool Vision (2012b, p. 36-38).....	178

Acronyms and Abbreviations

ACC	Liverpool Arena and Convention Centre
CABE	Commission for Architecture and Built Environment
CCMS	Liverpool City Centre Movement Strategy
ECOC	European Capital of Culture
EH	English Heritage
EIUA	European Institute of Urban Affairs
EZs	Enterprise Zones
ICOMOS	International Council on Monuments and Sites
LATD	Liverpool Architecture and Design Trust
LCC	Liverpool City Council
LDDC	London Docklands Development Corporation
LEP	Local Enterprise Partnership
LJMU	Liverpool John Moores University
LPAs	Local Planning Authorities
LUDCAP	Liverpool Urban Design and Conservation Area Panel
LV	Liverpool Vision
LW	Liverpool Waters
LWBP	Liverpool Waterfront Business Partnership
MCS	Merseyside Civic Society
MDC	Merseyside Development Agency
NWDA	North West Development Agency
OUV	Outstanding Universal Value
PDSA	Paradise Street Development Area
SIF	Strategic Investment Framework
SPD	Supplementary Planning Document
SRF	Strategic Regeneration Framework
UDCs	Urban Development Corporations
UNESCO	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization

URCs	Urban Regeneration Companies
UTF	Urban Task Force
WHC	World Heritage Committee
WHS	World Heritage Site

Chapter 1\ Introduction

1.1 The Research Background

Since the decline of waterfront in post-industrial cities the concept of waterfront regeneration has become widespread. The regeneration of urban waterfront is one of the key urban design and planning stories of the late twentieth century (Dovey, 2005). Urban waterfronts have become places of significant transformation with a great potential to attract investment and stem declining local economies. Nowadays, many waterfront cities around the globe are inspired by the idea of bringing the water back to cities and creating a high quality development with vibrant mix of buildings and activities (Shaw, 2001). Additionally, the increasing pressures on land use in urban areas in the recent years has led many cities to rediscover the potentials of their waterfronts and earmarking them for redevelopment (WCP, 2007). Indeed, the decline of the post-industrial waterfront by the mid twentieth century has introduced major problems, challenges and opportunities for urban areas.

Against this background, the waterfront has become also a primary scene for experimentation in architecture, planning and urban governance. Dovey (2005) observed that waterfront regeneration is a great opportunity but also a challenge. On one hand, it has the potential to restore the identity of cities, reinforce a sense of place and satisfy the conditions of post-modernity. On the other hand, it may also results in alien developments, isolated by being at the edge of a city. Economic globalisation also has been introduced as a key factor that significantly influences the regeneration of waterfront nowadays. Within this context, cities need to gain more competitive advantage in order to secure their urban growth (Begg, 2002). Smith and Ferrari (2012) argued that the competitive advantage of waterfront areas and their potentials to attract wealth is a central factor and needs to be expressed in the project of regeneration. However, Madanipour (2006) pointed out that while improving competitiveness of cities is the way to economic flourishing, it has resulted in homogenised places, dislodging local identities and the blurring of places' uniqueness. Similarly, with regards to waterfront regeneration Bruttomesso (2001) identifies that waterfronts have become a sign of globalisation in the sense that certain 'modules' of waterfront development based on successful cases have set precedents and been copied worldwide, with a concomitant international uniformity of organisational approaches, spatial patterns and architectural forms.

However, despite the wider benefits of waterfront regeneration for the city physical, economic and cultural aspects, waterfront regeneration is also rather contentious. Marshall (2001) highlighted that the significance of the contemporary urban waterfront derives from the high visibility of this form of development, and the high profile of their location leads to magnify number of intersecting urban forces. An example of these intersecting forces can be seen in many cities in the UK in the conflict between developers and conservationists, and between the interest of global capital and the needs of local people. Dovey (2005) indicated that this tension is often mediated by city and state governments with strong imperatives to attract investment and build images of a progressive city. Dovey (2005, p. 9) stated:

“the urban waterfront has become a new frontier of the city with opportunities for significant aesthetic, economic, social and environmental benefits; it is also the new battleground over conflict between public and private interest”.

Since the success of the first wave of waterfront regeneration projects in North America, particularly in Baltimore Inner Harbour in the US, waterfront regeneration has become a topic of academic and professional interest. Nowadays, waterfront regeneration has become not only exclusive for just large metropolitan cities; indeed, it also has become a common interest between smaller cities and towns in their way to enrich their economy and improve their international image (Jones, 1998). However, much has already been written about the phenomenon of urban waterfront regeneration. Tweedale et al. (1988) wrote that in North America, where waterfront regeneration became well-established in 1970s and also in Western Europe in the 1980s, the waterfront regeneration movement has engendered a substantial literature in the field of architecture, planning and urban design. Yet, what is particularly evident is that there are no studies which entail a comprehensive overview on waterfront regeneration in the UK. Rather, the majority of studies about waterfront tend to be focussing on fashionable and minor trends of regeneration such as culture-led regeneration, flagship projects and partnership with less concern for the whole context of regeneration. Others, however, were focussing on the end-product of urban waterfront regeneration, ignoring the issues that cities have faced as they work to create them. As such, the general outcome is often incomplete picture and simplistic overview for the complexity of the issues.

Nonetheless, this study argues that what is important and what seems the majority of studies are lacking, is the understanding of the context and the process in which these regeneration projects took place. Hence, only in understanding the local and global context and the process of regeneration, lessons can be extracted and models of good practice can be identified. This study, however, aims to fill this gap. Based on a comprehensive study of the process of Liverpool

waterfront regeneration, its purpose is to stimulate discussion and enrich the theory of urban waterfront regeneration. The study is concerned on the recent transformation matters and their implications for the future regeneration of the city.

The transformation of Liverpool waterfront is a compelling story. The city was once the second city of the Empire with more than 7 miles of docks. It has a rich history as a port city and it has contributed significantly to the international trade in the past two centuries. However, the city has suffered from severe decline and its docks became completely redundant by the mid of the twentieth century. A number of external and internal factors led the city to lose its economic fortune which will be discussed later (see Chapter 5). Nevertheless, since 1980s the image of a declined waterfront started to change with massive waterfront regeneration projects that are still taking place.

The regeneration of Liverpool waterfront is significant both in terms of size and the complexity of issues. For example, the city's waterfront was inscribed as World Heritage Site WHS by the UNESCO in 2004. Although this inscription is considered as an international recognition of the city's historical significance; it is, on the other hand, contributed to the complexity of the regeneration, added new extra dimensions and challenged the transformation process. There are other issues such as, globalisation and intercity competition which have forced the city to accept new terms and conditions. However, how is the city balancing and mediating between ranges of intricate issues? What is the influence of different forces on the form of the emerging landscape of the city? What is the role of urban design and cultural heritage in the process of transformation of the waterfront? All these questions are in the core of this study.

1.3 Aim and Objectives

Given the gap in the literature identified earlier, this research aims to study the phenomenon of urban waterfront regeneration. It focuses on the UK on the city of Liverpool. The research intends to study the process of the regeneration of Liverpool waterfront. It is only possible in this way that a lot of the concealed elements and hidden aspects waterfront regeneration will be revealed and discussed. It is also important to note that this research is not intended to judge whether the regeneration phases of Liverpool were successful or not as such judgments can over simplify the regeneration process. Based on that, the research question was identified:

How did urban regeneration transform Liverpool's Waterfront?

From this research question, two important issues need to be clarified. First, although this research question seems to focus on the history of regeneration of Liverpool waterfront, it is

important to note that the main concern of the research is the recent past of Liverpool and a large part of it is dealing with the future issues of regeneration. Second, as this research question is wholly focussing on the experience of Liverpool waterfront regeneration, in fact, it could be argued that the research conclusions could be very limited to the case study itself as all urban problems are unique to their particular context, or that solutions attempted or advocated in Liverpool have little relevance to other towns and cities. This is, in fact, not entirely true; a number of general principles and models of good practice can be identified, and several lessons could be learnt from Liverpool experience which can help the development and implementation of future approaches to the task of waterfront regeneration.

There are more several specific objectives that the research also intends to achieve. In point of fact, these objectives collectively build up the answer of the research question. It can be noted that the research theoretical framework (Chapter 3) assisted identifying and sharpening some of the research objectives. The objectives are:

- To document the different phases of transformation of Liverpool waterfront that occurred overtime;
- To understand the impact of economic globalisation, urban competitiveness, and changing urban governance on the regeneration process;
- To examine the current and the future role of place marketing and branding and how is that impacting on the image of the city;
- To study the role played by urban design, contemporary urban architecture and the idea of place making in shaping the urban environment;
- To study the role of culture and built heritage and how that has influenced the process of urban regeneration in Liverpool and shaping the city's urban identity;
- To examine the role of the different stakeholders (developers, local authorities, civic societies, heritage groups, government organisations ... etc.) in the process of regeneration.

1.4 The Research Methodology

Defining the research question and objectives was the first and most important step towards the selection of the research methodology. There are two characteristics of this research underpinned the selection of the research methodology. The first that this research aims to study a contemporary phenomenon within context and the boundaries between the phenomenon and the context is not clearly defined; and the second, the research also is trying to answer a question of how and why nature. Hence, qualitative research methodology was seen as

the most appropriate for this research. The research adopted a single explanatory case study approach in order to retain the holistic nature of the case 'Liverpool'. Schramm (1971) described case study as an approach that tries to illuminate a decision or set of decisions: why they were taken, how they were implemented and with what result (cited in Yin (2009)).

The case study research approach allows the case 'Liverpool Waterfront' to be studied from different perspectives throughout the use of multiple sources of evidences. However, before the collection of the research data, the research benefited from establishing a theoretical framework in order to bind the case and guide the process of data collection. The theoretical framework was also critical for interpreting the findings of the data. The research relies on several sources of evidence (documents, direct observation, news article collection and interviews). Documents such as strategies and policies, reports, administrative documents, previous research on the same case study and maps were valuable to provide the study with stable and factual information that can be reviewed repeatedly. The documents were significantly important in understanding the general process of transformation of the waterfront and they were also a key in understanding the pattern, themes, and issues of Liverpool waterfront. Another source of evidence was a collection of 388 news articles that traces the transformation of Liverpool waterfront for the period between 1999 and 2014. Although it has some minor drawbacks (see Section 4.4.2), yet, the collection provided the research with significant descriptive and analytical insights into the process of regeneration of the city.

The research also conducted 13 interviews with key stakeholders involved in the regeneration of Liverpool. The list of the stakeholders included developers, heritage agencies, civic societies, research institutions, cultural institutions, governments departments, critics and professionals 'planners, architects and urban designers'. The interview data was valuable to reflect upon the key issues of regeneration and identify some of the hidden aspects. They were also significant in understanding the role played by the different key stakeholders.

The analysis of the research data employs a combination of chronological, thematic, and occasionally discourse analysis. The chronological analysis, in one hand, aimed to critically describe in a narrative way the different phases of Liverpool waterfront regeneration besides allowing small units of the case study to be identified and analysed. The thematic analysis was used to identify and report themes within the data. Its objective was to build explanation about the case study and answered 'how' and 'why' something happened. Lastly, the discourse was used intermittently to analyse the content of some of the research materials primarily from the news articles collection. In general, despite the mixture of the analysis techniques, the data

analysis process follows a structured approach with some flexibility in order to facilitate a coherent flow. Figure 1.1 illustrates the research approach.

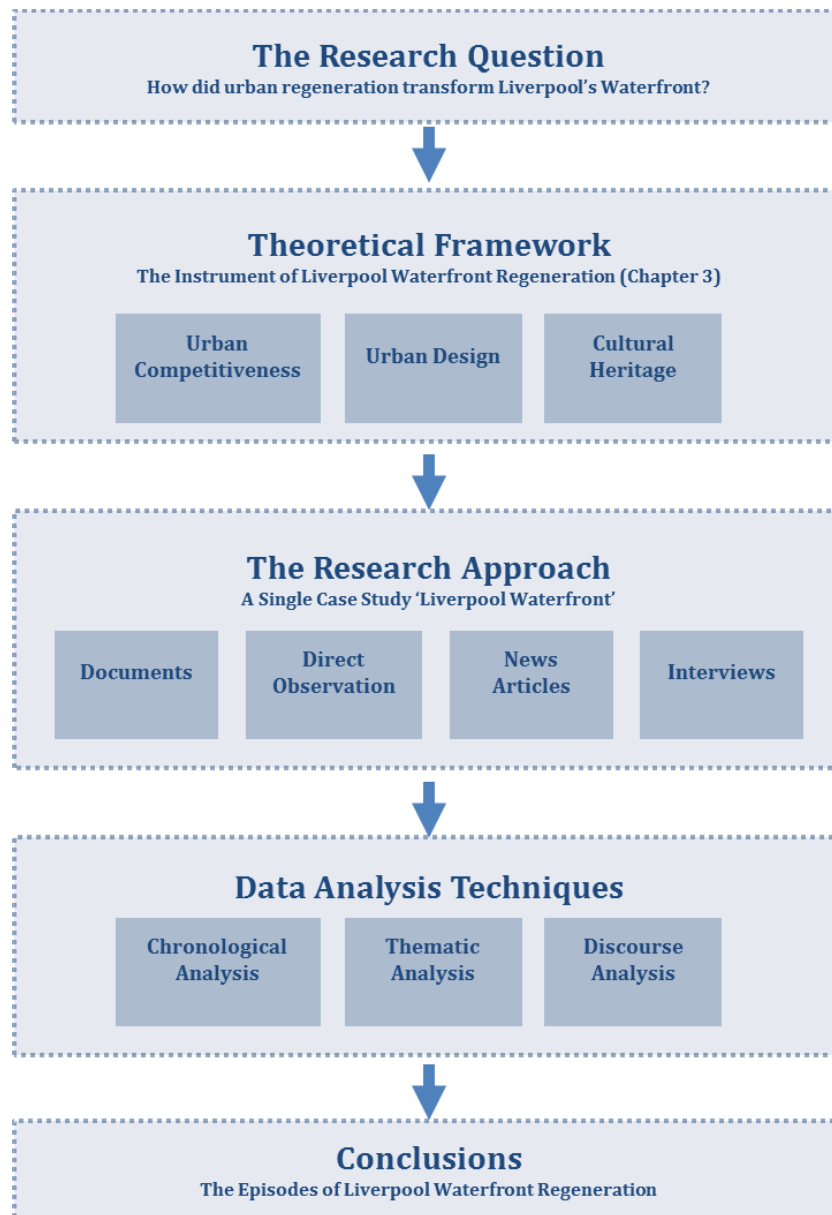


Figure 1. 1\ the research approach Source\ the author

1.5 Structure of the Thesis

This thesis is organised into eight chapters. Following this introduction, the literature review is divided into Chapter Two and Three. In Chapter Two a general overview of what is meant by urban regeneration is outlined. The chapter aims to examine the elements that drive urban transformation and the theory of urban problems and opportunities with specific focus on the UK context. This is followed by details of waterfront regeneration, what urban waterfront is, and

a review of the declining and associated regeneration projects. The chapter also aims to identify the gap in the literature.

The research theoretical framework is discussed in chapter Three. The chapter identified the common issues and instruments that influence urban transformation and shape the practice of regeneration. The importance of this chapter lies in its significance in defining the appropriate research design and data collection. The chapter introduces three key issues; urban competitiveness, urban design, and urban cultural heritage. Each of these issues will be thoroughly discussed and their impact on urban areas will be debated.

Chapter Four introduces the methodology of the research. It aims to review the methodological assumptions underpinning this research, as well as the methods deployed to address the research question and objectives. The chapter also states the rationale behind adopting case study approach as the research methodology and justify the design of the research. The sources of evidences of the research and the data collection procedures will be also presented in this chapter. Moreover, the chapter review the techniques used in the process of organising and analysing the data.

Chapters Five, Six and Seven present the findings of the case study investigation in a chronological order. Chapter Five reviews the history of the research case study 'the city of Liverpool'. This review is very important to lay foundation of the study and establish the broader context. The review of the city is oriented towards understanding the history of its waterfront and how the physical, economic, and social fabric of the city were linked to its waterfront. From this broader image, the chapter then moves to analyse the first period of Liverpool waterfront regeneration which started in the early 1980s and lasted until 1997. The analysis is divided into two sections; the first section highlights the changes in urban governance and the second study two major flagship projects that took place at that time. The chapter stresses that although the waterfront regeneration of this period has succeeded considerably in restoring some of the physical aspects of the waterfront and improving the environmental conditions of docks, on the other hand, it did not manage to contextually integrate the city with its waterfront.

Chapter Six focuses on the recent past of Liverpool waterfront regeneration which comprises the period between 1997 until 2012. The chapter begins by establishing the context for regeneration during this period. Four major elements that have influenced and derived the regeneration were identified and discussed. The elements are: the changes in urban governance; the design guides and development strategies; the UNESCO World Heritage Site Status; and the Liverpool Capital of European Culture. Particular key waterfront regeneration

projects then were examined. The regeneration projects are grouped in three major areas: the historical Pier Head Waterfront, the Paradise Street Development Area PSDA, and the Kings Waterfront. This chapter emphasises the key role played by urban design in mediating between the different actors and facilitating the transformation of the waterfront.

The future of Liverpool waterfront regeneration will be examined in Chapter Seven. The chapter follows the same approach of the previous two chapters. It begins with introducing the regeneration wider context, then, it moves to examine in particular a key proposed project. The first part of Chapter Seven identifies and discusses three major issues that of significant importance for the future regeneration of the waterfront. These are the new Strategic Regeneration Framework, the culture and visitor economy and the issues of marketing and branding. The chapter then focuses entirely on the controversial proposed skyscraper scheme 'Liverpool Waters'. The chapter presented a huge amount of data from news articles and interviews which show the complexity of the project and the huge controversy surrounding its delivery.

Chapter Eight aims to further discuss the findings of the research in the light of the theoretical framework established in chapter Three. The aim is to enrich the theory, drives lessons and conclusions. This thesis argues for an inclusive and a complex process of urban transformation. The complexity and the inclusiveness of the process of regeneration is a key in gaining positive outcomes and securing distinctive, genuine and imaginative urban identity. The chapter also shows the limitations of the research and recommends areas for future research. **Figure 1. 2** illustrates graphically the structure of this thesis.

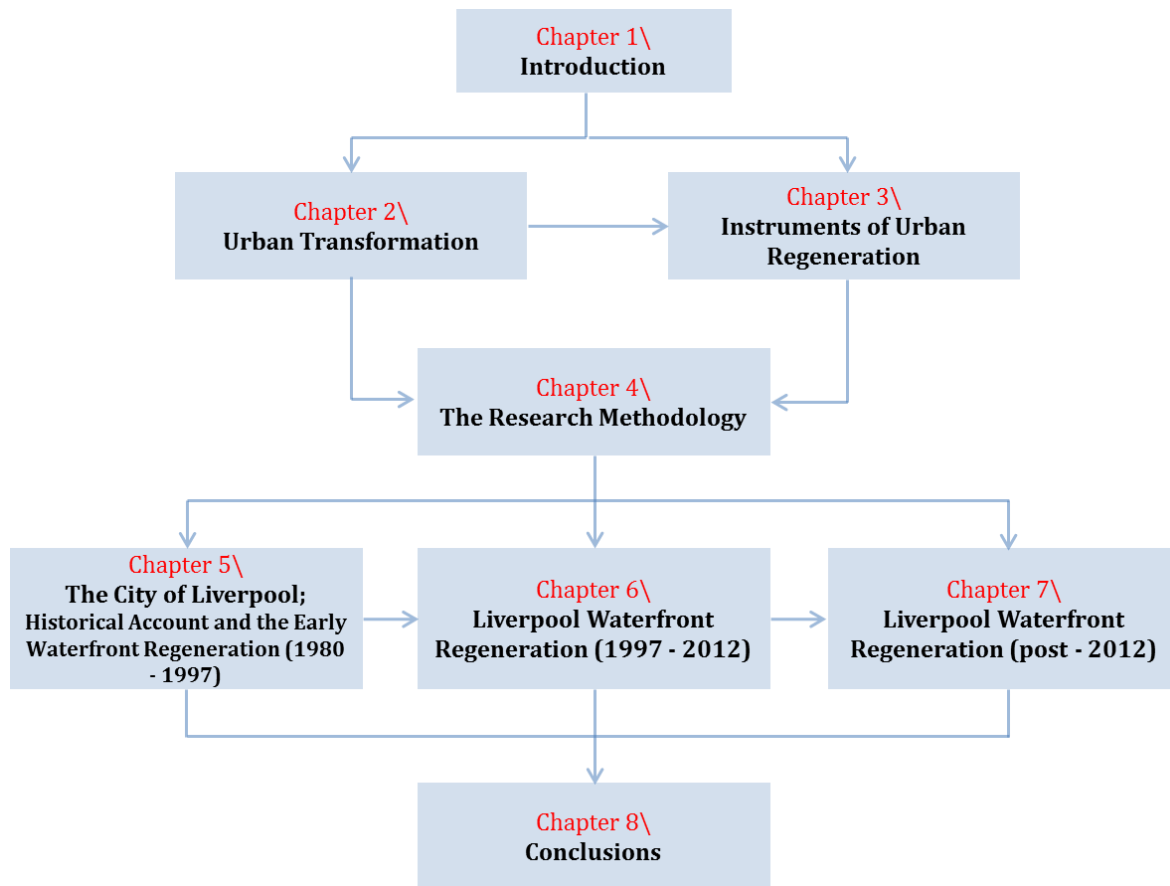


Figure 1. 2\ Diagram illustrates the Structure of the thesis Source\ the author

Chapter 2\ Urban Transformation

“Towns and cities change over time, nothing is immune from either the external forces that dictate the need to adapt or internal pressures that are present within urban areas and which can precipitate growth or decline”

Roberts (2000, p. 26)

2.1 Introduction

Urban areas are always in a state of transformation. Urban areas mirror the numerous processes that drive physical, social, environmental and economic change and they themselves are key generators of many such transitions (Sykes and Roberts, 2000). Studying urban transformation is vital to tackle urban problems and respond to urban opportunities. Nowadays, urban regeneration has evolved as a tool of managing urban transformation. However, despite that urban regeneration is a widely experienced; it is, in fact, a little understood phenomenon. This is mainly due to the fact that there is no single prescribed form of urban regeneration practice and no single authoritative source of information (Sykes and Roberts, 2000). The thesis aims to synthesise two areas of literature and theory, the first related to the area of urban transformation and waterfront regeneration, and the second focuses on the theories of the issues that influence and shape the practice of urban regeneration. The aim of this chapter and the following is to present a comprehensive review of the pertinent literature which relates to the subject domain. The literature that have been reviewed were selected from a much wider range as those only suitable and relevant to the focus of this research with the aim of giving much more wider perspective to the complexity of the issues of waterfront regeneration. This chapter intends to review the theories of urban change and the major forces that derive the transformation in the past decades. It also aims to establish a working definition for urban regeneration, identify its principles and features and briefly review its evolution in the UK. Last but not least, this chapter also aims to establish the research niche by examining in particular the evolution of the urban waterfront regeneration.

2.2 The Necessity for Urban Change; Urban Problems and Opportunities

Urban change is closely linked with the theories of urban problem and opportunities (Sykes and Roberts, 2000). This section will review the major forces that derived the urban change in the previous decades and led to the emergence of modern day practice of urban regeneration. Roberts (2000, p. 10) identified five major factors that derived and shaped the practice of modern day urban regeneration. The factors are: the physical conditions and social response, housing and health, social improvement and economic progress, containment of urban growth, and changing role and nature of urban policy. The following sections will review the main factors that relates to the case study.

2.2.1 Physical Conditions and Social Response

The poor physical condition of an area is the most apparent manifestation of the urban problem. Jeffrey and Pounder (2000) explain that the physical conditions and urban qualities of cities and districts are signs of their prosperity and confidence of their people. On the contrary, run-down areas and decaying city centres are also very obvious symbol of poverty and economic decline. They argued, what is more important than they are symptoms of decline, that they are signs of the city's inability to adapt and change quickly enough to rapid social and economic change.

The process of physical change of cities is unavoidable, yet it is useful (Sykes and Roberts, 2000). As Roberts (2000) argued it is inevitable because the changes of political, social, and economic systems always create new demands and opportunities for economic improvement, and it is useful as the very existence of these substantial forces generate opportunities for adjusting and enhancing the conditions of urban environment. Mumford stated, "in the city remote forces and influences intermingle with the local; their conflicts are no less significant than their harmonies" ((Mumford, 1940, p. 4) cited in (Sykes and Roberts, 2000, p. 11)). However, the desire to respond positively to the different forces has caused all the stakeholders involved in the process of change to look for the best possible ways to improve and maintain the condition of towns and cities. Kostof et al. (1999) observed that this response varied throughout the history, reflecting the socio-political and economic values and the hierarchy of urban society. They also showed that in the past, cities and towns imposed upon people and they were altered by the ruling class with no reference to their communities. Jones and Evans (2013) pointed out that the history of the development in the last two centuries in the UK represents how British cities attempted to establish and reconfigure urban areas in a way that best serves the needs of continually evolving societies.

Urban environment is always a result of a wide array of functions such as living, working, and entertaining. McCarthy (2012) observed that the relative significance of each functions change throughout the time, and that continuous change usually creates demands for land, infrastructure and a number of accompanying services. He noted that some traditional urban areas may find that their functions or zones of specialisation are no longer relevant and that facilities linked to that function is redundant. Conversely, urban areas as a location in some cases may represent a massive source of wealth especially when their functions are not matching their market value. Fainstein (2001) described that as the difference between the use and exchange value. Roberts (2000) argues that this difference which is echoed in the tension between the urban areas as a places for human activities and as assets, lies at the heart of several of urban problems and also helps defining the limits within which solutions can be constructed and applied.

There are many causes for the physical dereliction. A major reason is the changes in the requirements of users of urban land and premises, due to the deterioration of the of the stock of buildings and services, and as a result of market failures in the system of land ownership and control (Sykes and Roberts, 2000). Other reason is the increasing competition for jobs, accompanied by the influence of the new residential preferences of employees, this has resulted in the provision of alternative locations that are usually better equipped with modern services and infrastructure beside that new places often offer better land values and lower costs (Balchin and Bull, 1987). Furthermore, there are some problems associated with the presence of derelict and contaminated lands and cost for clearing sites and providing infrastructure is hugely significant, the existence of such problems usually can be found in obsolescence waterfronts and industrial sites. Roberts (2000) noted although the solutions to problems associated with contamination of sites often technically determined and site specific, it is imperative to realise that there is an institutional and a physical dimension to the occurrence and persistence of urban physical problems. He argued that the absence of an adequate institutional capacity to intervene in the cycle of physical decline has proved to be major impediment for the regeneration of many urban areas.

Roberts et al. (1993) linked between the physical problems of urban areas and planning system. They noted that in some cases blight and neglect have resulted from over ambitious planning schemes that have exceeded their capacity for implementation, whereas in other circumstances planning has generated a positive change. Roberts et al. (1993) argued that it is important to note that planning system has to encompass a broader strategy of urban management which relates to investment, physical intervention, social action, and strategic planning.

2.2.2 Social Welfare and Economic Progress

According to McCarthy (2012) that it is not always the case that improving the physical environment alone would solve the problems associated urban environment, nor providing a good quality housing and reducing the overcrowding will gradually improve that the conditions of urban areas. However, a third element must be considered which is the enhancement of economic prosperity.

During the Victorian era, the economic progress of cities resulted in suburban growth which was intensified by the advances in the transportation systems. Tallon (2013) pointed that this has allowed urban areas to widen their influence and underpinned process of concentration and centralisation. However, Leary and McCarthy (2013) noted while this escape to the suburban provided a relief valve for affluent and rich people, it did little to relieve the problem of the inner districts of towns and cities, leaving it for the poor divided communities. This, however, required interventions from politicians and social reformers to address such problems in most of the UK and Europe large cities. It was during this period that the formal planning system started to emerge in urban areas in order to regulate the development of places (Hall, 2012). At this time, Cullingworth and Nadin (2002) noted that the majority of urban interventions were associated with town planning rather than with urban regeneration.

Robson (1988) saw 'urban problems' as part of a broader process of restructuring in which older urban areas have suffered most down to inherent weaknesses in the hierarchy of their economic base and their failure to adjust to new trading and infrastructure requirements. This profound structural weakness that can be seen in the economies of older areas led some researchers to study a variety of casual factors which includes the 'urban-rural' shift and the 'spatial division of labour' (Sykes and Roberts, 2000).

2.2.3 Containing Urban Growth

The containment of urban growth was necessitated by the significant increase in the urban population and the advances in transportation systems which facilitated the de-concentration and the decentralisation of people and capital from urban areas leading to the decline of cities (Tallon, 2013). Pacione (2009) indicated that this process of counter-urbanisation started to occur in 1960s when areas situated at a distance from major cities influences began to grow at a faster rate than the main conurbations and their dependent regions. Coinciding with the counter-urbanisation was increasing regional-scale shift in population and economic activities. This was chiefly due to de-industrialisation (Tallon, 2013). Several containment policies were emerged such as the green belts, and initiatives such as New Towns and urban expansion schemes (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2002).

Accompanying the counter-urbanisation process was the sub-urbanisation. Pacione (2009) indicated that sub-urbanisation intensified during the post war decades strengthening the growth of the outer districts of the cities at the expense of the centre. In essence, Tallon (2013) argued that sub-urbanisation and counter urbanisation were indistinguishable and produced the continuing dispersal process. Hall (2012) also said that suburban growth occurred in a piecemeal and epochal fashion over the twentieth century, a process that extended until 2000s.

In general, the containment of urban growth is central to the current practice of urban regeneration which has addressed the need to restrain urban growth and to make the best possible use of the areas that already used. It is also significant in order to provide an immediate impulse for much urban regeneration (Roberts, 2000).

2.2.4 Changing Urban Policy

This theme reflects the changing assignment of responsibility between the central government, local authorities, and private sectors for the development and management of towns and cities. Roberts (2000, p. 15) stated that “from post-Second World War reconstruction to the present-day model of partnership, power, responsibility for the discharge of tasks of urban regeneration has changed hands in line with the broader conventions of social organisation and the dominant forces of political life”. Table 2.1 summarises the changing urban policy since the end World War II and shows the evolution of urban regeneration.

After the World War II and new era of reconstruction and repairing the wartime damage had become the top of the agenda of the central government. The reconstruction period has also stimulated the economic growth and brought a new confidence to the economy and a general air of optimism (Tallon, 2013). Jones and Evans (2013) also maintained that from the 1945 the UK has experienced the first form of urban regeneration with the post-war reconstruction projects. However, Roberts (2000) explained that the central government was at the core of reconstruction period, the Ministry of Town and Country Planning offered a detailed guidance to local authorities. McCarthy (2012) argued that with such a control from the central government there is no wonder why so many of the end-products of the post war schemes look very depressing.

There was dissatisfaction with the outcomes of the strategies of the previous period such as the slum clearance policy which resulted in decanting of population to suburban areas and that led to number of adjustments to the previous policies and more focus on renewal and improvement (Colquhoun, 1995). The 1980s witnessed the shift from government-led towards the idea of partnership which was reflected on a more commercial style of urban redevelopment (McCarthy, 2012). Further alteration to the form and operation of urban policy took place also

during the 1990s, there was a slight move towards more comprehensive way of thinking and the recognition of a series of new challenges and issues, for example, the acceptance of the issues of the environment and the principles of sustainable development despite it has not fully imposed its characteristics on the functioning of urban environment (Roberts, 2000). Section (2.3.3) will discuss the evolution of urban policy in the UK in more detail.

Period	1950s	1960s	1970s Renewal	1980s	1990s
Policy type	reconstruction	Revitalisation		Redevelopment	Regeneration
Major Strategy and orientation	Reconstruction and extension of older areas and towns and cities based on master-plan suburban growth	Continuation of 1950s theme; suburban and peripheral growth; some early attempts at rehabilitation	Focus on in situ renewal and neighbourhood schemes; still development at periphery	Many major schemes of development and redevelopment; flagship projects; out of town projects.	Move towards a more comprehensive form of policy and practice; more emphasis on integrated treatments.
Key actors and stakeholders	National and local government; private sector developers and contractors	Move towards a greater balance between public and private sectors.	Growing role of private sector and decentralisation in local government	Emphasis on private sector and special agencies; growth of partnerships.	Partnership the dominant approach.
Spatial level of activities	Emphasis of local and site level	Regional level of activity emerged	Regional and local levels initially; later more local emphasis	In the early 1980s focus on site; later emphasis on local level	Reintroduction of strategic perspective; growth of regional activity
Economic focus	Public sector investment with some private sector involvement	Continuing from 1950s with growing influence of private investment	Resource constraints in public sector and growth of private investment	Private sector dominant with selective public funds	Greater balance between public, private and voluntary funding
Social content	Improvement of housing and living standards	Social and welfare improvement	Community based action and greater empowerment	Community self-help with very selective state support	Emphasis on the role of community
Physical emphasis	Replacement of inner areas and peripheral development	Some continuation from 1950s with parallel rehabilitation of existing areas	More extensive renewal of older urban areas	Major schemes of replacement and new development flagship schemes	More modest than 1980s heritage and retention

Environmental approach	Landscape and some greening	Selective improvement	Environmental improvement with some innovation	Growth of concern of wider approach to environment	Introduction of broader idea of environmental sustainability
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Table 2. 1 the evolution of urban regeneration **Source** (Roberts, 2000, p. 14)

2.3 Urban Regeneration

2.3.1 Defining Urban Regeneration

The previous section has identified the major issues that led to urban change and policy responses. Despite they reflect the enduring and continuous nature of the social, physical and economic change, they do not give a comprehensive definition for urban regeneration. Roberts (2000) tried to construct a working definition for urban regeneration, he pointed that in order to do that it is imperative to identify the major areas of concerns and the possible future challenges, and the most important of these future challenges is ensuring that the public and private policy are working according to the principles of sustainable development. From this, Roberts (2000, p. 17) has defined urban regeneration as:

“Comprehensive and integrated vision and action which leads to the resolution of urban problems which seeks to bring about lasting improvement in the economic, physical, social and environmental condition of an area that has been subject to change”

There are many other definitions for urban regeneration, but amongst all, this definition seems to be the most comprehensive and precise. It encompassed all the aspects that have been identified by previous scholars. This definition covered the comprehensive nature of the urban regeneration as it emphasised by Mehta (2009) as a process to improve physical, economic, social and environmental condition of an area. It also included the essential feature that identified by Lichfield (1992) as a better understanding of the process of decline and an agreement on what one is trying to achieve and how. Furthermore, it highlights the weakness of the previous urban policies as argued by Hausner (1993) that they tend to be short-term, fragmented, ad hoc and project based without comprehensive vision for the wider city improvement. However, Roberts' definition might be over ambitious when it stated that urban regeneration can bring *“lasting improvement”*, in fact, this contradicts the inherited nature of continuous change of the urban environment that always possess new challenges and opportunities and dictate the need for adaptation.

Expanding the previous definition of urban regeneration, further number of principles have been identified by Sykes and Roberts (2000, p. 18). They pointed out that urban regeneration should:

- “Be based upon a detailed analysis of the condition of an urban area;
- Be aimed at the simultaneous adaptation of physical fabric, social structure, economic base and environmental condition of an urban area;
- Attempt to achieve this task of simultaneous adaptation through the generation and implementation of a comprehensive and integrated strategy that deals with the resolution of problems in a balanced, ordered and positive manner;
- Ensure that a strategy and the resulting programs of implementation are developed in accord with the aims of sustainable development;
- Set a clear operational objectives which should, wherever possible, be quantified;
- Make the best possible use of natural, economic, human and other resources, including land and existing features of the built environment;
- Seek to ensure consensus through the fullest possible participation and co-operation of all stakeholders with the legitimate interest in the regeneration of an urban area;
- Recognise the importance of measuring the progress of strategy towards the achievement of specified objectives and monitoring the changing nature and influence of the internal and external forces which act upon urban areas; accept the likelihood that initial programs of implementation will need to be revised in line with such changes as occur;
- Recognise the reality that the various elements of a strategy are likely to make progress at different speeds; this may require the redirection of resources or the provision of additional resources in order to maintain a broad balance between the aims that encompassed in the scheme of urban regeneration and to allow the achievement of all the strategic objectives”.

In general, comparing urban regeneration with the previous policies such as urban renewal or redevelopment, it is very clear that urban regeneration goes beyond their aims and aspirations. Urban regeneration focuses on achieving long-term, more strategic and sustainable outcomes. Figure 2.1 summarises the process by which urban regeneration takes place.

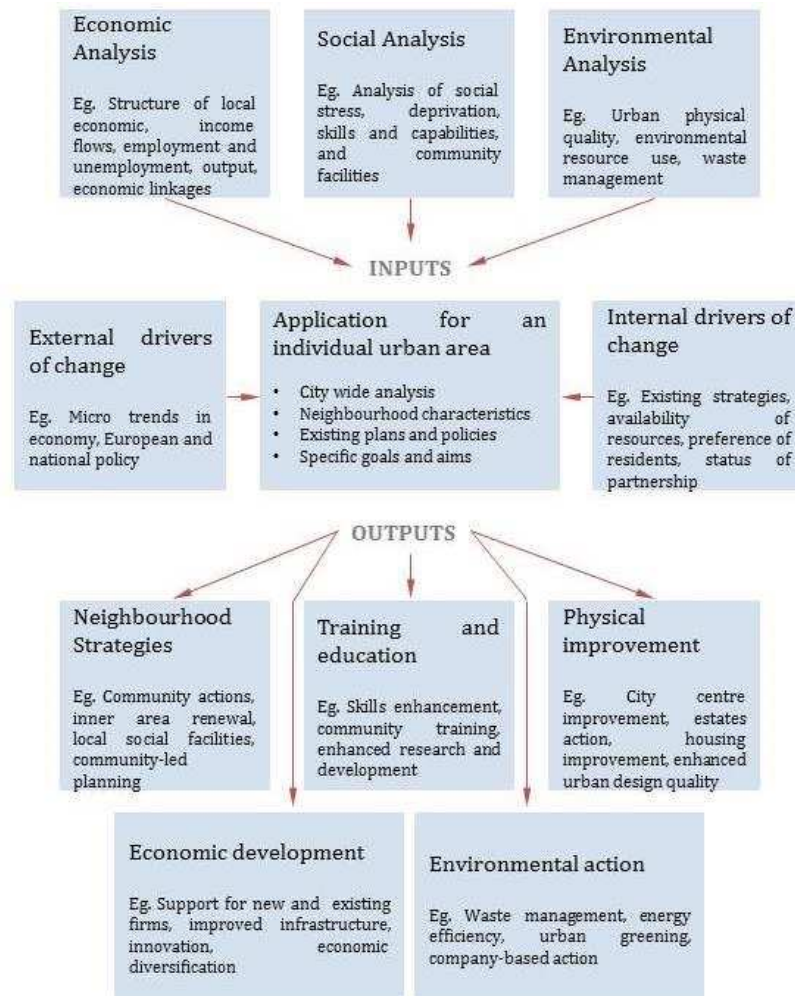


Figure 2. 1 \ The Urban Regeneration Process **Source** \ adapted from (Roberts, 2000, p. 20)

2.3.2 The Features of Urban Regeneration

There are some elements and features that have not been captured fully in those principles of urban regeneration mentioned previously, yet they resemble the essence of urban regeneration and distinguish it from the previous urban policies. One of a particular significance is the strategic vision and the long-term perspective. Healey (1997) observed that there is an increasing consensus that in order to resolve interwoven urban problems, it is essential to develop strategic framework. This consensus is based on the ground that in order to achieve a successful urban regeneration, it has to be strategically designed, locally reformed, and multi-agency partnership approach (Healey, 1997).

Carter (2000) explained that in the past there has been few or even no attempt to generate a strategic view of what should happen to cities as a whole or to specific conurbations. He added that the overwhelming emphasis on small districts, isolated projects and output-related funding has left little room for wider considerations. Additionally, the majority of urban policies that were developed by the central government had pursued ad hoc projects without considering

locating these within a broader vision (Carter, 2000). Similarly, Hausner (1993) said that the significance for strategic approach to urban regeneration arises from the concerns regarding the inner cities policies which have been known for their modesty, marginal and ad hoc in character, and lacking any relationship to structural urban economic trends. Consequently, Turok and Shutt (1994, p. 212) observed that “problems are being addressed in a piecemeal manner and linkages between different aspects of regeneration have not been developed. Planning and actions on a city-wide or regional level have also been side-lined by the focus of local initiatives. Accordingly, a duplication of efforts is occurring, economic activity is shifted around at public expense and problems of dereliction and deprivation continually reappear and deepen as economic restructuring proceeds”.

Healey (1997) argued that it is no longer possible to approach urban regeneration through the promotion of urban transformation projects in isolation, instead, the focus should be oriented to create the conditions for economic, social, and environmental regeneration. An important element for achieving this is the existence of a long term strategic framework which reflects a process capable of fostering links between issues and those involved in them (Carter, 2000).

The importance of existence of a long-term strategic framework for urban regeneration was highlighted by Carter (2000). He stated that it allows policy parameters to be explored and integrated, “such an examination assists urban regeneration and helps define the extent to which such measures can in turn meet environmental and social objectives without compromising economic development in the long term” (Carter, 2000, p. 38).

The second fundamental feature about urban regeneration is the recognition and the acceptance of the uniqueness of the place and the requirement for any particular model of urban regeneration to be modified to the situation within which it operates (Roberts, 2000). Hausner (1993) elucidated that this entails that any specific urban regeneration scheme should both respond to the wider circumstances and requirements of the city or region in which it is located beside aiming to reduce social exclusion and enhance economic reintegration of disadvantage urban areas. From physical urban and architectural term this feature is extremely fundamental and it has raised a huge debate that later led to introduce urban design as a mean of tackling urban problems. With the negative impact of globalisation on the urban identity of place, this feature of urban regeneration that encourages building on place uniqueness enabled urban regeneration to work as an instrument for enhancing cities’ urban identity and uniqueness. Chapter 3 will discuss that in more detail.

Unlike the previous urban policies, urban regeneration aims to ensure that urban areas are making a positive contribution to the national economy, and attaining a range of social and

environmental aims (McCarthy, 2012). In the past with the decline of city centres and inner cities some have argued that disadvantage urban areas act as a drag upon national and regional success and should be abandoned, yet, more recent assessments reject this view. Stegman (1995, p. 1602, cited in (Roberts, 2000, p. 19)) pointed out that “the tragedy of the inner city affects everyone and the overall performance of metropolitan regions is linked to the performance of their central cities, and urban distress moves outwards from the core”. Roberts (2000) argued what is fundamental about Stegman’s point is that cities matter, and the task of ensuring the effective regeneration of an urban area is of fundamental significance to a wide range of actors and stakeholders, this includes local community, city and national government, investors, economic activities, and environmental organisations at all levels from the global to the local.

Urban regeneration is an interventionist activity (Leary and McCarthy, 2013). Traditionally, the majority of interventions were led by the state, but, desirability of intervening to rectify a failure of the market has shifted to be a matter of public-private consensus. However, Oatley (1998) argued this consensus cannot emerge or continue to function without the necessarily institutional structure and establishing these institutional structures requires the establishment of central objectives and the introduction of a means of mobilising collective efforts with the aim of managing change in an orderly manner. Integration is also an important aspect of urban regeneration which assists to differentiate it from the former partial attempts to manage change in cities (Lichfield, 1992). Roberts (2000, p. 22) accentuates that “creating and delivering an integrated and comprehensive solution to the challenges of urban regeneration is a difficult task, but it is well worth the effort involved”.

2.3.3 The Evolution of Urban Policy in the UK

This section will briefly summarise the evolution of urban Policy in the UK. Roberts (2000) noted that despite the successive British governments have drawn considerably upon the experience of other countries in developing its own urban policy, there is an identifiable British approach to the attempted resolution of urban problems. He elucidated that this distinctive British approach echoes the shift in roles and responsibilities between central government, local authorities, and between the public, private and voluntary sectors. Whilst Table 2.1 provides a summary of the characteristics and different styles of urban policy, there are number of elements that can be further clarified and discussed in the following sub-sections.

2.3.3.1 The Early Days (post war- 1979)

As discussed above, urban policy is a response the theory of urban problems and opportunities. The Second World War damage was the most obvious and striking urban problem in the 1945

in many major cities across the UK. The urban problems that followed until the 1965 were related to the physical conditions of housing and unrestricted urban growth which was leading to sprawl and ribbon development (Cochrane, 2006). Furthermore, after the War there were number of issues that needed an urgent attention from the local authorities such as the redevelopment of the city centres and inner city housing. The treatment of these problems was largely driven by the local authorities, resulting in problems such as mono-tenured housing estates, and poorly planned and developed city centres (Evans, 1997). Three major policies have developed immediately after the Second World War which sought to ameliorate the two major problems of the low quality housing and urban sprawl. These were designated under the town and country planning, regional development and housing policy. The three primary tools were New Towns, green belts and housing redevelopment (Tallon, 2013).

The New Towns concept was inspired by the Garden City Movement of Ebenezer Howard and Patrick Abercrombie (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2002). The new towns were planned to house 20,000 to 60,000 people, they were also located around large, densely populated urban areas to help reduce their population, and they were built on greenfield and were developed by New Towns Development Corporations, thus, public rather privately funded and developed (Pacione, 2009).

In total, 28 New Towns were built between the 1946 and 1970. Despite the positive reaction with regards to the proactive and innovative approach of the New Towns program, evaluation of the scheme raised concerns with this style of physical new build housing (Tallon, 2013). The policy was also criticised by Atkinson and Moon (1994). They argued that the New Towns policy was unashamedly physical; it largely overlooked social and economic factors and caused problems in urban areas.

The Green Belts is the second major policy was emerged during this period. It is a border set around urban areas to restrict growth and expansion and therefore, containing urban growth. the Green Belts policy aimed to promote compact cities, and prevent chaotic ribbon development and sprawl, preserve farming lands, minimise the service cost, and protect rural communities and natural environment (Amati, 2012).

Although the Green Belts proved to be popular with the general public and supported the environmental lobbies with a focal point, there are several problems associated with them at this time such as the sever limits placed on urban growth (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2002, Tallon, 2013). Tallon (2013) pointed to the debate emerged in the late 2000s in the context of expected shortage for additional 3 million homes by 2020 which makes the developing on green built unavoidable in the future.

The third major policy during this period was the process of housing development and slum clearance. This was very much driven by public sector which its interventions aimed at redeveloping severely damaged urban area (Sykes and Roberts, 2000). In particular, there was a major problem with housing stock immediately after the war. As a result of the of urban containment policies and the space standards, the available land in major cities for housing development was almost exhausted, thus, higher densities were promoted which resulted in new forms of vertical developments rather than horizontal (Blackman, 2013). Tallon (2013) pointed out that the new emerging developments were hugely influenced by the modernist architectural styles, functional zoning, the development of tower blocks in inner cities and peripheral, and shopping centres which has accordingly resulted in unsustainable developments physically and socially.

Despite the positive impact on the quality of the built environment and the more efficient transport system, the policies of comprehensive redevelopment and urban clearance has resulted in destroying the historic street patterns and the traditional notions of urban space (Carmona et al., 2011). They argued that the process of redevelopment was highly disruptive to the economic and social infrastructure, while the product was also seriously flawed. Carmona et al. (2011) indicated that although the comprehensive redevelopment of this era was a painful process, for most of the earlier post-war period, the destruction of the physical social and cultural fabric of inner city areas, mixed-use functional neighbourhoods, and poorer, working class residential areas was accepted without serious objection.

In summary, the urban problems of the first sub-period 1945-1965 were tackled by physical solutions. In contrast with the second sub-period from 1965-1979, there was a significant shift in approach from physical towards community and social based approach. Although the significant physical approach of the first sub-period, there was a major issue of pockets of poverty. Tallon (2013) described that there was large areas of inner city poverty were juxtaposed with the wealth of suburbia. Additionally, racial tensions started to simmer resulting in number of riots across the country. Consequently, three major non-physical urban policies were established: The Urban Programme, Community Development Project, and Inner Area Studies. These three new policies along with the previous discussed physical urban policies had shaped development during this period.

2.3.3.2 Introducing the Market: Urban Competition (1979-1997)

Over the last decades, a debate has emerged about the appropriate roles of private and public sector, and the relationship between the market and the state. Carmona et al. (2011) indicated that this debate emerged from the critiques of 'big government' and the assumption that 'more

government' was the answer, came arguments that government was actually part of the problem, and the solution is freeing the market forces through deregulation. New distinctive approaches were introduced by Margaret Thatcher's Conservative Government which came to power in 1979 until 1990. Tallon (2013) indicated this period was influenced by 'entrepreneurial' ethos consisting of new-liberal philosophies of public-private partnerships, privatisation, deregulation, liberalisation and centralisation. During this period, the public investment in urban programs increased along with the introduction of new measures designed to help and enhance private sector confidence (Imrie and Thomas, 1999). The first of these measures was the establishment of the Urban Development Corporations UDCs; two UDCs were founded, the first is London Docklands Development Corporation (LDDC) and the second is the Merseyside Development Corporation (MDC) (see section 5.3.2). Later the program was expanded to involve a total of 13 UDCs. The second tool which was introduced in the 1981 was the establishment of Enterprise Zone (EZs); 11 EZs were designated in 1981 and a further 14 EZs were later designated in 1984 (Blackman, 2013).

As the UDCs and EZs were working within confine zones and not able to address problems that were affecting inner cities, another initiatives were introduced; the Urban Development Grant (UDG) in conjunction with the establishment of Inner City Enterprises. Both of these initiatives aimed to develop opportunities that ignored or too risky (Roberts, 2000).

However, by the end of 1980s there were major problems surrounding the urban regeneration policy which was neatly summarised by Oatley (1995, p. 262-265) into five categories: the definition of the urban problem and the scale of response; the fragmentation of policy and the lack of coordination; the lack of a long-term strategic approach; the over-reliance on property-led regeneration; and problems of governance, managerialism and bureaucracy. In general, the period of 1979 to 1991 witnessed a shift of focus from social welfare projects to private sector and property-led approaches. Tallon (2013) indicated that whilst the problems at the beginning of Thatcher's government were seen as a too much state intervention, individual and group tendency on the state, and restriction of free market, the problems created by the same government were that urban regeneration tended to be more about profit, property and market-led.

The 1990s

The beginning of the years of the 1990s witnessed a gradual reconfiguration of policy. While there were some elements retained from the previous period, there had been an increasing dissatisfaction with property-led regeneration that characterised that period (Imrie and Thomas, 1993). Additionally, there was growing concerns for communities within regenerated

areas were not experiencing any significant benefits, predominantly socially excluded communities (Tallon, 2013). The key issue for the government was how to ensure the excluded communities benefited from the regeneration, besides addressing the incoherent work of area-based initiatives and the level of governance involved in urban policy in the 1980s (Turok and Shutt, 1994).

A considerable shift in policy took place during the 1990s with the emergence of multi-sectorial partnerships and competitive bidding (Oatley, 1998). The previous policies were characterised by two way public-private partnerships based on property-led regeneration, controlled by central government and 'trickle down' of investment. Instead, the emerging policies of this period were three way multi-sectorial partnership between public, private, community and voluntary sectors (Davoudi, 1995, Tallon, 2013). This new changes followed by a new approach of resource allocation which was the competitive bidding for urban regeneration monies (Oatley, 1998). Rather than allocating funds on the basis of the demonstration of need which measured according to the scale of social and economic deprivation in localities, the new funding mechanism shifted to allocate funding on the basis of competitive bidding process (Atkinson and Moon, 1994, Oatley, 1995). The funding for central government was distributed according to the quality of the bids and the economic opportunities available aiming to stimulate innovation within deprived areas rather than simply to alleviate needs (Tallon, 2013).

The two major urban regeneration policies of this period were City Challenge (1991) and Single Regeneration Budget (1993). The aim of these policies were to incorporate local people into decision making process that affected their local areas (Tallon, 2013). In general, Carmona et al. (2011) noted that this era was characterised by short termism, lack of strategic vision, and an absence of public sector interest in design quality, resulting in a negligence of urban design.

2.3.3.3 The Future of Urban Regeneration (post-1997)

The year 1997 marked a significant dividing line in the UK urban policy with a new Labour Government that came to power. The urban policy during this period was categorized by Tallon (2013) into two main categories; policies focusing on the regeneration of neighbourhood and community in areas traditionally dominated by housing, in the context of social exclusion and related urban problems; and policies based around regenerating declining regions, city centres, and areas of cities previously dominated by industry and commercial uses rather than housing.

A new approach was introduced by the new Labour government which was focusing on the interrelationship between the economic and social dimensions within the context of the newly termed 'urban renaissance'. This approach aimed to address urban problems in a more coherent

way and ensure that combating social exclusion would be central part of urban policy (Tallon, 2013).

To accomplish the idea of urban renaissance, the government established the Urban Task Force (UTF) chaired by architect Richard Rogers with the aim of identifying the causes of decline in urban areas and recommending practical solutions that would lead to sustainable regeneration (UTF, 1999). In 1999, the UTF published its report 'Towards an Urban Renaissance' which contained over 100 recommendations that encouraged design excellence, brownfield development, and higher densities. Expanding the UTF's recommendations, an urban white paper was published in 2000 to set out the strategy to achieve urban renaissance and it was accompanied by £1 billion of tax measures to increase investment in urban areas (Colomb, 2007). This Urban White Paper was the first document since 1977 White Paper about inner cities, and it was a considerable break with a long tradition of 'anti-urbanism' in the English Urban Policy whereby, from the mid-19th century onwards, Gordon (2004, p. 374) pointed "the scale and physical form of modern cities were held responsible for a wide range of pathologies observed there". The new approach of urban renaissance was to portray cities as a solutions to economic and social problems (Colomb, 2007). Gordon (2004, p. 373) emphasised this saying "a successful urban development is considered as a key to secure a combination of competitiveness, cohesion and effective governance required for survival in the new economy, with environmental sustainability as a bonus".

Tallon (2013) explored continuity and change in urban policy through examining the two Urban White Papers (1977 & 2000). He indicated that one of the most striking differences is the way in which they represent the urban because both documents emerged from different context. The two papers reflects the changing focus from images of poverty, dependence and decline with depiction of urban areas as economic power-houses and vibrant cultural communities (Tallon, 2013). Harvey (2000) neatly summarised that as a change of representation for cities from 'space of despair' to 'space of hope' which has implications for how urban policy is being conceived. Generally, several academics criticised the UTF and the succeeding Urban White Paper for their substantial emphasis on design excellence to the detriment of larger social and economic factors (Lees, 2008, Colomb, 2007, Tallon, 2013). The following sub-sections will review three major vehicles of the new Labour urban policy.

English Partnerships

English Partnerships was established in 1993. English Partnerships is the national regeneration agency and it focuses on the physical development and regeneration with land assembly and compulsory purchase powers, with the aim of purchasing derelict land and brings it back into

life (Communities and Committee, 2008). Cullingworth and Nadin (2002) indicated that English Partnerships focuses on developing its land assets and portfolio of strategic sites, creating development partnerships, enhancing the environment through land renewal and development and finding different sources of funding.

Regional Development Agencies RDAs

The RDAs is one of the new mechanisms that has been introduced by the New Labour government in 1999 with the aim of creating jobs, reclaiming land, assisting business to start ups and investing chiefly in the deprived areas of their regions (Cochrane, 2006). The RDAs took over the work of English Partnerships, which since that time adapted itself to focus on housing and sustainable communities (Cullingworth and Nadin, 2002). Tallon (2013) pointed out that the RDAs are funded by several governmental departments and their funding is linked to the achievement of goals in four major issues; number of jobs created, the performances of business in the areas of the RDAs, the amount of reuse of brownfield and reclaimed lands, and the amount of private investment in the deprived areas.

Urban Regeneration Companies URCs

There are many other initiatives that were established to deliver the aims and objectives of what is called 'urban renaissance'. The UTF (1999) suggested setting up of Urban Regeneration Companies (URCs) as a mean of creating sustainable regeneration through effective partnership. The URCs aim to bring together the key stakeholders to drive forward the regeneration of particular area (UTF, 1999). The URCs are private sector-led organisations, and they aim to coordinate development and investment in particular derelict areas. They are focusing on vision, leadership, dynamic style, and engagement with private sector to carry out regeneration. Unlike the UDCs, URCs do not have planning or land acquisition powers, and are seen coordinating body that have the ability to stimulus developments in run-down areas (Tallon, 2013). McCarthy (2007, p. 53) has defined the Urban Regeneration Company as "a formal partnership of key representatives from the public and private sector who operate at arms of length to deliver physical and economic regeneration in specific areas, and it provides a strategic overview on an area so as to guide investment decisions by the public and private sectors so as for further specific outcomes".

2.4 Urban Waterfront Regeneration

The previous sections discussed the drivers of urban change and theories of urban regeneration alongside the evolution of urban policy in the UK. This chapter focuses exclusively on a certain

type of urban areas which is the urban waterfront. The urban waterfront has, however, a distinctive history of transformation and therefore, distinctive urban issues. This section attempts to define the urban waterfront, review its role through different periods of time, and examine the evolution of the urban waterfront regeneration.

2.4.1 The Urban Waterfront

Numerous historic human settlements were originated alongside water bodies. Hoyle (2002, p. 141) stated that “many coastal and riparian human settlements owe their origin and prosperity to water transport and trade, and in the past -from ancient times until recent decades- such urban settlements and their ports were normally intimately related in both functional and spatial terms”. The presence along water bodies has also a great influence on the form of the city and its future extension, Kostof et al. (1999) pointed out that the existence of cities along water bodies have aligned the growth with the water and formed the character of the city. Breen and Rigby (1996) have argued that the urban waterfront was regarded and will continue to be regarded as the face of the city, stated that many cities around the world are linked to water bodies which in many cases contributed to their establishment, identity, and subsequent development.

Urban waterfronts can be conceptualised and analysed from different standpoints such as spatial, functional, and visual characteristics. Hoyle’s view to the urban waterfront was spatial and largely associated with port-city interface. He considers urban waterfront as zone of conflict/co-operation which may be thought of as a geographical line of demarcation between ports owned land and urban zones, or an area of transition between port land uses and urban land uses (Hoyle, 1989). Desfor et al. (2010) have described the waterfront as a special place where water and land meet. They argued that “waterfronts have been and continue to be spaces where an ensemble of actors, both societal and biophysical, and representing global, regional and local forces, engage in intense struggles that change the urban” (Desfor et al., 2010, p. 3). Another definition by Dovey (2005, p. 10) in which he defined the waterfront in terms of spatial dialectic of land and water, he stated “the waterfront is a boundary, an edge condition between stable striations of the city and smooth flow of the water. It is a spatial ‘between’ conditions that mediates a series of dialectic oppositions – order/chaos; being/becoming; place/space; closed/open; solid/void”. However, these definitions provide and conceptual rather than a practical understanding of what waterfront constitutes.

Breen and Rigby (1994) have described the urban waterfront in a more sharp way. They said that “urban waterfront means water’s edge in cities and towns of all sizes. The water may be a river, lake, ocean, bay, creek or canal but then a waterfront includes everything from wildlife

sanctuary to a container port and the full spectrum of uses in between which may be planned as a unified undertaken or it may be a haphazard development overtime with multiple owners and participants. Waterfront projects may include building that are not directly on the water but tided to it visually or historically or tided to it as a part of larger scheme” Breen and Rigby (1994, p. 8). In parallel, Bruttomesso (2001) understood the urban waterfront as a special linear border type of urban area that is both part of the city and in contact with a significant water body. These two definitions were considered to be the most appropriate to suit the purpose of this research. Bruttomesso definition stresses on the uniqueness of waterfronts as a special areas within the cities whereas Breen and Rigby understanding is found to be more encompassing as it includes areas that is not only linked physically with the water but also visually or historically.

2.4.2 The Transformation of the Urban Waterfront

In the recent history of human settlements, waterfront had become the most significant site within the city. The waterfront during the industrial revolution was the gateway to the city and vibrant community in itself. The scale and the type of activities that took place on the waterfront had changed dramatically. The invention of the steam engine had motivated the first industrial revolution and the development of the internal combustion engine stimulated the second industrial revolution (Al-Ansari, 2009). However, the rapid commercial and industrial growth expanded the port city and forced it to develop beyond the city confines with linear quays and break-bulk industries (Hoyle, 1989).

That era which was characterized by Fordist Mass Production, was considered as the period of maximum socioeconomic symbiosis between ports and their hosting cities (Norcliffe et al., 1996). Nevertheless, Kostof et al. (1999) pointed that this synergy did not mirror in the physical arrangement of the port city while, prior to the industrial revolution, the waterfront was easy and informally accessed from the surrounding areas. This relation did not last for long; the second half of the twentieth century attested the separation of the port and urban function. The Industrial Revolution meant almost the whole domination of the waterfront for industrial and port activities (Marshall, 2001). Throughout this period, large crane have been constructed in order to load and unload ships, the size of vessels themselves have enlarged after the invention of the steam and the internal combustion engines; this required larger docks, quays and shipyards and subsequently larger handling machines (Al-Ansari, 2009). This had resulted also in limiting the access for the water from the adjacent urban areas. Hoyle (2002, p. 141) stated that “port was separated from city due to the increasing scale and changing technology of maritime transport and the consequent transformation and relocation of port facilities”.

The decline of the waterfront

The separation of the port from the city was exacerbated by the technological development particularly railways and steamships. Kostof et al. (1999) indicates that new transportation systems had ensured the decline of port, the railroad cruelly disconnected cities from their waterfront, and ended the informal, easy access of the city inhabitant to this improvised theatre of coming and going.

Al-Ansari (2009) argued that what generally distinguished this period is the significant increase of ports scale. The scale, coupled with new means of transportation, such as highways and before that the railways, completely alienated the waterfront from the rest of the city. The development of railway system has weakened the traditionally strong functional ties between ports and port-cities, however, it also has strengthened the links between the ports and hinterlands, resulting in increasing the role of ports on the national level, and making it more clear that the seaport is national and international transport facility (Hoyle and Charlier, 1995). Latip (2011) argued that the railway system increased the integration between water and land network in the late nineteenth and early twentieth century, which benefited those ports that had undeveloped land within their territories to accommodate the construction of the railway line. Consequently, this had reduced the role of the river or the canal for the cities that relied on the river or canal system as a major mean of transportation, besides also reducing the importance of those ports that did not have the space to accommodate the railway system. A key outcome of the development of the railways, that it has brought the heavy industries to the water resulted in blocking the waterfront from the city and preventing other development by “acquiring waterfront rights and holding them so that others could not use them” (Keating et al., 2005, p. 138).

The decline of the waterfront was also affected by the evolution of maritime technology. The development of maritime technology (including the widespread development of bulk terminals, container ports and roll-on/roll-off methods of cargo handling) has loosened the old strong functional relation between ports and port-cities (Hoyle and Charlier, 1995). Those developments in maritime technologies and transport required ever larger ships and more extensive lands and deeper water areas to assume and discharge the port function. According to Hoyle (2000, p. 396) “through this estrangement, threatening divorce, ships and cities have grown dissociated, semidetached and they have lost a once relished intimacy, the port function is forced toward a deeper water and more expansive land sites”. Additionally, the deterioration of fishing industry contributed significantly in weakening city-port relationship by consolidating the business in fewer larger ports and left smaller harbour with little economic activities and

large amount of disused former industrial land (WCP, 2007). By the mid of twentieth century, the waterfront existed within the city as underutilized parcels, isolated from the social, physical, and economic activities of the rest of the city, accordingly, cities have turned back to their waterfronts (Marshall, 2001) (Figure 2.2).

Strikingly, although the Industrial Revolution was blamed for the constraining the city access to the water and mechanizing the waterscape (Kostof et al., 1999), in actual fact, during that period the majority of canal system in Europe and America were established, adding thousands of miles of canal-side space to the urban and countryside areas. According to Al-Ansari (2009) as the Industrial Revolution is attributed for its negative impacts of the waterfront, on the other hand, it was also the reason for producing many new distinctive ones.

In general, Hoyle (1989) has summarized the driving forces for the retreat from the waterfront in four factors: technological; the evolution of maritime technology, spatial; the scale of modern ports and ports related industries with their vast land and water space requirement, socio-economic; the decline of port related employment within port cities, and environmental; environmental perspectives on port industrial and urban activities.



Figure 2. 2 a redundant dock in Liverpool waterfront **Source** the author (2013)

2.4.3 The Evolution of Urban Waterfront Regeneration

The increasing necessity for land in urban areas, has led many waterfront cities to look back to what was abandoned industrial polluted waterfronts, earmarking them for renewal. Hoyle (1989, p. 431) stated “as the port function has migrated away from the city in this way, there

has emerged a problematic vacuum at the city's heart land and water areas, warehouses and transport facilities, formerly essential to the port and its city, have become redundant and derelict". The retreat of the port to a larger site somewhere else has created a problem of what to do with vacated spaces, close to urban core. This problem has loomed large and has become a difficult one to resolve. Marshall (2001) highlighted that the significance of the contemporary urban waterfront derives from the high visibility of this form of development, the high profile of their locations also leads to magnify number of intersecting urban forces. The declined of the traditional waterfront by the mid twentieth century has introduced major problems, challenges and opportunities for urban regeneration.

The availability of waterside locations have opened the competition for redevelopment in some of the most advantageous locations, both in land based interests (residential complexes, commercial shopping centres) in addition to maritime concerns (marinas facilities, recreation water-based facilities) (Hoyle, 1988). The term waterfront revitalization was coined in North America in the 1960s, namely in Baltimore, Toronto and San Francisco, and spread to European port cities such as London, and to Australia in Sydney and Melbourne, then to Japan (Hoyle, 2000). Baltimore has set itself as a model that can be followed, in 1945 the city lost 30% of population and suffered from all of the urban crises in the twentieth century, nevertheless, Millsbaugh (2001) argued that Baltimore rekindled its spirit and through systematic, entrepreneurial and beautiful makeover of its older inner harbour has created a unique global image.

The uniqueness of Baltimore Inner Harbour Redevelopment is that it was created by one of the first generic public-private partnership of the post-industrial age of the US (Figure 2.3) (Breen and Rigby, 1994). The project started in 1960 and completed by 1995, more than a hundred large and small projects were constructed, ranging from recreational, museums, residential, business headquarters ...etc. in 1991, the International Waterfront Centre listed the project as one of the top ten waterfront projects in the world. Toronto and San Francisco have also experienced mega transformation projects in their waterfronts with some individuality in each context; both waterfronts have been transformed from underutilized resource to an area teeming with pedestrian and redevelopment activity (Cook et al., 2001). However, American waterfront regeneration has concerned with rehabilitation and redevelopment, comprising a wide range of development mixes including residential, recreational, commercial, shopping, services ...etc. Jones (1998) argues, this largely became the typical development model within the US and formed the 'export model' that was characterized many waterfront development projects in other parts of the world including Asia, Australia, Europe and the UK.

According to Jones (1998), the revitalization of many US waterfronts has often been linked with a number of factors include: the growing amount of leisure time available; the need to preserve historical and architectural heritage; the growing environmental and social concerns; and the US Federal Government support. The examples of American waterfront revitalization in Baltimore, San Francisco, and Toronto were considered as the first generation of the post-industrial waterfront revitalization (Shaw, 2001, Jones, 1998, Hoyle, 2000, Breen and Rigby, 1996).



Figure 2. 3 Baltimore Inner Harbour, **Source** http://www.baltimore.to/baltimore_panorama.html [Accessed 27th April 2012]

The second generation of the post-industrial waterfront regeneration was headed by development organizations that were established specifically for the purpose of developing waterfront areas, to build on, test and expand the measures that have pioneered in Baltimore (Shaw, 2001). Most of these organizations were belonging to the 1980s and they came to characterize that period. In UK, the LDDC (London Docklands Development Corporation) was set up by the UK Government in 1981 to develop the derelict East London Docklands. Simultaneously, BRA (Boston Redevelopment Authority) a multi-disciplinary body charged only with the task of regenerating the Charlestown Harbour zone of the city. In addition to other influential projects across the globe, such as, Darling Harbour in Sydney, Australia; and Victoria and Alfred waterfront in Cape Town, South Africa. Shaw (2001) indicated that although this generation of waterfront regeneration has spread around the globe, yet, it was in Europe the concept of a second generation was more evident. This brought about by the size required for regeneration in cities like London and Barcelona, which was sub-national in scale. In fact, this wave of regeneration helped to develop a new approach with the creation of public private partnerships and the extensive use of private investment.

In UK, the example of LDDC in London was unique, it was the largest redevelopment project in Western Europe, and was featured by market-led approach and has become the most significant and controversial urban experience during that period (Brownill, 1990). The redevelopment of the Docklands in London aimed to facilitate the role of private experience through shifting the

balance between central and local government, the erosion of local democracy and increasing the emphasize on policies (Brownill, 1990). The approach which used to regenerate London's Docklands have been criticised heavily by a number of experts. According to Jones (1998) the criticisms have been aimed at lack of public funding, problems of social segregation, ad hoc public funding, lack of local community participation, and less attention paid to the environmental issues (Figure 2.4).



Figure 2. 4\ London Docklands, the regeneration was the largest in Western Europe **Source**\ the author (2012)

The third wave of waterfront regeneration led by smaller cities and towns, such as, the Albert Dock in Liverpool, Cardiff Bay, and Berlin. Shaw (2001) pointed that this generation marked by the acceptance into mainstream of development practice all the aspects established by the previous two waves of waterfront regeneration. This wave characterized by the recognizing the value of old building and harbour heritage as a symbol of community memory. This feature is been reinforced by planning policy by encouraging the conservation of worthwhile buildings to suitable uses. The success of conservation-led regeneration of the waterfront has introduced a new era of historic preservation and a different approach characterized as adaptive reuse. O'Brien (1997) argues that preserving the historic assets creates a sustainable development and recognize the significance of character and diversity to identity and inclusion. Albert Dock in Liverpool, Cardiff Bay, Vancouver in Canada, and Shanghai in China are examples of cities that focus on retaining some element of their historical waterfronts. There are also some cities have started their regeneration after the 1990s during the world-wide economic recession, they

usually reconsider the resources they have, Amsterdam and Havana are the best example for such cities (Shaw, 2001).

The fourth generation of waterfront development is emerging and it has no clear character yet. Generally, Shaw (2001) said, what can be noticed that, globalisation is going to take an increasing role and the successful city is the one that is able to balance between cultural opportunity and quality of life.



Figure 2. 5 Cardiff Bay, the regeneration recognized the value of old buildings as symbol of community memory
Source <http://www.gezipartisi.com/wp-content/uploads/galler-gezilecek-yerler.jpg> [accessed 5th August 2014]

However, waterfront regeneration today is one of the major urban design and planning stories in the late twentieth century. Many waterfront cities of all sizes have started to understand the enormous potential of their waterfront and learn from others cities mistakes and experiences. Waterfront regeneration has become more complex than any time before. In the UK alone, there were almost 233 major waterfront development schemes in progress or planned in an initial survey carried out 1989, this shows the significant trend towards developing waterfront sides (Jones, 1998).

However, several international organizations have been established with the aim of encouraging and improving the scientific and cultural exchange between cities on the water around the world. Waterfront Community Project (WCP) is the first example of that. WCP is a project comprises nine cities across the North Sea; the idea is bringing together cities facing similar challenges for waterfront development so that they could share what they were learning with others (WCP, 2007).

In Washington DC, The Waterfront Centre (TWC) headed by Ann Breen and Dick Rigby, is educational organization, organize annual conferences for practitioner, planners, designers, architects and others. The Centre also has a several publications. The Centro Internazionale Citta d' Acqua (CICA) in Venice, is also an international organization concerned with documentation, information, study and research into the problems and experiences of urban settlements which have a close relationship with water. The Centre is led by Rinio Bruttomesso and Marta Moretti, the centre publishes quarterly journal Aquapolis. In Le Havre, France, Association Internationale Villes et Ports (AVIP) holds international conferences and arranges activities. The aim of the centre is to relink the urban and port-dominated elements within port cities.

Despite such international interest, the complexity of the issues of waterfront regeneration remains far from being thoroughly studied. The amount of research carried out studying waterfront regeneration projects is utterly imbalanced with the huge number of projects that are taking place. Furthermore, a significant number of these waterfront studies are focusing on fashionable regeneration trends such as partnership, flagship projects, conservation-led regeneration, culture-led regeneration rather than studying the whole context of regeneration. What is important and what seems the majority of studies are lacking, is that the focus of the bulk of the studies is on the final outcome of regeneration rather than the process in which the regeneration took place. It only with understanding the local and the global context and the process of regeneration lessons can be extracted and models of good practices can be identified. This study, however, aims to fill this gap by examining the process in which urban regeneration took place in Liverpool 'the research case study' and how did that transform the city waterfront. Such study will reveal a lot of the concealed aspects of the underlying issues of regeneration and scrutinize their significance.

Urban regeneration in Liverpool has also attracted the attention of a number of prominent academics such as the studies conducted by Chris Couch in 2003, Michael Short in 2007, and Mike Biddulph 2011 (see table 2.1). However, this study is unique in comparison with the previous work as it will only focus on the process of regenerating the waterfront since 1980 until now. This study, however, will add significantly to current body of literature existed about the regeneration of Liverpool.

The author	Date	Title of the Study	Overview of the study
Michael Parkinson	1988	Urban regeneration and development corporations: Liverpool style	This study reviews the role of development corporations in the process of Liverpool waterfront regeneration during the 1980s. This study is also one of the oldest studies about the

			efforts of regenerating the city.
Chris Couch	2003	City of Change and Challenge: Urban Planning and Regeneration in Liverpool	This is a comprehensive study that reviews all the planning policies in Liverpool since the early 1960s. The study considers the extent to which the pressure to create jobs has led to economic development aims consistently taking precedence over environmental and social concerns, and the degree to which regeneration has been dominated by centralised and top-down approaches without a strong strategic planning framework. The study also discusses why some policies and programmes have been more successful than others and what lessons can be learned.
Michael Short	2007	Assessing the impact of proposals for tall buildings on the built heritage: England's regional cities in the 21st century	The study focused on how the potential impacts of tall building proposals on the built heritage are regulated and assessed. It explores four case studies of tall buildings in England (Liverpool, Manchester, Birmingham and Newcastle-upon-Tyne) and the assessment processes involved during decision making.
Mike Biddulph	2011	Urban design, regeneration and the entrepreneurial city	This study explores the new forms of entrepreneurial governance and its impact on the regeneration efforts. The study examines the regeneration efforts in Liverpool and focuses on a number of large regeneration projects that were conducted during the last decade.

Table 2. 2 A summary of the key studies about the regeneration of Liverpool **Source** the author

2.5 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to shed light on the notions of urban transformation and regeneration and to provide a framework and backdrop. This chapter showed the dynamic nature of urban areas. It also addressed the complexities of regeneration as a comprehensive approach of interplay between different factors that influence and shape the urban environment. Additionally, it is important to understand that today's practice of urban regeneration is but a stepping stone in the evolution of urban areas. Roberts (2000) stresses

that regeneration is a continuous challenge whereas the approach embraced at a certain point in time resembles the result of a complex system of social, economic and political choices.

It is within the present complexities of urban transformation and regeneration that new spaces have opened up at the doorsteps of many cities, providing a new hope for future. Waterfront sites have transformed from disused industrial land or former port uses to spaces that aspire to recreate the image of a city, to recapture global investment, and to bring people back to deserted areas (Marshall, 2001). Nonetheless, despite the significant opportunities presented by urban waterfront regeneration, it is, on the other hand, brings enormous challenges to cities. These challenges need to be understood and addressed within their local and global context. The aim of the following chapter is to address some of the pertinent issues and instruments that influence and shape the recent practice of urban waterfront regeneration.

Chapter 3\ Issues and Instruments of Urban Regeneration; Establishing a Theoretical Framework

3.1 Introduction

“Our cities have changed faster than we have been able to adjust our thinking and because of this the contemporary crisis of public space is due to a lack of confidence in knowing what works today... our problem is one of adjusting our ideas of what is an appropriate urban form to be in line with the current reality of our culture and society. What is needed, is a re-calibration of our ideas to the currency of our time”

Marshall (2001, p. 3)

The process of urban regeneration can take place in different ways and forms. There are no certain formulas or modules that regeneration can follow as this process depends primarily on the context and the time that it relates to. However, this does not mean that urban regeneration process is unique to a particular context or approaches that attempted in the past have no relevance to the practice of current day (Sykes and Roberts, 2000). In fact, there are common issues, and instruments that influence that transformation and shape the practice of today’s urban regeneration which can be identified. The aim of this chapter is to introduce those key contemporary issues and instruments. It intends to provide a theoretical framework to guide the analysis and inform the discussion of the case study. Yin (2009) indicated that the importance of establishing a theoretical framework lies in their significance in defining the appropriate research design and data collection. The same theoretical framework also becomes the main vehicle for generalising the findings of the case study. This chapter is divided into three major sections: urban competitiveness, urban design, and cultural heritage. Each of these topics will be thoroughly discussed and their relevance to urban regeneration will be examined.

3.2 Urban Competitiveness

Urban competitiveness is a major issue that influences urban transformation in the recent time. During the last few decades, a large number of studies have been concerned with the relationship between urban competitiveness and urban growth (see, for example, Pryke, 1991, Kipfer, 2002, Harvey, 1989b, Gospodini, 2002, Beriatos and Gospodini, 2004). Lember et al. (2011) indicated that although the concept of urban competitiveness existed for centuries, it has only become significant in the past few decades. Marshall (2001) pointed to the significant role of urban competitiveness in shaping the cities of today, he stated that *“the city is becoming less the result of design and more the expression of economic and social forces. The size of contemporary urban agglomerations means that no single authority controls the form of the city. A mixture of bureaucracy and market forces defines the form of the city”* (Marshall, 2001, p. 3).

Despite the popularity of the concept of urban competitiveness, there is still no common understanding. Krugman (1996) argues that the debate on competitiveness is badly grounded and, therefore, pointless. However, several other scholars argued that the concept of competitiveness proved to be useful and resilient in practical policy making and analysis (Begg, 1999, Begg, 2002, Kipfer, 2002, Lember et al., 2011). The Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) has defined competitiveness as *“the degree to which a city can, under free and fair market conditions, produce goods and services which meet the test of international market, while simultaneously maintaining and expanding the real incomes of its people over the long term”* (Cited in Begg, 2002, p. 3).

From an urban perspective, the significant change which has occurred to the perception of cities during the last two decades grasped an increasing concern for the issue of urban competitiveness (Boddy and Parkinson, 2004). Urban areas are now viewed as economic assets rather than liabilities reflected in the huge investment in urban areas and the growing attraction of urban life, according to Tallon (2013) both of which are vital to urban competitiveness. Begg (1999) argued that as cities progressively engage in competition with one another at different levels, and the determinants of competitive advantage are coming under intense examination. In the past, competition between cities and urban areas were based on their territorial locations, however, today the significance of cities is reliant on their competitive advantages (Kantor, 1987). Lember et al. (2011) illustrated that urban competitiveness can be understood as a two dynamic trends, a city’s competitiveness increases when there is a growing number of economic activities, supplemented by growing productivity and strong spillovers (increasing diversity) along with growth in real income and social cohesion. In the following subsections the influences and the outcomes of urban competitiveness on urban areas will be further studied and explored.

3.2.1 Globalisation and Urban Competitiveness

Economic Globalisation is the key factor influencing urban competition. Understanding the impact of globalisation is essential in order to address the issues of urban regeneration (Tallon, 2013). Advances in telecommunication technologies led to the fragmentation of the production process, whether in services or in industry. Firms can choose more flexibly where to locate certain processes of production depending on what location best suit each stage. Consequently, Begg (1999) argues, cities at global level have to increase their competitive capacities in order to secure their future growth. Global economy appears to dislodge the borders between countries while the ability of individual countries to control their internal economy and form the way they interact with the external network have weakened consequently (Gospodini, 2002).

The changes in global economy have affected almost all cities in most of the countries to different degrees. Sassen (2001) explained that these changes have involved urban system as well as the organization of space within individual cities. Tallon (2013) indicated that with the new conditions of globalisation, cities seek to acquire more competitive advantages over their regional, national, European and global counterparts. Hall (2012) pointed out that the networks of intercity competition in which cities find themselves caught have significantly increased spatially and numerically, and individual cities are subject to less protective measures and structures than what was the case before. The European cities is a good example of that where the globalization of economy besides the process of integration within the European Union have had a profound impact on the function of the European urban system (Gospodini, 2002).

Grasland and Jensen-Butler (1997) argued that cities today in the global urban system are not positioned in strict hierarchy but, somehow, in a form of interwoven and overlapping according to their particular participation in certain sectors or activities (for instance, services, industry, tourism, etc...) along with the diameter of the influence (regional, national or global). In this context, upgrading city's competitive edge is a key factor in increasing the city status in the hierarchy of the national and global urban system (Cox, 1993, Beriatos and Gospodini, 2004).

Cities around the world compete with each other in order to attract international investments, business activities and tourists, while they are connected with each other and working as a unified networks of urban settlements (Bognár, 1997). Kantor (1987) argued that the significance of cities today is less dependent on its geographical location and more reliant on the excellence of its urban quality. In this environment, the main task of urban regulators is to create urban conditions that is adequately attractive to lure potential corporations, to attract investment and to improve and safeguard the city's economic prospects (Beriatos and

Gospodini, 2004). The new form of relationship between regulators, the development of cities, and global economics, has resulted in what Cox (1993) termed as New Urban Politics (NUP).

The introduction of New Urban Policy (NUP) as stated by Cox (1993) has extremely reversed the relation between urban growth, the quality of urban space and economic growth. Gospodini (2002, p. 60) stated that *"in the era of globalization, the relationship between urban economy and urban design, as established throughout the history of urban forms, seem to be being reversed. While for centuries the quality of the urban environment has been an outcome of economic growth of cities, nowadays the quality of urban space has become prerequisite for economic development of cities; urban design has undertaken an enhanced new role as a mean of economic development"*.

The needs of cities to compete for mobile capital have required cities to offer inducement to capital, as Boyle and Rogerson (2001) indicates that cities have to (1) *refashioning of city's economic attractiveness* (for example, tax abatement, property and transport facilities) or (2) *reimagining their city through manipulation of its physical and soft infrastructure* (for instance, cultural and leisure amenities). The first one is mostly related with city governance and urban politics while the latter is where urban design has played a significant role for all classes and groups of cities as a tool for generating urban growth economically and physically (Beriato and Gospodini, 2004).

3.2.2 Changes in Urban Governance

Many studies have been focusing on the area of urban governance, how it can address and handle economic liberation and competitiveness (see, for example, Sassen, 2008, Kantor, 1987, Harvey, 1989b, Cox, 1995, Begg, 1999). In this regard, the major concern as stated by Harvey (1989b) is that city governance needs to respond to market conditions where the volatility makes the long-term planning extremely difficult for cities to engage with. Harvey also indicates that *"this means either being highly adaptable and fast moving in response to market shifts, or masterminding the volatility"* (Harvey, 1989b, p. 287). The former position is to encourage the short-term gains through the phases of the market needs, while the latter is focussed on more long-term gains by manipulating the market tastes, needs and opinions and making them fit into proposed design scheme (Gospodini, 2002, Boyle and Rogerson, 2001).

Trying to employ Harvey's distinction between the short-term and long-term strategy, there are only few cities have the ability to master the volatility or manipulating the desire of the capital over the long-term (Castells, 1989). However, for the majority of cities, as indicated by Boyle and Rogerson (2001), the lack of a pivotal role in mastering the capital may result in having to adopt a more short-term and less ambitious vision. Boyle and Rogerson (2001) also pointed out that for these cities, the vision will be vague as the timescale involved in responding to capital is

so short and the necessity for flexibility so great that the very notion of a vision or a sense of direction is unacceptable. Instead, the direction of the growth might be structured around an ability to take short-term gains whenever and wherever they are obtainable. Henceforth, the trajectory of city of such type is formed more by the imprint of each opportunity rather than coherent scheme (Boyle and Rogerson, 2001).

The logic of urban competitiveness has shifted the urban governance from traditional managerial forms of providing collective services, to more entrepreneurial approach in order to be more effective, which has required cities to be more active in marketing themselves and in trying to identify and reinforce their assets (Begg, 1999). Madanipour (2006) argues that in liberalized economies, where city governances have limited their activities to regulation and support and withdraw themselves from extensive intervention in the economy, however, this has resulted in fragmentation of authority, whereby many more actors are involved in shaping the political economy of urban region. Although this has generate some flexibility for the market, however, on the other hand, it has produced the need for management that can enable an effective operation of the market and guarantee a higher urban quality (Madanipour, 2006).

Central to new forms of entrepreneurial governance is the conceptualisation of cities as commodities (Beriatos and Gospodini, 2004). Boyle and Rogerson (2001) argued that the metaphor of '*commodification*' is used to conceptualized cities as any other good in the market. They continued, "*places as represented as existing in an open competition with one another to lure private investment, they must act in subservient ways to consumers, and deploy their resources to make them more competitive in the open market. Place marketing itself is the embodiment of new right thinking. Mobile thinking and tourists are highly flexible consumers, places are the products, local institutions and organizations are the manufacturers, marketers and retailers*" (Boyle and Rogerson, 2001, p. 410). Notwithstanding that the current notion of understanding the city as a commodity in a highly competitive market place is widespread, Sklair (2010) has condemned it as it only serves the agenda of transnational capitalist class in their playing between one city and another. Sklair (2005) argues that cities as a commodity is a manifestation of the culture-ideology of consumerism and cities need to meet their needs without simply pandering to this notion.

3.2.3 Place Marketing and Branding and the image of the city

The practice of marketing or selling cities has long been established despite the new academic enquiry (Peel and Lloyd, 2008, Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2005, Kavaratzis, 2004, Skinner, 2008). Buncle (2006) indicated that the importance of place marketing and branding stems from the necessary shift in the way places have represented themselves with a more market

oriented approach caused by the growing dominance of service economy and the decline of traditional industries. Similarly, Skinner (2008) pointed out that Place marketing and branding has been claimed to be the most developed within the tourism marketing literature, yet, during 1990s, as places became more competitive the term 'place branding and marketing' has been emerged and gained popularity to attract not only tourists but investment and industry.

Several academics endorsed place branding as tool of cities management. Anholt (2005) stated that branding is the future of how places could be run. Peel and Lloyd (2008) pointed that place branding has included creating a particular image of a city through the promotional of urban environment. They also argued that the term of place branding holds clear implications for the governance and planning of the cities and the targeting groups of those city places. It raises many questions concerning the process of image selection and communication, the tools by which a new city image could be devised, and how the collective city image can be identified, shared and spread (Peel and Lloyd, 2008).

The concept of place branding has developed in the recent years as powerful instrument in creating and shaping the place image and identity (Kavaratzis, 2005). Skinner (2008, p. 923) explained that the term 'place branding' is better clarified as *"linking to a place's promotional activities, contextualized in the domain of marketing communications, marking the place with a distinct identity in the minds of various target groups targeted by the incorporated place, from an inside-out approach, assuring the place's multiple stakeholders, in partnership, manage and communicate the place's brand identity to the wider world as they wish to be presented"*.

Trueman et al. (2007) emphasized that place branding plays a significant role in changing the perception of place in relation to urban regeneration, the negative perception can undermine regeneration and destroy the local community's confidence, leading to notion of a lost city with no clear identity or brand. The concept of place branding is widely associated with transforming the negative image of the cities. overcoming the perceived negative image of a city is vital for successful regeneration and enhancing the economic growth (Peel and Lloyd, 2008). Trueman et al. (2007) has argued that a negative perception of a city would weaken its image and have far-reaching consequences for its future prosperity.

However, it is clear that the poor city image would possibly adverse the economic development and inward investment repercussions, and would also impact the way in which a local communities perceived itself (Skinner, 2008). Hence, Trueman et al. (2007) have asserted the importance of providing visual evidence in order to regain the public confidence in a city, so, as to attract potential investment and development.

There is confusion within academia between 'City marketing' and 'City branding'. To elucidate that, Kavaratzis (2005) indicated that city marketing is concerned with the construction,

communication and management of a city's image. While the term place branding (understood as a particular focus of marketing) asserts a distinctive identity of a city and steers the ways in which that city can be marketed. Kavaratzis (2004) pointed out that branding is held to offer the potential to secure the economic and the competitive advantage of cities, community development and cohesion, in addition to promoting a wider civil engagement and enhancing the identity of the place.

Nowadays, the concept and the practice of city branding has been widely used by European cities by importing the techniques of product branding to be used within place marketing, the aim from that is to pursuit of wider urban management goals especially within the new environment of the European integration (Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2005). However, many of the studies have raised that theories of product branding cannot be easily applied from the corporate sector to public realms associated with the management of cities, regions and nations (Peel and Lloyd, 2008). Thus, Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005, p. 510) indicated to some of the difficulties "place branding, like place marketing in general is impossible, because places are not products, governments are not producers, and users are not consumers". In general, a sensitive and non-formulaic application of place branding tools create good chances for obtaining positive intervention (Kavaratzis, 2004).

City image plays a vital role in city marketing and branding. Kavaratzis (2004) indicates that the crucial aspect of city marketing and governance is the point of interaction which is the perception of the city, as shaped by each individual that comes to encounter with the city. Kampshulte (1999) has stated that the image of the city is the link between the real physical space and its perception. Extending this, Patteeuw (2002) argues that the image is not originated only from the city physical components, it is also based on well-worn prejudices, desires and memories that take form in the collective memory, he stressed that it is not the city should be planned, it is rather the image. Here, Kavaratzis (2004) pointed that it is so, the image of the city is the object of the city marketing and branding activities. Hubbard and Hall (1998, p. 8) identified that 'the manipulation of the city image, culture and experience has become the probably the most important part of the political armoury of urban governors and their coalition partners in the entrepreneurial era'.

Numbers of scholars have confirmed the role of branding in city marketing. Kavaratzis (2004) indicated that the role of branding is that it brings marketing theory and practice to closer to the nature and the characteristics of places; the city's brand helps to establish common grounds for identifying and uniting wide ranges of images intended for the city and meanings attributed to the city in one marketing message. Hankinson (2001) showed on his research findings on small

municipalities in Britain that branding as a concept was seen as relevant, but not always understood or applied in effective manner.

However, a question stands here have been raised by Kavaratzis (2004), is in what ways the city could be branded? In order to answer this question it is important to understand what is meant by brand, Hankinson and Cowking (1993, p. 10) definition for brand as “a product or service made distinctive by its positioning relative to competition and by its personality, with comprises a unique combination of functional attributes and symbolic value”. The same authors continued arguing that it is crucial to establish a link between brand and consumer in order to have a successful branding, this relationship can be formed around the consumer’s own physical and psychological needs and the brand’s functional attributes and symbolic values.

The definition of branding and brand illustrates the relation between the goals of branding to the goals of city marketing and managing the city’s image (Kavaratzis, 2004). Kotler et al. (1999) pointed out that branding establishes a perfect basis for city marketing and rigorous framework that enables the city’s image to be managed.

Ashworth (2002) recognised that the identity and local character of the city is the most significant quality that the cities hold, he warns that with excessive marketing strategies, cities might end up with ‘sameness’ or ‘monotony’, therefore, city branding can be used as a tool to reverse this tendency through focusing on the distinctiveness attributes of individual cities. Worthington (2011, p. 78) pointed that *“brands can both a source of differentiation and identification, as cities become increasingly homogenised through the process of globalization, what makes them special is the continuity of local tradition, the character of architecture, the values reflected through local governance and diversity of community stimulated by breaking down of transnational boundaries”*. However, Skinner (2008, p. 916) observed that “due to the complex relationship between culture, national identity and the many stakeholders involved in managing the place brand, places do not have single identities that can be branded as clearly as the products or service brands. Places may have different attractions and different meanings to various target markets and various groups of stakeholders”.

There are three main techniques currently been used by the cities to brand themselves, according to Kavaratzis and Ashworth (2005, p. 513); there are personality branding (or ‘The Gaudi gambit’ after the success of Barcelona application) where places associate themselves with a named individual from history, literature, the arts ... etc. the second is flagship construction (or ‘The Pompidou ploy’ after the grand project on Paris Beaubourg), this could include flagship buildings, signature urban design and signature districts. Lastly, events branding where places organise events whether cultural or sporting, in order to obtain a wider recognition and establish a specific brand associations (Ashworth, 2009a).

In general, place branding and marketing can be understood as a useful mean as stated by Kavaratzis (2004) for both achieving competitive advantage with the aim of attracting investment and tourism, and also attaining community development and stability, and reinforcing local identity. However, place branding should be primarily about people, purpose and reputation and not about profits (Anholt, 2005). It also must be acknowledged that engaging in excessive marketing and branding can be perilous as argued Anholt (2005) that excessive marketing can only make a bad product fail faster.

3.3 Urban Design

3.3.1 The Rise of Urban Design

The field of urban design is commonly understood to have its birth during the 1950s, driven by the wide ranging concerns regarding the degrading environmental qualities, both environmental and urban, and the emergence of number of theories that that pointed towards more environmentally conscious and humanistic approach to city-building than functionalist approach embraced by modernism (Larice and Macdonald, 2013). Hence, urban design is a tool to make places much more pleasant and enjoyable for people. Carmona et al. (2011, p. 3) defined urban design as “*the process of making better places for people than would otherwise be produced*”. They indicated that urban design emphasises on four elements. First, urban design is about people. Second, urban design stresses on the value and significance of ‘place’. Third, urban design operates in the real world and influenced by the context, economic and political. Fourth, it asserts the importance of design as a process (Carmona et al., 2011, p. 3).

There have been many attempts by different scholars to identify the desirable qualities of successful urban places. Lynch (1981) identified five elements that make a good city:

- *Vitality*, the extent to which the form of places supports the functions.
- *Sense*, the clarity with which it can be perceived and identified and the ease with which its elements can be structured in time and space by inhabitants.
- *Fit*, refers to the degree of matching of spatial and temporal pattern with the customary behaviour of its users.
- *Access*, the ability to reach other people, areas, resources, services, or activities.
- *Control*, the extent to which those who use the space can create and manage access to spaces and activities.

Another attempt was conducted by Jacobs and Appleyard (1987) who suggested seven elements that they believed they are essential for a good future of urban environment. The seven goals are: liveability, identity and control, access to opportunities, authenticity and meaning,

community and public life, urban self-reliance, and an environment for all. In order to achieve these goals, five physical characteristics of good urban environment were defined: liveable streets and neighbourhoods; minimum densities for residential development and intensity of land use; integration of activities; definition of public spaces in the built environment; many distinctive buildings with complex arrangement and relationships. Similarly, Montgomery (1998) identified number of principles to achieve a good urban place, categorised in three major themes: form, activity and image (see Figure 3. 1).

Nowadays, urban design has taking an increasing role in the urban transformation of many cities around the globe (Carmona et al., 2011, Gospodini, 2002, Gospodini, 2004, Biddulph, 2011, Carmona, 1996, Punter, 2009, UTF, 1999, Lang, 2005). Besides its inherent feature of making better places for people, it also gains large popularity as tool to enhance the city competitiveness and brand its urban unique qualities. Urban design today is an important tool of mediating between the different interests of stakeholders (Madanipour, 2006). There are other reasons indicated by Lang (2005) attributed for the significant shift to employ urban design agenda. The first is that the significance of urban design's spheres of interest in providing opportunities for the development and determining the quality of life of people. The second is the realisation by architects and urban planners that it was impetuous to distance themselves, intellectually and professionally, from urban design activities however demanding they may be. Lang (2005) argued that luckily, a small group of architects scattered around the world learnt from the criticism and took the emerging field of urban design forward to the point that it has been discussed as a potential discipline in its own right.

In the UK, urban design has gained its popularity by the end of 1990s with the emergence of what is called the 'Third Way policy' (Giddens, 2013) and the urban renaissance agenda (see chapter 6). A huge emphasis was placed on the matters of design excellence. UTF (1999) advocates for a stronger commitment to quality and creativity in the way in which we design buildings, public spaces, and transport networks. UTF (1999, p.39) also indicated that "the poor quality of urban environment has contributed to the exodus from British cities and towns. To redress this balance, we must re-establish the quality of urban design and architecture as part of our everyday urban culture, as it is in Netherlands, Spain, and the towns and cities of many of our other European neighbours". The UTF report identified the need to achieve design excellence, embrace innovation and also protect and preserve the best of historic fabric. It also argued that future of development must be based on their historic character.

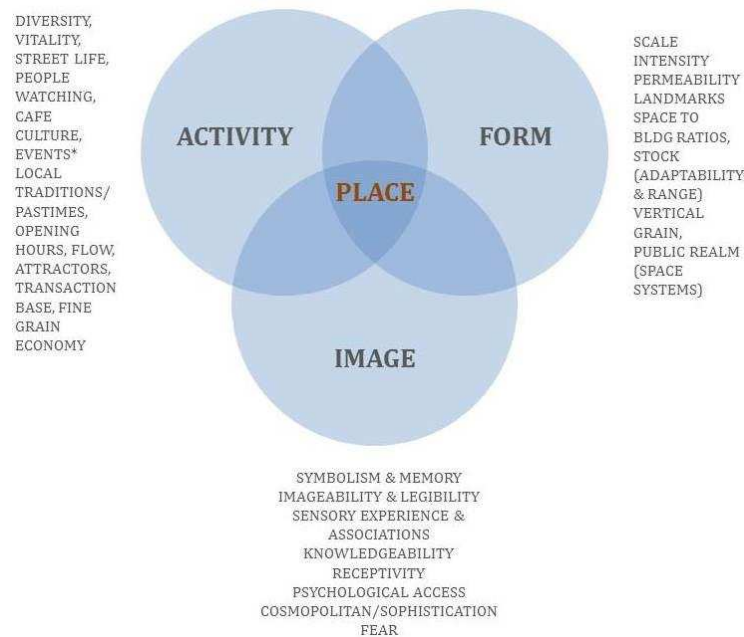


Figure 3. 1 The elements of making good places **Source** (Montgomery, 1998, p. 98)

3.3.2 Place Identity and Placelessness

Central to urban design is the issue of place identity which has become a major concern for a number of academics and critics particularly with rising significance of economic globalisation leads to homogenisation of places and monotony of cities (see, for example, Moughtin, 2003, Lynch, 1972, Jacobs and Appleyard, 1987, Dovey, 2009, Carmona et al., 2010, Relph, 1976). Paraphrasing Relph (1976), he said that there are two reasons for attempting to study the concept of place. First, it is very important in its own right as it is the fundamental expression of man's involvement in the world; and second, improving the knowledge of the nature of place can help to the maintenance and manipulation of existing places and the creation of new places (Relph, 1976). Similarly, Heidegger and Stambaugh (1969, p. 26) have stressed the importance of the identity of place saying "everywhere, wherever and however we are related to beings of every kind, identity makes its claim upon us". Hence, Relph (1976, p.49) explains saying that "we recognise the identities of people, plants, places and even nations". He indicates that the identity of something refers to "*a persistent sameness and unity which allows that thing to be differentiated from others*". Relph (1976) also argues that the identity is not static and unchangeable, but varies with the change of attitude and situations; and it is not uniform and undifferentiated, but it has several components and forms.

With regards to place identity, in his influential book 'The Image of the City', Kevin Lynch (1960) defined place identity as the physical elements that provide a place with its individuality or distinctiveness from other places and serve as the basis for its recognition as a separable entity.

Nairn (1965, p. 78) extended this definition by recognising that “there are many identities of place as there people”, for identity is the experience of the eye, mind, and intention of the beholder as much in the physical appearance of the city or landscape. However, Relph (1976) argued, despite every individual may build self-consciously or unself-consciously a particular identity to a certain place, these identities are nonetheless combined intersubjectively to shape a common identity. He stated “*certainly it is the manner in which these qualities and objects are manifest in our experience of places that governs our impressions of the uniqueness, strength, and genuineness of the identity of those places*” (Relph, 1976, p. 49). He further illustrates “*identity is, in short, neither an easily reducible, nor a separable quality of places, it is neither constant and absolute, nor is it constantly changing and variable. The identity of place takes many forms, but it is always the very basis of our experience of this place as opposed to any other*” (Relph, 1976, p. 62).

Nowadays, the issue of place identity has become of a global concern. The liberation of the international economy has increased the intercity competition significantly, cities are competing with one another to upgrade their international status, they are marketing themselves to identify and reinforce their assets (Begg, 1999). In general, while improving the competitiveness of cities is the way to economic flourishing, it has resulted in homogenised places, dislodging local identities and blurring the individuality of place (Madanipour, 2006). Castells (1989) indicated that the economic globalisation and European integration have resulted in what is so called ‘identity crises’. Beriatos and Gospodini (2004) argued that in the context of moving towards supra-nationality within the European Union, however, this has resulted in blurring national identities and place identity has become an issue with significant importance for all societies. Nevertheless, as there are many academics condemning the economic globalisation in blurring the individuality of places, many others pointed to the role played by economic globalisation in enhancing the identity of place with the aim of promoting the place, attracting investment and increasing the market share (Dredge and Jenkins, 2003).

The issue of place identity has manifested on urban areas as a tension between the built heritage and the innovative design of place. Bruttomesso (2001) indicated that in regeneration projects, place identity can be improved physically through the reuse of built heritage and the innovative design of space and linking that with cultural consumed activities to enrich the meaning and creating sense of place. Similarly, Beriatos and Gospodini (2004, p.191) argued that “combining built heritage and innovative design of space and promoting them as two central themes in urban landscape transformations generate for the 21st century city a new species of landscape-collage dominated by two extremities: (a) that tradition with rather local spatial references and (2) that of innovation having more universal or global spatial references.

In this respect the new urban landscape emerging under the forces of economic globalization may be termed 'glocalised'. Nonetheless, Al-Ansari (2009) pointed out that the identity of place is very challenging either for the hosting city or for the developers, on the one hand, to attain uniqueness and avoid 'Disneyfication'; on the other hand, to preserve, renew or establish an identity while remaining loyal to the local physical and social heritage (see section 3.4).

A key to analyse place identity is the idea of 'placelessness' which was coined by Relph (1976). He describes the placelessness as simply the lack of sense of place resulting from inauthentic attitude towards places. This inauthentic attitude is transmitted through a number of processes, or more accurately 'media', which directly or indirectly encourage placelessness, that is, according to Relph (1976, p. 90), "*a weakening of the identity of places to the point that they not only look alike but feel alike and offer the same bland possibilities for experience*". These media comprise mass communication, mass culture, big businesses and transnational companies, powerful central authority, and the economic system which embrace all these (Relph, 1976). With regards to mass communication, Relph (1976) argued that the transportation systems 'roads, railways, airports' which are imposed on the landscape rather than developing with it, are not just signs of placelessness in their own right, but by making possible the mass movement of people with all their fashions and habits, have encourage the spread of placelessness well beyond their immediate impact. He indicated that "*mass communication appears to result in a growing uniformity of landscape and lessening the diversity of places by encouraging and transmitting general and standardised tastes and fashions*" (Relph, 1976, p. 92).

Another significant media of placelessness is the mass culture which is a result of globalisation and the process of mass production, marketing and consumption. The outcome of mass culture is a more homogenised places and standardised cultures (Carmona et al., 2011). Crang (2013) pointed out that much worrying is that the local 'authentic' forms of culture- local distinctiveness- are replaced with mass-produced commercial forms imposed on the locality. Paradoxically, mass culture also stimulated the emergence of '*invented places*' or '*other-directed places*'. Other-directed places is a response to the standardisation of place that involves a deliberate manufacturing of difference in order to attract attention, visitors and in the end money (Carmona et al., 2011).

Tourism is the main driver of the '*other-directed places*'. Tourism is seen as homogenising force which leads to the destruction of local and regional landscape that very often initiated the tourism, and replace that with conventional tourist architecture and synthetic landscapes and pseudo-places (Relph, 1976). Jackson (1970) said that the landscapes of tourism are characterized by what he has termed 'other-directed architecture', where is architecture is deliberately directed towards outsiders, spectators, passers-by, and above all consumers. The

outcome of such architecture, according to Relph (1976), is the creation of other directed places which offer nearly nothing to the people living and working in them, but declare themselves plainly to be 'Vacationland' or 'Consumerland' through the use of exotic decoration, gaudy colours, and grotesque adornments. Relph (1976) identified three types 'other-directed places':

Disneyfication. Or amusement parks which can be seen as the extreme of other-directed places. Relph (1976, p. 95) illustrates that "*the products of disneyfication are absurd, synthetic places made up of a surrealistic combination of history, myth, reality and fantasy that have little relationship with particular geographical setting*".

Museumisation. A particular kind of disneyfication that is concerned with preservation, reconstruction and idealisation of the past.

Futurisation. Akin to museumisation, but instead looking to the future rather than the history, and more earnest and deliberate than disneyfication. The best example for this is the international exhibitions. Relph (1976) indicated that such exhibitions are expression of faith in progress, technological utopias where all countries are united in a setting that combines the greatest utilitarian and most imaginative design.

Despite the huge criticism of 'other-directed places' or 'invented places' (Harvey, 1989a), others have argue that they provide opportunities for urban design and the creation of places for people (Carmona et al., 2011). However, the concept raised number of issues in urban design which have been summarised by Carmona et al. (2011) as superficiality, other-directedness, and lacking authenticity.

The third media of placelessness as indicated by Relph (1976) is big business. He pointed out that the previous manifestations of the other-directed places are usually consequences of the activities of big businesses. Relph (1976, p. 109) argued "*in creating products for profit it seems that places merit little concern, whether in the production, management, or retailing of those products, or in their use in the landscape*". Historically, most industries and business were local with small concerns, fitting into their particular setting, and made of local materials and in the scale with their environment. However, the industrial revolution carried with it standardisation and gigantism, both are tools of destruction of places (Relph, 1976). The last media is central authorities which are central in transmitting placelessness through encouraging uniformity of places in the interests of efficiency and through the exercise of a uniform power (Relph, 1976).

In short, understanding the issue of place and placelessness is significant to not allow the forces of placelessness to continue unchallenged. Places matter and key in evaluating the transformation of urban landscape. However, the difficulty lays in that there is no common consensus of what is defines the uniqueness of a place and what leads to placelessness. This, in

reality, can have a significant impact on the process of regeneration as it can be rather controversial.

3.3.3 Urban Architecture

The issue of how a particular building adds to its context is a major concern in urban design. Lang (2005) pointed out that one might think that the least obligation of a building is to contribute to its context by make it more interesting and commodious, and the problem with this is that this obligation usually contradicts the architects desires to create a self-expression in built form. The majority of the architects like their buildings to stand out and not to be meld in with those around it, also to be seen as foreground not as a background. A good place is not only determined by its spatial qualities, but also by the quality of its architecture. There are two types of architecture in urban spaces; traditional where the space is defined by buildings; and modern where the buildings are freestanding in space 'freestanding architecture' (Carmona et al., 2011).

Several attempts were carried out by number of critics and organisations to understand what makes a good building that can positively enhances the visual-aesthetic character of a place. The Royal Fine Art Commission (RFAC) identified six criteria. These are: order and unity, expression, integrity, plan and section, detail and integration. These criteria is best understood as a tools of structuring and informing the design of urban architecture rather than a set of rules which could lead to mediocrity and uniformity (Cantacuzino et al., 1994). The most important and most debatable amongst these principles is the integration which involves the harmonisation of a new building within its surroundings. Carmona et al. (2011) pointed to the incident during the 1988 when the Prince of Wales famously described the proposal for extending the National Gallery as a 'monstrous carbuncle'. Emphasising on the principle that 'places matter most', Tibbalds (2012, p. 16) argued that "*new buildings and developments should be subservient to the character of the place as a whole, if every building screams for attention, the result is likely to be discordant chaos. A few buildings can, quite legitimately, be soloists, but the majority need simply to be sound, reliable members of the chorus*".

Integration or contextualisation is not simply adhering to an architectural style. Carmona et al. (2011) argued, the stylistic dimension is only one aspect and too much emphasis on this element will restrict innovation and creativity, and visual elements such as scale and rhythm are more significant. In general, there are three major approaches for integration and contextualisation were identified by Carmona et al. (2011). Each represents a different design philosophy. At one end, stylistic *uniformity* that replicates the local architecture character, in the process, a possible dilution for the qualities desired to be retained. At the other end,

juxtaposition or *contrast* involves new designs, that strikingly different from the architectural surrounding character. This approach can result in a vibrant and a successful contrast or could fail disastrously. Between these two ends lies the approach of *continuity*, involving reinterpretation, rather than simply imitation, of surrounding architectural character. The last approach is followed by most of postmodern designs that in order to reflect and develop the existing sense of place (Carmona et al., 2011). However, whether or not a new building is harmoniously integrated within its context, this is ultimately a matter of personal judgement (Warren et al., 1998).

Iconic Architecture

A particular focus of urban design debate is concerned about the idea of iconicity and iconic architecture. Iconicity can take a variety of shapes as a building or space, or even architect on the ground of their uniqueness and difference. Sklair (2006) argued that this form of iconic architecture is now corporate to extent that is historically unprecedented. In the past the majority of iconic architecture was driven by the state or/and religion, whereas today, in the time of the capitalist globalisation, it is largely driven by transnational capitalist class (Sklair, 2005). Therefore, Sklair (2006) argues, iconic architecture cannot be accounted for only with reference to explanation that focus on the symbolic or aesthetic qualities. Rather, Sklair stated “how the agents and institutions of the transnational capitalist class have increasingly come to define the times, place and audiences that makes buildings, spaces, and architecture iconic” (Sklair, 2006, p. 21).

One of the most popular iconic buildings in the recent time is the Gehry’s Bilbao Guggenheim Museum. The success of the museum in reimagining Bilbao and raising its profile as an international city have inspired many cities to take similar steps in ‘reimagining’ and ‘rebranding’ themselves. The danger of such approaches is that the local governments seek to attract huge investment to fund such costly projects, however, global capitalists with often lack of attachment to the local place brings their own agenda and standards which usually resulted in standardised developments (Al-Ansari, 2009). Sklair (2010) describes iconic architecture as a hegemonic manifestation of the transnational capitalist class that strives to turn more or less all public spaces into consumerist space. Adam (2011) believes that as the cities compete to attract the global capital and tourism, they seek “brand differentiation” and symbolic modernity, today an established marketing technique is the commissioning of the public building by star architects, the demand for these high profile architects is so great, that their work is almost by necessity strongly conceptual and cannot depend on a detailed study of fine grain or culture of locality. Hence, as the aim to create a unique iconic global product, local distinctiveness is often undesirable (Adam, 2011).

On the other hands, Hannigan (1998) believes that iconic architecture helps to produce marketable image; through these projects tourists and local people could be oriented in the city's consumption spaces. Gospodini (2004) in her research of studying the impact of spatial morphology and the sense of place identity by both inhabitants and visitors in Bilbao, Spain and Thessaloniki, Greece showed that built heritage tends to become weaker as a place identity generator in contemporary multi-cultural and multi-ethnic societies, while iconicity or what she termed 'innovative design of space' is usually an effective new means of enhancing place identity. Moreover, Beriatos and Gospodini (2004, p. 191) stated that "innovative design of space appears to work in multi-cultural and multi-ethnic societies in similar way that built heritage did or does mainly in modern – rather culturally bounded and nation state oriented societies: innovative design of space exhibit a great potential for (a) creating a distinct or/ and unique urban landscape, (b) synchronizing all different social/ cultural/economic groups in space by offering them a common new terrain for experience and familiarising with new forms of space and (c) promoting tourism and economic development and thereby generating a new social solidarities among inhabitants grounded in economic prospects".

In general, the relationship between urban design and iconic architecture is very contentious. Sklair (2005) holds a very extreme view by arguing that urban design is by no means coterminous with iconic architecture and indeed they are deadly enemies. Nonetheless, Carmona et al. (2011) take a more moderate position, highlighting that iconic architecture can produce unique places, yet, it is important to avoid overstating the importance of iconic architecture and architectural considerations in creating successful urban places, the focus is rather should be placed on the wider consideration for the whole context in which iconic architecture are located.

3.3.4 The Management of Change

The issue of management of change is very much concerned with interventions into existing places and the creation of new places which is by large considered as a long-term issue as it potentially have long last implications and effects (Carmona et al., 2011). Change is usually expected, anticipated and often welcomed, yet, what is often problematic is its pace and scale. Carmona et al. (2011) emphasised that people are very much associated with their own environment which they value and draw comfort with its stability, thus, the loss of familiar surroundings can be very disturbing, particularly when it comes in a short time and on a huge scale. The change in urban environment can take place in one of these two forms; large-scale growth and incremental growth. An example of the large-scale growth is the comprehensive development from the 1940s until mid-1970s, which was criticised for alienating many people from their communities and destructing vivid places and environments (Lynch, 1972). It also

blamed for resulting in creating a monotonous urban fabric that lacks diversity and character (Jacobs, 1961).

The incremental small scale growth is the way that older environments have developed. In this approach, according to Carmona et al. (2011) mistakes are small can be fixed relatively easy comparing with the large-scale development where a huge effort must be made to reduce mistakes as they are more challenging to rectify. Carmona et al. (2011) pointed out that many of the successful developments in the 1990s were reactions to the well-documented mistakes of the 1960s. They stated “although the cycles of growth and decline still mark eras of investment and stagnation, the pace and change has quickened to such degree that much of what was built in the 1960s and 1970s has already been redeveloped” (Carmona et al., 2011, p. 206).

The value of incremental development was praised by many urban design critics. Lynch (1972) argued that changes in urban environment should be moderated and measured to stop a fierce disruption and conserve a maximum continuity of place. Tibbalds (2012) similarly noted that if contemporary developments occur on piecemeal approach that mixes new with old, then it is likely to be not just acceptable, but also exciting.

Alexander (1987) tried to systemise processes of urban development with an emphasis of incremental change in his book ‘A New Theory of Urban Design’. He argued that the quality of older environment cannot coexist with contemporary development and this required a process that creates ‘wholeness in urban environment’, and it cannot be solved by design alone, but only when the process by which the city gets its form is changed dramatically. Therefore, Alexander (1987, p. 3) stresses that *“it is the process above all which is responsible for wholeness ... not merely the form. If we create a suitable process there is some hope that the city might become whole once again. If we do not change the process, there is no hope at all”*.

However, although the incremental development was lauded by urban experts, the economic and political realities make large-scale development inescapable (Carmona et al., 2011). Dovey (1990) demonstrates that the urban economic now prefers large-scale development projects that result in massive one-off investments, jobs and political glory. The economic globalisation and the flexibility of capital investment by transnational corporations enable them to play cities off against each other. Thus, governments are forced into intercity competition to compete for projects on an ‘all-or-nothing’ basis, often overruling and undermining regulatory and design processes in order to attract the capital investment (Dovey, 1990).

Carmona et al. (2011) argue that there is sometimes need for large-scale developments with sufficient size and scale to change fundamentally the nature and economy of place in ways that could never occurred incrementally. Additionally, it can address issues of place making in coherent manner and to fund the provision of major new elements of the capital web, including

new urban spaces. Carmona et al. (2011) further specified on the need for agreed upon master plan or urban design framework which can provide a way of relating individual developments and decisions. They also argued that large-scale projects need to be developed in a way that allow them to develop further incrementally and to allow that to take place landownership need to be broken down instead of being consolidated in one single body (Moudon, 1987).

In general, what Alexander (1987) theory of incremental growth sought to achieved as summarised by Carmona et al. (2011) was an overall vision that aims to guide the development to common objectives, giving the confidence necessary to attract investment and ensuring that individual increments will result in a coherent whole.

3.4 Cultural Heritage

3.4.1 The Need for Cultural Heritage

Intervention into the physical fabric of a city permanently changes its history for all time. According to Carmona et al. (2011p. 196) all urban design actions are contributions both to “broader, open and evolving systems and to a greater whole”. Knox and Ozolins (2000) argue that a building or other elements of the built environment of a given period and type often inclines to carry the sense and the spirit of its time, hence, every city can be read as a multi-layered text ... the built environment becomes a biography of urban change.

Until the industrial revolution, change in urban environment was gradual, small and organic and the successive generations derived a sense of continuity and stability from their physical environment (Carmona et al., 2011). Since the industrial revolution, the pace and the scale of change have increased considerably and city growth has become mechanical and artificial. Modernists argued that societies needed large-scale social and economic organisation in order to harness the benefits of science, technology and rationalism (Carmona et al., 2011). Carmona et al. (2011) illustrates that one of the outcomes of the modernism was the emphasis on the differences from, rather than the continuities with the past. The past was seen as a hindrance to the future. Therefore, such a view led to the preference of comprehensive redevelopment rather than more incremental and sensitive approach. This was exemplified in the period of the reconstruction of the war damage in 1945 (see section 2.3.3). This approach continued until the mid-1960s when the social effects of this were becoming noticeable. At that time, there were frequent and increasingly widespread public protests which led to favour of conservation and retaining existing environment over redevelopment. Carmona et al. (2011) pointed out that policies of heritage conservation and preservation was introduced during the 1960s and early

1970s, and became a central part of planning and development, provoking a fundamental reassessment of ideas in architecture, planning and urban development.

Nowadays, the idea of cultural heritage has become an issue of global concerns. This is evident in the establishment of the UNESCO World Heritage Centre and the International Council on Monuments and Sites (ICOMOS). The term cultural heritage according to the UNESCO encompasses two major categories: tangible cultural heritage (buildings, monuments, landscape, historic areas) and intangible cultural heritage such as traditions, performing arts, and rituals. Cultural heritage is central in creating the sense of identity in urban environment and it is considered as resource that should be sustained for the benefit of the present and future generations (English Heritage, 2008).

This section is concerned with the tangible cultural heritage. Tiesdell et al. (1996) in their book 'Revitalising Historic Urban Quarters' identified three waves of historic conservation policies. The first was initiated to protect individual buildings, structures or other artefacts that of national or religious concern without concern for their particular context. The second wave historic conservation aimed to protect the setting of historic buildings broadened into area-based policies. The policies were concerned with clusters of historic buildings, townscape, and space in between buildings, and formed a reaction to the social, cultural and physical problems caused by the slum clearance and comprehensive redevelopment strategies, and the road building. Carmona et al. (2011) pointed out that instead of being preservation strategies that aim to stop or limit the change, the policies of this era were 'conservation' policies about the inevitability and the management of change. The third wave of policies was concerned with the revitalisation of the protected historic urban areas through understanding of conservation as a growth management tool, this was stemmed from a realisation that once historic buildings and areas were protected, they need to be in active and viable use. Tiesdell et al. (1996, p. 4) stated "*efforts have focused on attempts to generate the investment and local economic development able to provide the finance necessary to conserve and enhance the quarter*". The early preservation strategies were fundamentally concerned with the pastness of the past, the later conservation were about a future for the past (Tiesdell et al., 1996).

There are many common reasons and justifications for heritage conservation and they are often context specific. Tiesdell et al. (1996, p. 11-17) reviewed the more common justifications:

- *Aesthetic value*: the past might be appreciated and valued for their own sake. Old buildings and towns are valued because they are intrinsically beautiful or they old and have scarcity value.

- *Value for architectural diversity*: the historic appeal of an historic place may result from the combination or juxtaposition of many buildings rather than the individual merits of any particular building.
- *Value for environmental diversity*: architectural diversity contributes to an environmental diversity. Within many cities, there is often a stimulating contrast between the human scale environment of their historic areas and the monumental scale of their CBDs.
- *Value for functional diversity*: a diverse range of different types of space in buildings of varying ages enable different uses. Historic buildings and areas may offer lower rents that allow economically marginal but socially important activities to have a place in the city.
- *Resource value*: whether beautiful, historic or just plain practical, buildings may be better used rather than replaced. As rehabilitation is less expensive in terms of the obsolete energy usage, the reuse of buildings constitutes the conservation of scarce resources, a reduction of the consumption of the energy and material in construction, and good resource management.
- *Value for continuity of cultural memory and heritage*: historic areas and buildings can contribute educationally to the cultural identity and memory of a particular people or place, giving meaning to the present by interpreting the past.
- *Economic and commercial value*: historic environments provide a unique sense of place that offers opportunities for economic development and tourism.

Castells (1989) reasoned that the increasing emphasis on cultural heritage in many countries is a reaction to the weakening of national identity caused by globalisation and mass migration, which has transformed many cities into multi-ethnic and multi-cultural communities. Thus, cities have become increasingly oriented towards their own cultural and built heritage. Beriatos and Gospodini (2004) argued that preserving and enhancing cultural heritage could be an attempt to fix the meaning of places.

3.4.2 Conservation and Place Continuity

The evolution of heritage conservation is central to the modern practice of urban design. Carmona et al. (2011) said that many current urban design approaches aim to respond to the existing sense of place, emphasising on a '*continuity with*' rather than a '*breaking from*' the past. They also argue, "*In a world of rapid change, visible and tangible evidence of the past is valued for the sense of place and continuity it conveys. Particular value is placed on the sense of place and relative permanence of its character and identity. Despite constant change, because the elements of the city change at different rates, some essence of its identity is retained*" (Carmona et al., 2011,

p. 247). Rossi and Eisenman (1982) discussed the idea of 'collective memory', where historic urban form is regarded as the deepest structure of the city artefacts. They assert that the fabric of the city consists of two components: the general urban 'texture' of buildings shaping streets and squares, which change over time; and 'monuments', and large scale buildings whose presence gives each city its particular character and embodies the memory of the city.

There are, however, different attitudes towards physical continuity of place. On one end, modernists stress on the idea of 'impermanence' of buildings as they are just like cars, could be mass-produced and then they will be discarded when their utility is drained (MacCormac, 1983). Tiesdell et al. (1996) illustrate that modernist architects and planners argued that existing cities were ill equipped to accommodate the new modes of mechanical transport; providing more excuses for comprehensive physical transformation. Little attention was paid to work on small intervention on existing context. Carmona et al. (2011) argued that modernist attitude towards the physical continuity of place is antithetical both to architecture's traditional place-making and place-defining qualities, and to consideration of environmental sustainability.

On the other end, extreme preservation and conservation can hinder or even halt a city's development and progress. Cities cannot be encapsulated in the past or kept as a museum. They need to respond and adapt to the evolving needs of its inhabitants. Lynch (1972) argues that, the place that does not adapt is inviting to its own destruction. However, Tiesdell et al. (1996) pointed out that there is a realisation in many countries, particularly in the UK, that the conservationists reaction towards accepting the change has gone too far. They quoted Tarn describes that saying "*the development of a vigorous conservation lobby has not only led to articulate criticisms of previous policies but to policies of retrenchment that are stultifying. In a sense the wheel has come full circle and the vigour of renewal has been replaced by the abject reticence of an age no longer capable of believing in itself. There are obvious merits in a more sensitive appraisal of our inheritance, but there are many concerns about using this evaluation of our past heritage as a means of dictating all aspects of future well-being of towns and cities*" (Tarn, 1985, p. 249). Tiesdell et al. (1996) explain that the strict approach taken by conservationists is a resistance to the increase stress on the market forces, whereby the additional strictures of conservation policies are used to reinforce normal planning controls and reaffirming some local control over redevelopment, challenging the power held by initiators of development.

In general, the issue of physical continuity of place is not a matter of black and white. Instead, the change should be balanced between preservation and new insertion. Lynch (1972) encouraged exposing 'successive eras of history' and adding new objects that enriches the past by 'allusion and contrast', with the aim of producing "a setting more and more densely packed

with references to the stream of time rather than a setting that never changed". Carmona et al. (2011) said that such attitudes stress the need for new development to express its own zeitgeist.

3.4.1 The Regeneration of Historic Quarters

There is a huge debate in the literature of how to regenerate successfully historic quarters? Within a city, historic quarters are more likely to receive regeneration more than other less historic areas. The greater the authentic character and sense of place means more possibility there will be efforts to conserve and regenerate. Tiesdell et al. (1996) noted that the motives of those who aim to regenerate historic quarters are expectedly to be different from those initial conservationists who bring these quarters into public awareness. Thus, a conflict can arise between anxieties of conservationists who seek to limit change, and regeneration which seeks to accommodate necessary economic and social change.

The regeneration of historic quarters does not follow a certain model or standard formula; rather it has to be based on the local context (Tiesdell et al., 1996). Kotler et al. (1993, p. 20) pointed out that *"no two places are likely to sort out their strategies, use their resources, define their products, or implement their plans in the same way. Places differ in their histories, cultures, politics, leadership, and particular ways of managing public-private relationships"*. Moreover, many critics argue that, without care and sensitivity, places might begin to look and feel the same and lose their uniqueness despite the obvious paradox that it is the historic urban quarter's identity is the major drive (Tiesdell et al., 1996). Goldberger (1976, p. 160) argued *"just as there is standard high rise office building vernacular ... so there is also a standard preservation vernacular. I worry that more success will lead us to follow formulas more and more, rather than to think of each project anew"*(cited in (Tiesdell et al., 1996)). Therefore, Tiesdell et al. (1996) argues that a successful historic quarter regeneration mandates the recognition and exploitation of the assets and opportunities present within the quarter, its city, region and country.

The role of cultural heritage economy in the post-industrial city has increased significantly in the recent time (Clark et al., 2002, Ashworth, 2009b, Ashworth and Larkham, 1994, Chang et al., 1996). Zukin (1995) was one of the first to write about the cultural heritage in the cities and its role in reshaping urban places. She said that *"culture plays a leading role in urban redevelopment strategies based on historic preservation or local heritage. With the disappearance of local manufacturing industries and periodic crises in government and finance, culture is more and more the business of cities- the basis of their tourist attractions and their unique competitive edge. The growth of cultural consumption (of art, food, fashion, music, tourism) and the industries that cater*

to it fuels the city's symbolic economy, it is visible ability to produce both symbols and space" (Zukin, 1995, p.2). Similarly, Hall (2000) indicates that cities and nations had passed from manufacturing economy to informational economy, and from informational economy to cultural economy. He continued arguing that the cultural today has played a vital role in regenerating derelict factories and warehouses, and as a tool which will revive the urban image and making cities more competitive in attracting more mobile capital and professional workers.

Snedcof (1985) highlighted the role of culture in urban regeneration, he stated that the idea of the culture as crucial to city marketing established in the USA and was characterized by growth coalitions between corporations, banks, property developers, arts organizations, local government and local communities. This resulted generally in urban regeneration approaches being based upon consumption, where mixed-use developments or cultural zones attract a large numbers of locals and tourists (Snedcof, 1985). Zukin (1995) stressed that the cultural and leisure amenities is an essential mean of improving urban tourism development and attracting mobile global capital. However, he also argued that accepting consumption oriented places without questioning their representations of urban life risks succumbing to a visually seductive, privatised public culture.

3.5 Conclusion

The aim of this chapter was to review the major issues, and themes that influenced the transformation of urban environment and shaped the practice of urban regeneration. Table 3.1 provides a summary of the key investigation areas in the case study which will be revisited later in the conclusion chapter. Urban competitiveness is a central actor in that transformation. On one hand, the change of the role of public authorities from services providers to enablers meant that the state has less responsibility in shaping the localities directly as this role falls within the remits of private sector. Globalisation, on the other hand, has increased competition between cities significantly and opened up new marketplaces, which led to huge emphasis on the role that place branding and marketing can play.

Urban design has a significant role in the overall transformation of cities. Urban design plays a central role in creating opportunities for development and enhancing the quality of life for people. It also helps making the city more competitive, shapes its future, managing its transformation and providing a framework to enhance the continuity of its places. As a consequence, cities' cultural heritage has taken on economic importance in the recent decades. The past, rather than being viewed as a hindrance for development, it is now regarded as an

opportunity that can be exploited. Cultural heritage regeneration and conservation started to receive a considerable prominence for its role in increasing the competitiveness of cities, transform their images, and adding symbolic values for their places. Broadly, this chapter shows the complexity of urban transformation issues. These issues are not neatly defined as they are to a great extent context related.

Key issues and instruments of urban regeneration	Urban Competitiveness	Urban Design	Cultural Heritage
key areas of investigation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The impact of globalisation and intercity competition on the process of regeneration and the emerging form of urban landscape. • The role of place branding and marketing in shaping the image of the city and improving its urban identity. • The role of public and private sector in the process of waterfront regeneration, what is the impact of each and how to reach to a right balance. 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The role of urban design as a tool for managing the transformation of urban landscape • Can urban design be used as tool for shaping the vision and managing the interest of the different stakeholders involved in the process of urban regeneration? • How contemporary urban architecture be merged into historic context to improve the image of the area besides enhancing its identity? 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The role of cultural heritage in the regeneration process. • The issue of heritage conservation and achieving economic growth, how to balance between them? • How to transform a historic urban landscape without compromising its unique qualities?

Table 3. 1 \ a summary of the theoretical framework key investigation areas **Source** \ the author

Chapter 4\ The Research Methodology

4.1 Introduction

Creswell (2009, p. 3) defined research methods as “plans and procedures that cover the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation”. Developing an appropriate research method involves several decisions that need to be justified. Informing these decisions would be the philosophical assumptions, the research design, and the methods of data collection and analysis.

In this chapter, the methodological assumptions underpinning this research, as well as the methods deployed to address the research questions will be discussed. The chapter also intends to provide a clear definition for the research scope and limitations. This chapter is divided into three main sections: the first aims to rationalise the philosophical assumptions that derived the methods employed in the research. The second describes and justifies the research design and the data collection approaches. The last section explains the techniques adopted to organise and analyse the research data.

4.2 The Research Methodology; the Rationale for Case Study

The broad aim of this research is to study how urban regeneration transformed Liverpool's waterfront. This is a question of a 'how' nature which aim to explore and explain a complex phenomenon within its context. The research objectives also seek to investigate why certain approaches and phenomena took place and what were their impacts. According to Yin (2013) the more research questions seek to explain circumstances of 'how' and 'why' nature, the more that qualitative case study will be relevant. He also pointed that qualitative case study allows researchers to retain the holistic and the meaningful characteristics of the case. Case study approach is defined by Yin (2009) as an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon within its real-life context, especially when the boundaries between phenomenon and context are not clearly defined. It relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion (Berg and Lune, 2004). Yin's definition stresses on the

research process, the design of the case, data collection methods, and data analysis approaches. Merriam (1998) adopted a more holistic definition of the qualitative case study. She define case study as *“an intensive holistic description and analysis of a single instance, phenomenon, or social unit”* (Merriam, 1998, p. 27). Mason (2002, p. 24) described qualitative research as exploratory, fluid and flexible, data-driven and context sensitive.

Creswell (2007) argued that case studies are not only qualitative. Case studies can comprise a mixed methodology that incorporates both quantitative and qualitative methods. Likewise, Yin (2009) pointed out that case studies are usually interpretive and associated with qualitative research, yet, it can also be used as a method of inquiry employing a positivist epistemology and ontology. To understand the nature of qualitative and quantitative research, Merriam (2002, p. 4) said that, “The key to understand qualitative research lies with the idea that meaning is socially constructed by individuals in interaction with their world. The world, or the reality is not the fixed, single, agreed upon, or measurable phenomenon that it is assumed to be in positivist, quantitative research. Instead, there are multiple constructions and interpretations of reality that are in flux and that change over time.

Qualitative researchers are interested in understanding what those interpretations are at a particular point in time and in particular context”. Patton (1987, cited in Merriam, S. 2009, p. 14) described qualitative research as “an effort to understand situations in their uniqueness as part of a particular context and the interactions there. This understanding is an end in itself, so that it is not attempting to predict what may happen in the future necessarily, but to understand the nature of that setting- what it means for participants to be in that setting, what their live like, what is going on for them, what their meaning are, what the world looks like in that particular setting- and in the analysis to be able to communicate that faithfully to others who are interested in that setting ... the analysis strives for depth of understanding”. Hence, qualitative case study is more suitable to investigate a phenomenon within its context when the boundaries between the two are blurred (Baxter and Jack, 2008).

Charles and Mertler (2002) identified three purposes of case study. The first is to provide intense descriptions of an individual or phenomenon. The second is to provide explanation. The third is to provide evaluation data. For example, quantitative research may provide data that raise more questions to be answered, so a researcher might design a case study to answer these questions. Green (2011) elucidated that case studies are particularly effective for longitudinal studies with a lot of complex matters. Additional features of case study research were identified by Yin (2009). He pointed that case study research (Yin, 2009, p. 18):

- Copes with the technically distinctive situation in which there will be many more variables of interest than data points, and as one result
- Relies on multiple sources of evidence, with data needing to converge in a triangulating fashion, and as another result
- Benefits from the prior development of theoretical propositions to guide data collection and analysis.

Baxter and Jack (2008) stressed on the significance of employing a variety of data sources which can ensure that the issue is not explored through one lens, but rather a variety of lenses that allows for multiple facets of the phenomenon to be revealed and understood. However, despite the many advantages resulting from employing case study research, there are number of disadvantages associated with it such as lack of generalizability, evaluator bias, and case studies are not always time and cost effective (Green, 2011).

Stake (1995) has classified case studies into three categories: intrinsic, instrumental and collective. Doing an intrinsic case study is useful when case is unique and there is no intention to creating theory or generalizing findings. Instrumental case study research aims to better understand a theoretical question or problem. According to Hancock and Algozzine (2006), they argued that, instrumental case study approach enhanced understanding of the particular issue being examined is of secondary importance to a greater insight of the theoretical explanation that underpins the issue. Collective case study aims to address a matter in question while adding to the literature base that benefits better conceptualize a theory.

Yin (2009) distinguish three types of case study research; Exploratory, explanatory, and descriptive. Exploratory case study attempts to define research queries of a succeeding study or to determine the feasibility of research procedure. The data collection often occurs prior the definition of a research question. In explanatory case study, the design of the research seeks to establish cause-and-effect relationships with the purpose of understanding how events occur and which ones may impact particular outcomes (Hancock and Algozzine, 2006). Descriptive case study aims to present a complete description of a phenomenon within its context. Case study research can also be divided into single case study or multiple cases with holistic (single unit of analysis) or embedded (multiple units of analysis) (Yin, 2009) (see **Figure 4. 1**).

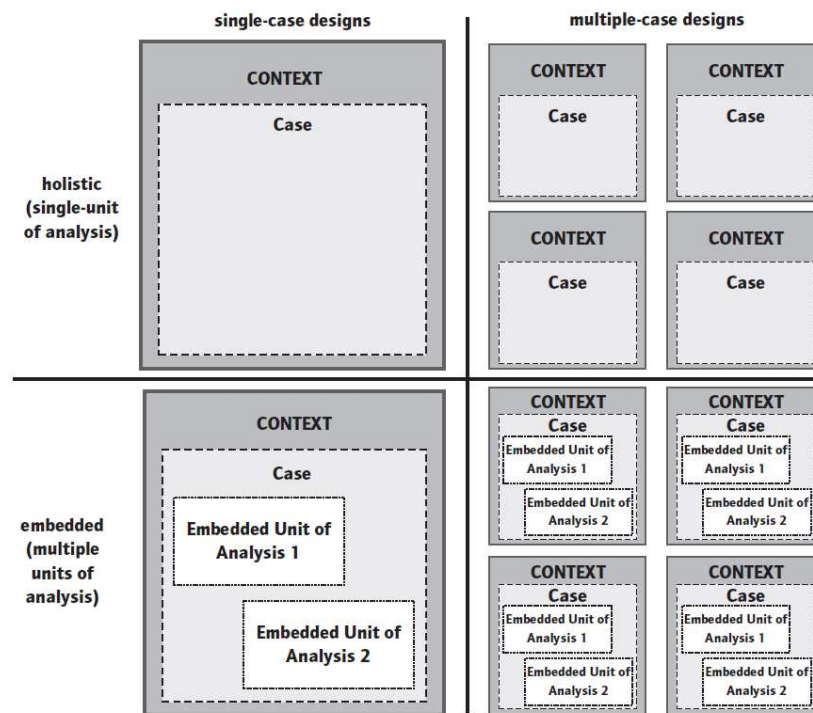


Figure 4. 1\ Basic Types of Designs for Case Studies Source\ Yin (2009, p. 46)

4.3 The Research Design

The previous section has shown the rationale for adopting case study methodology as opposed to others methods. This section and the followings aim to describe the design of the research. It intends to show the logical sequences that were undertook to link the empirical data to the research's initial questions and to its conclusions. Yin (2009) define a research design as a logical plan for getting from *here* 'the research questions' to *there* 'the research conclusions'. Frankfort-Nachmias and Nachmias (2007) also described it as a plan that guides the investigator in the process of collecting, analysing and interpreting data. They indicated that it is a logical model of proof that allows the researcher to draw conclusions concerning casual relations amongst the variables under examination. Research design is generally deals with four issues: the questions to be studied, the relevant data, the collection of data, and the analysis of data ((Philliber et al., 1980) cited in (Yin, 2009)). The following subsections will try to illustrate the procedures of the selection of case study and the justifications for that, and the process of data collection and organisation.

4.3.1 What Type of Case Study Research is More Appropriate?

The development of research design is a difficult part of doing case study research. Case study research is unlike other research methodologies; it requires a development of a comprehensive

'catalog' of research designs for case studies (Berg and Lune, 2004). The difficulty is that there is no certain ways or modules to be followed; rather it is something to be developed by the researcher.

The decision of making single or multiple case studies is very challenging. A primary distinction in designing this case study research was to be made between single or multiple case designs to address the research questions. This distinction is crucial prior any data collection and requires a good understanding of the pros and cons of each. Despite the multiple-case studies is preferable amongst critics because of its analytical conclusions are often more powerful than those coming from single-case study (Yin, 2013), a single case study approach was seen more appropriate for this study for three major reasons. The first is the uniqueness of the case study 'Liverpool waterfront'. The second, despite the importance of theory for establishing the research framework and defining the appropriate research design, the research was also equally very much driven by interest in the case itself. The third, the limitation of time and cost which is an important factor that needs to be taken into consideration.

Another secondary distinction was the decision between holistic (single-unit of analysis) or embedded (multiple units of analysis). According to (Yin, 2013), the holistic case study is advantageous when there is no logical subunits can be identified and when the relevant theory underlying the case study is of holistic nature. However, the chief pitfall of conducting holistic case study is the generality of its nature and the lack of clear measures or data. Therefore, to avoid such major drawbacks, the design of this research adopted embedded approach; it has developed sets of subunits of analysis which serve as an important tool for focusing the research inquiry (see Figure 4.2).

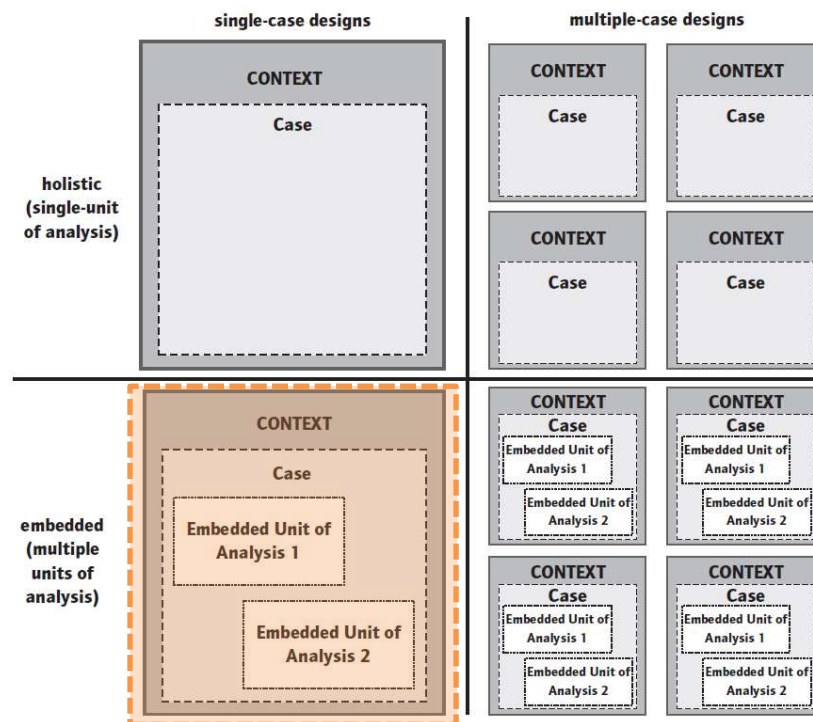


Figure 4. 2\ the research is employing a single embedded case study approach Source\ Adapted from (Yin, 2009)

4.3.2 The Selection of the Case Study; Why Liverpool Waterfront Regeneration?

The research identified two major factors that the case study needs to respond to. The first, the case study needs to respond and represent the theories that the researcher is interested in. The second, the case study also needs to be interesting and unique in itself which can further enhance and enrich the research theoretical stance. The researcher spent a period of time studying and visiting number waterfront sites across the UK. This initial investigation included visiting Cardiff waterfront, London riverfront, Salford in Manchester, Newcastle, Birmingham Canal area, Glasgow, and Liverpool Waterfront. As a result of this, Liverpool waterfront was choosing as the research case study. This selection was based on the following factors:

- *The distinctiveness of the city*: Liverpool has a great historical waterfront as one of the largest thriving ports of Great Britain. This waterfront has substantially shaped the city's social, political, cultural and physical dimensions.
- *The representation of the theory 'Urban Transformation and regeneration'*: according to Couch (2003), the City of Liverpool has undergone during the last thirty years a major economic restructuring and urban change 'due to the decline of waterfront' than virtually any other city in Britain and Europe, in addition too, in has been a testing ground for almost every experiment and innovation in modern urban policy.

- *The complexity of the issues:* the complexity and the controversy of the transformation and the regeneration of Liverpool waterfront provide rich information to test the research theoretical framework. The regeneration of the waterfront has started in the early 1980s and it is still continuing facing major challenges and controversies.
- *Logistical matters:* such as the proximity of the city and the accessibility to large amount of data which can result in a more robust and rigour study.

An important issue that needs to be taken into consideration when conducting a case study research is the bounding of the case (Baxter and Jack, 2008). Therefore, this research has to consider what the case will not be to prevent explosion of data and to help focus of the research objectives. Several recommendations were suggested of how to bind a case study. Creswell (2009) suggested by time and place, by time and activity according to Stake (2010), and by definition and context as recommended by Huberman and Miles (2002). As this research aims to study transformation of place within a certain period time, Creswell suggestion was seen the most relevant. A boundary has been placed on the area the research is going study 'Liverpool waterfront' within a certain period of time 'post-1980' (Figure 4.3). The importance of this binding is to ensure that the research remains reasonable in scope.



Figure 4. 3 Liverpool waterfront, placing boundary on the area of the study **Source** Adapted from Google Earth (2014)

4.4 Sources of Evidence; the Data Collection Procedures

Collecting case study data is often complex and difficult. This is chiefly because the data collection procedures are not routinized and the process demands a well-trained and experienced investigator (Berg and Lune, 2004). Yin (2013) identified three fundamental data collection principles that need to be addressed. The principles briefly are: using multiple, not

just single, source of evidence; creating a case study database; maintaining a chain of evidence. These three principles were vital for the research in order to achieve a high quality research and increasing the validity and reliability of the research outcomes.

The data collection of this research was through using multiple sources of evidence. The sources of evidence employed in this research are: documentation, collection of news articles, direct observation and interviews. Using multiple sources of evidence is one of the major strengths of case study research as discussed earlier. It allows the development of converging lines of inquiry, and a process of triangulation (Berg and Lune, 2004). The following subsections describe the use, the strengths and the limits of the different sources of evidence adopted in this study.

4.4.1 Documentation

Documentary information is a fundamental source of evidence for this study. The documents included: strategies and policies, reports, administrative documents, previous research on the same case study and maps. The majority of these documents have been collected through Internet searches. Documents were very useful in the early stages of the research in providing the researcher with stable and factual information that can be reviewed repeatedly. As Yin (2009) indicated, documentation was very important to corroborate and augment evidence from other sources.

Documents played a significant role in this research. They were the major sources of understanding the context of the case study and identifying issues related to it. More importantly, they enabled the researcher to further develop and focus the research question and objectives. They also helped to guide the collection of evidences from other sources and identifying the major stakeholders (see Table 4.1). Strategies and guidance documents were used extensively to understand the status of the city at that time and where the city was aspired to be. They also used to compare what was the city vision at a certain point of time and what has been realized.

Reports from different organisations involved in the transformation of Liverpool were also examined thoroughly. Some of the reports were very significant in influencing the case study. Examples of these reports are Urban Task Force report 'Towards an Urban Renaissance 1999', Liverpool World Heritage Site Management Plan report produced by Liverpool City Council and English Heritage for UNESCO/ICOMOS monitoring mission in 2011, and the UNESCO Monitoring Mission to Liverpool report published in 2011. Such reports were very beneficial for helping articulating some issues of the case study; however, it was also acknowledged that some these reports do not always contains unmitigated truth. Hence, it was important to understand that

the majority of these reports were written for a certain purpose to specific audiences. In this regard, during the examination of reports, the researcher tried to identify the objectives and the audiences of these reports in order not to be misled by these documentary evidences and to be correctly critical in interpreting the contents of those evidences.

Previous research and maps were also used extensively throughout research. They were very vital in enriching the discussion. However, the danger was the availability of abundance of materials on the Internet which could actually take a lot of time. This issue was overcome by prioritising what is central and leaving aside what seems less important.

Stakeholder
Liverpool City Council LCC
Liverpool Vision 'The Economic Company of the City'
English Heritage
Merseyside Civic Society MSC
Commission of Architecture and Built Environment CABE
UNESCO, ICOMOS, World Heritage Committee
Home and Community Agency HCA
Liverpool Local Enterprise Partnership LEP
Liverpool Waters 'Peel Holding'
Merseyside Development Corporation
North West Development Agency NWDA

Table 4. 1 Major Stakeholders in Liverpool were identified through documentation evidence **Source** the author

4.4.2 News Articles Collection

News articles collection forms a major part of evidence in this study. The use of news articles as a type of sources evidence is quite novel for such a research. A great effort was paid to establish a systematic approach in order to identify, categorize and analyse news articles. The research benefited from methods in media research such as a research carried out by Reason and García (2007) to understand the impact of the European Capital of Culture on Glasgow in 1990.

There are several reasons inspired this research to employ such a unique method. The first reason was the easy access to large number of news articles that provide valuable data about the case study. The second, there was an interest in trying a new method and make something not conventional which can open the doors for innovation and further research employing similar methods. Thirdly, the data acquired from news articles have some advantages that cannot be found in other sources of evidence, for example, a news article can provide good descriptive or/and analytical details of a certain issue that took place in the past with the wider

response at that time. Lastly, news articles data are very significant in increasing the sources of evidences of this research, and allowing the process of triangulation and convergence of data which increases the validity and reliability of the research outcomes as pointed earlier.

On the other hand, there are some difficulties and drawbacks that must to be acknowledged prior starting the process of collection of the news articles. The major drawback is the subjectivity of such a data. News articles are not scientifically written, and therefore, there always will be bias towards a certain issues or points of views either by the reporter or the journal itself. For example, some reporters and journals are plainly favouring developments over heritage conservation and the way their articles were written is clearly shown that. Identifying those preferences is quite challenging process and almost impossible to eliminate. However, the strategy adopted to reduce this subjectivity is by trying to obtain the maximum available number of articles from different sources on the same issue. By doing this, bias will be immensely decreased and a more balanced view will emerge.

The second difficulty was how to set up an effective and a systematic procedure of identifying and collecting news articles. It is very important to achieve the right quality and quantity and to make certain of a transparent way of collection. The use of the appropriate key words was central. Three key words that were central to the research question and the case study were identified. The three key words are 'waterfront, regeneration, Liverpool'. These three words were used together throughout the quest process. A total of 388 articles were gathered from eight local and national journals from the year 1999 until 2013 (see Figure 4.7). The large numbers of articles available has enabled both quantitative and qualitative analysis. Quantitative analysis (presented later in this chapter - see section 4.5.2) illustrates how many types of articles were published and reveals overall patterns and trends in media coverage of urban waterfront development issues. The qualitative analysis (which is integrated throughout the discussion of the case studies on a site-by-site chronological basis) provides a more in depth illustration of the views of the different stakeholders commenting on these issues.

4.4.3 Direct Observation

Berg and Lune (2004) said because of a case study take place in the natural setting of the 'case', there is good opportunity for direct observation. Direct observation is very significant in providing additional data about the case study. Direct observation was conducted in informal way throughout number of field visits. Several of these field visits were made when there were some interviews being conducted. The primary purpose of the direct observation was to collect

photographs of the case study site. The importance of these photographs is to convey some characteristics of the case study to the reader that cannot be conveyed in other better way.

4.4.4 Interviews

Interviews are the major source of evidence in this research. The research main objective is to understand how urban regeneration transformed Liverpool waterfront. Such a question will chiefly be answered through conducting interviews with the key stakeholders in Liverpool. Interviews are guided conversation in fluid and flexible form rather than structured inquiries in a rigid form. The key purpose of interviews is to corroborate specific facts and ask about opinions and how particular processes took place. Yin (2009) indicated that questions have to be carefully worded to allow the interviewee to provide a fresh commentary about it, while if leading questions were asked, the corroboratory purpose of the interviews will not be fulfilled. Henceforth, Becker (1998) argued rather than asking 'why' questions which can create defensiveness on the informant's part, posing 'how' questions is preferable in addressing 'why' in a conversational manner.

The research tried to select interviewees from different key organisations in order to cover the issues from different perspectives. Initially, the researcher started by identifying a list of key representatives from key organisations (see table 2.1) involved in the process of regeneration in Liverpool. The list included 28 representatives with their contact details and brief about their backgrounds and positions. Then, for a better management the researcher divided the list into groups of four and an email requesting a research interview (see appendix 5) was sent to a group every around two weeks. Responses for the email were varied, some accepted it, some apologised and others did not reply. When an interviewee accepts to be interviewed then an email followed to thank the interviewee for his acceptance and then to suggest time and date that suits both the interviewee and the researcher and so on the process continued. It is also worth noting that not all the research interviewees were in the initial list, however, several were recommended by others throughout a snowballing technique. Although there might be a danger that some interviewees might suggest others who are similar to them in their views, however, the researcher made sure that the final list of the research participants covers a wider spectrum of stakeholders with divergent perspectives (see table 4.2).

The final list of the interviewees included representatives from local authorities such as Liverpool City Council and Liverpool Vision, heritage activists and heritage agencies, professionals such as architects, urban designers and planners, academics and critics, cultural institution (TATE Liverpool), community group (Liverpool Civic Society), developer (Grosvenor), business partnership (Liverpool Waterfront Business Partnership LWBP), development

agency (North West Development Agency). However, as the regeneration of the waterfront was predominantly about the docklands where no local communities were established there, hence, local communities were, in fact, not a key stakeholder in the regeneration of the waterfront and as such it has only two representatives in the interviewees list from Merseyside Civic Society.

Prior conducting the interviews, an ethical approval were also acquired from the university (see Appendix 1). Consent and information sheet were prepared and research themes questions were developed (see Appendix 1 & 2, Figure 4. 4). A key decision was to be made with regards to whether to conceal or not to conceal the identities of the interviewees. For the majority of social sciences research, interviewees should be anonymous. However, for this research, linking the identities of the interviewees with their opinions was very crucial in order to fully understand and appreciate their points of view. However, the research's interviewees had the option to choose whether if they want to conceal their identities or not. The interviews were also recorded and transcribed. The research interviews were semi-structured. The average time of interview was around one hour and fifteen minutes. Interviews questions followed a set of themes that were derived from the case study protocol. Questions were also open ended in order to facilitate conversation.

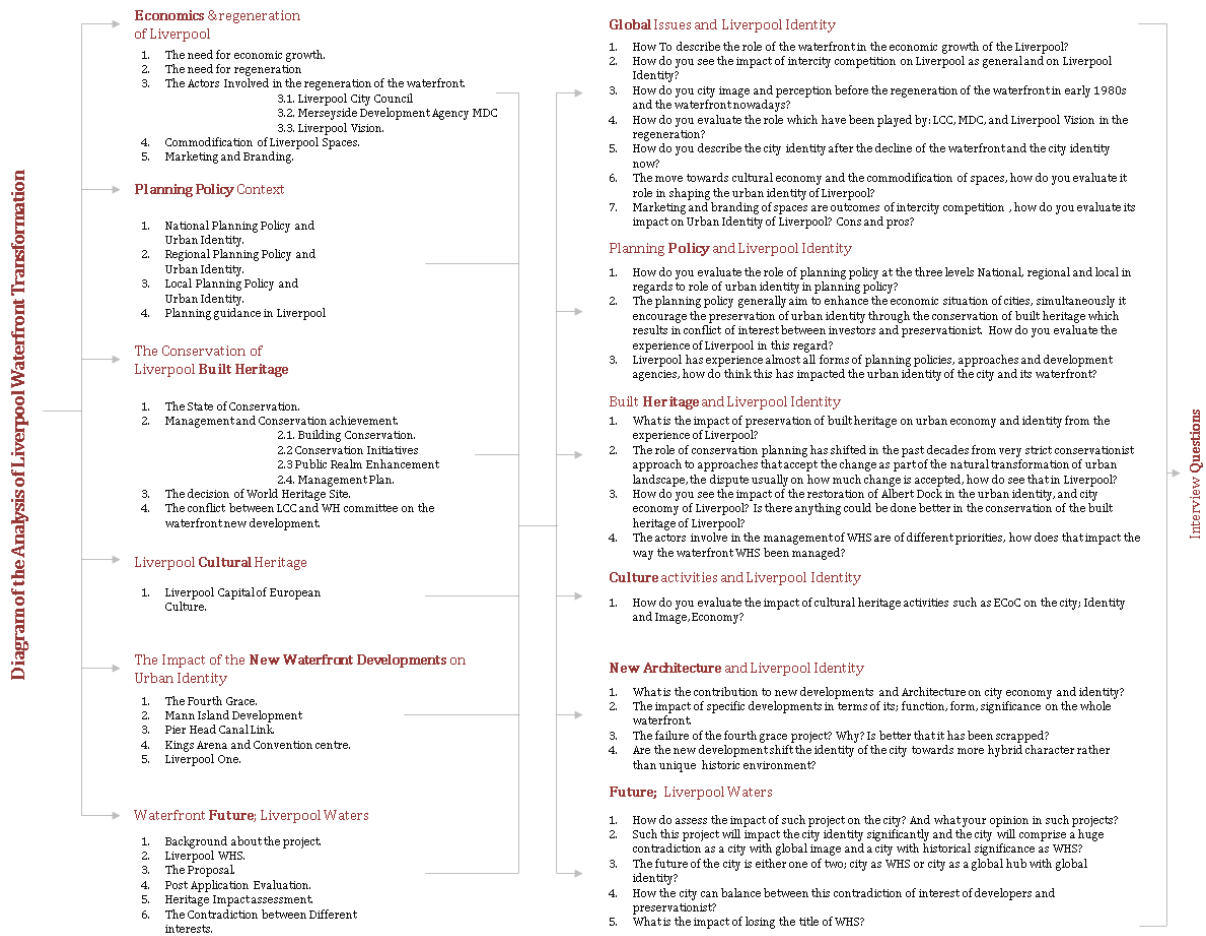


Figure 4. 4 \ a diagram shows the process of the development of the interviews' questions **Source** \ the author Interviews were essential for this research. They provided excellent insights into the case study. However, interviews also are subject to the common problem of bias, poor recall, and poor or inaccurate articulation (Yin, 2009). An example, in interview with Parkinson (2013), he said “you cannot get an objective answer from me, I love this city”. A common approach is to corroborate interviews data with information from other sources. Yet, this approach could be relevant in dealing with behavioural events rather than opinions. Thus, with regards to opinions and attitudes, comparing them with each other will be more appropriate.

	Interviewee Name	Institution	Position	Interview Date
1	Richard Evans	Planning Expert, European Institute of Urban Affairs EIUA	Professor	7th November 2012
2	Richard Meegan	Urban Economics Expert, EIUA	Professor	5th November 2012

3	Chris Couch	University of Liverpool	Professor of Urban Planning, author of Key of Publication about the development of Liverpool	7th November 2012
4	Michael Parkinson	Former Planner in Liverpool, EIUA	Director of EIUA, Public Figure , previous Head of number of Organization in the regeneration of Liverpool	7th February 2013
5	Peter Brown	Merseyside Civic Society MCS, University of Liverpool	Chair of MCS, former Planner, professor at University of Liverpool	6th February 2013
6	Trevor Skempton	Urban Design Consultant for Liverpool 1 + MSC	Former Chair of Liverpool Architecture Society, Planning and Urban design Activist, Urban Designer	12th March 2013
7	Rob Burns	Liverpool City Council, English Heritage previously	Urban Design and Heritage Manager in LCC	2nd April 2013
8	----	Former Senior official of North West Development Agency NWDA	Former Planner and Heritage Activist	25th March 2013
9	Graeme Ives	English Heritage	Team Leader & Historic Areas Advisor, North West	8th May 2013
10	Dominic Wilkinson	Liverpool Architectural Society, LJMU	Architect, President of Liverpool Architectural Society, Lecturer at LJMU	12th March 2013
11	Jenny Douglas	Liverpool Vision	Head of Area Investment and Urban Design, Head of the waterfront Area priorities in Liverpool Vision	12th March 2013

12	Guy Butler	Grosvenor Development	Director of Liverpool One Development	22nd April 2013
13	Sue Grindrod	TATE Modern, Gower Street Estates (Albert Dock)	Senior administrative staff at TATE Liverpool, Chair of the Liverpool Waterfront Business Partnership LWBP	25th March 2013

Table 4. 2 the interviewees list of the research, their institutions and positions. **Source** the author

4.5 Data Analysis and Organisation

This section concerns with methods in which the data from the different sources are organised, categorised and analysed to draw the research conclusions. The analysis of case study data is a very challenging process as there are no certain fixed formulas to be followed. This section is trying to describe and rationalise the process by which the data be organised and analysed.

4.5.1 The Qualitative Analysis of Data

The first step towards analysing the data is by establishing a technique by which the data can be organised and categorised. The use of the Computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software CAQDAS was crucial. NVivo software was used extensively in the process of organisation and categorisation of data. NVivo is software that helps to organise and categorise large amount of narrative text that might be collected from different qualitative sources such as interviews or large volumes of newspaper articles. NVivo is an assisting tool that cannot perform analysis by itself. The research grouped the data from the different sources in one NVivo file before starting the next process of coding and categorising (Figure 4.6).

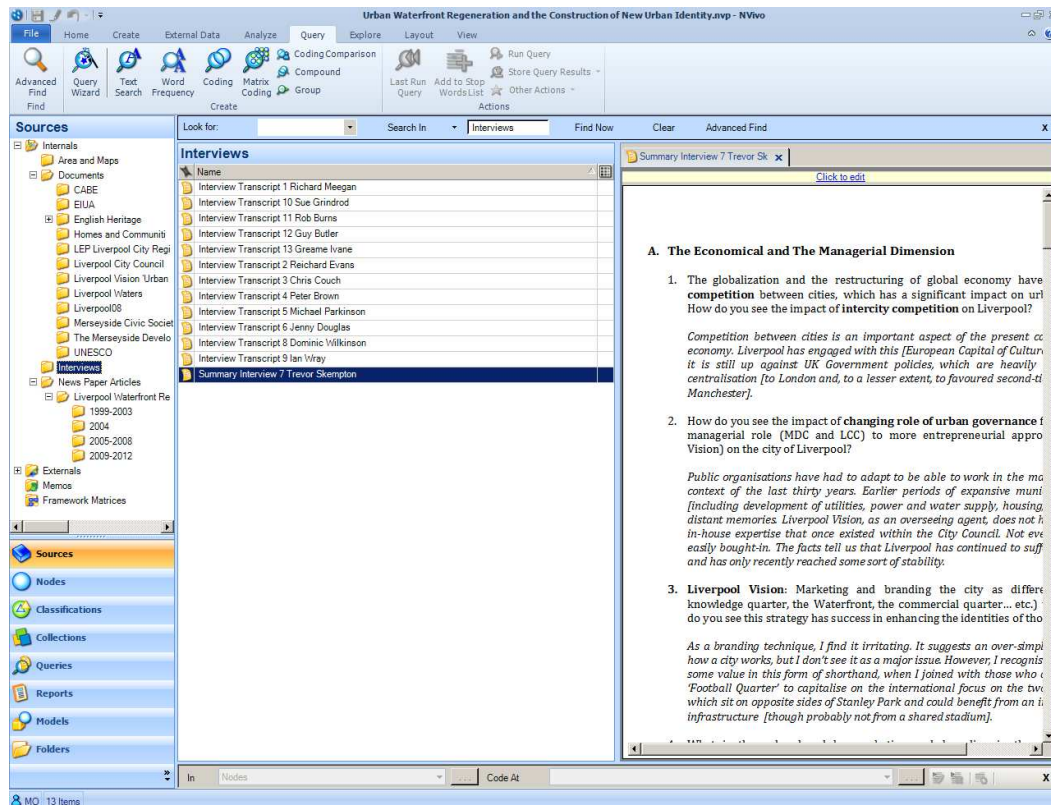


Figure 4. 5\ NVivo Workspace, the program was used extensively to organise and categorise the research data Source\ NVivo

The general strategy of analysis followed two techniques. Firstly by developing a chronological description of the case study which has helped to organise the case study in a narrative way besides allowing small units of analysis to be identified and analysed. The chronological narrative also facilitated the research to focus on the major strengths of the case study and allow tracing events over time. Berg and Lune (2004) indicated that chronological analysis technique has an important analytic purpose – to investigate presumed casual events – because the basic sequences of a cause and its effect cannot be temporarily inverted. He further pointed that chronological technique is more likely to cover many diverse types of variables and not to be restricted to a single independent or dependent variable which makes the outcomes of this technique richer and more insightful than other similar approaches.

Thematic analysis was the second technique employed in this research. Thematic analysis is a method for identifying, analysing, and reporting patterns (themes) within data (Pope et al., 2000). It also aims to build explanation about the case study and answered ‘how’ and ‘why’ something happened. The theoretical framework was very useful to guide the thematic analysis of the case study and further define the units of analysis. The research also occasionally engages in a discourse with the aim of clarifying different points of view for a certain issue or identifying emerging issues particularly with the data collected from the interviews and the news articles.

In general, while the chronological analysis was used to broadly analyse the case study and identify events or units of analysis, the research benefited immensely from the thematic and the discourse analysis to provide valuable insights into these events and units of analysis.

4.5.2 The Quantitative Analysis of the News Articles

Quantitative analysis was used quite narrowly in the research with the collection of the news articles. The main aim of quantitatively analysing the collection of the news articles was to facilitate the qualitative analysis of the news articles and identify the major patterns and issues.

The research begins with the construction of a dataset and this has to be established within parameters by which the data should be collected. The collection of the dataset has involved online search in the local and national newspaper archives about 'Liverpool Waterfront Regeneration' as mentioned previously. The news articles collection was imported firstly into NVivo software (see section 4.5.1).

Prior starting the quantitative examination of the press articles; it has to be in a form of statistical comparison through establishing a coding scheme. The coding scheme is in two levels, the first is the objective one where the articles is been coded according to the date, the source, and the type. The second level is the subjective one which was made according to the primary theme of each article and the attitude taken towards that theme (neutral, positive or negative, analytical or descriptive). SPSS 'Statistical Package for the Social Sciences' was used to perform this analysis. The SPSS was a valuable tool that enables the researcher to explore patterns and relationships and produce diagrams that summarises the news articles collection. Before performing the second level of coding, the articles were also read and five major themes were identified (Figure 4.6):

- Changing Image and Identity of Liverpool;
- The economy and the management of Liverpool;
- The Culture and the city;
- The Physical Regeneration Projects;
- Heritage and New Developments.

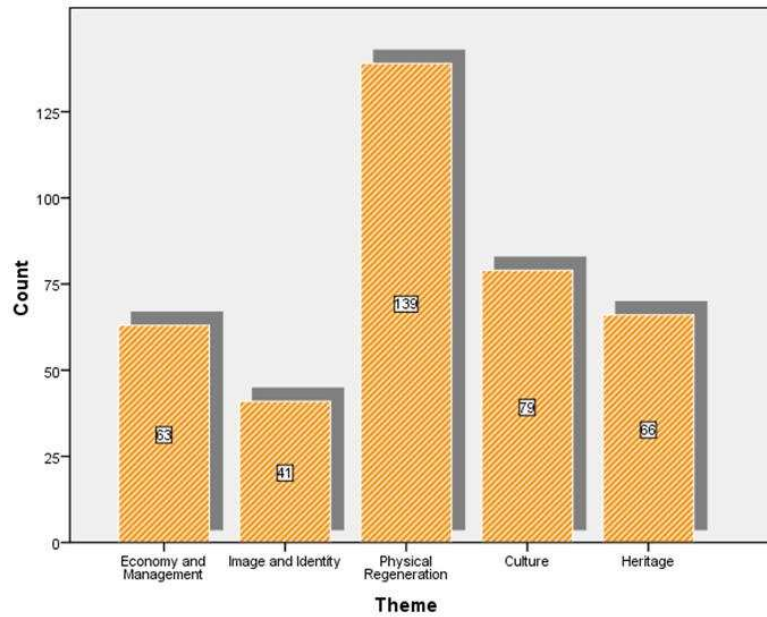


Figure 4. 6\ the themes of the news articles Source\ the author

Figure (4.7) illustrates the sources and the frequency. The main two sources were the two local newspapers Liverpool Echo and Liverpool Daily Post. Liverpool regeneration gained also a considerable coverage from The Guardian while not much actually has been found in other sources. Appendix 7 presents more graphs about the quantitative analysis of the news articles.

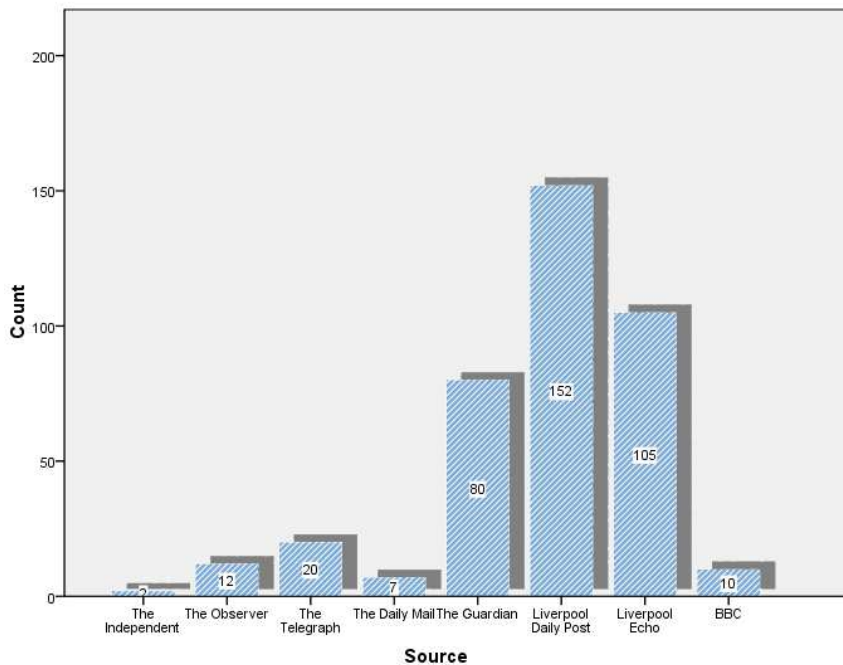


Figure 4. 7\ the sources and the frequency Source\ the author

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter described and justified the methodology adopted by this research. As the research aimed to understand how urban regeneration transformed Liverpool waterfront, this is a question of how nature which best can be answered through a case study approach (Berg and Lune, 2004). The chapter pointed out number of reasons and philosophical assumptions that underpinned the selection of a case study research methodology. Prior start designing the research, it was very important to acknowledge the strengths and the weaknesses of case study approach in order to achieve a better design quality.

Yin (2009) identified three principles for data collection if they used properly, can help deal with the issues of establishing the construct validity and reliability of the case study evidence. These principles are: the use of multiple sources of evidence, the creation of a case study database, and maintaining a chain of evidence. The research acknowledged the importance of these principles. It has collected data from multiple sources of evidence: documents, direct observation, news articles collection and interviews which, in fact, allows the research to address a broader range of issues. More importantly, it allows the development of converging lines of inquiry which significantly increases the reliability of the research (see Figure 4.9). NVivo, Computer-assisted qualitative data analysis software CAQDAS was used primarily for organising and documenting the data collected from the case study and assisting performing the analysis. NVivo allowed also the research database available for independent inspection, so investigator can review the evidence directly without being limited to the written case study reports. Lastly, the research also follows a clear process from the case study questions ending by the research conclusions with a clear referencing and methodological procedures. In general, despite the complexity of adopting a case study approach as there are no certain formulas to be followed (Hancock and Algozzine, 2006), it can result in a very rigorous research by ensuring maintaining these three principles.

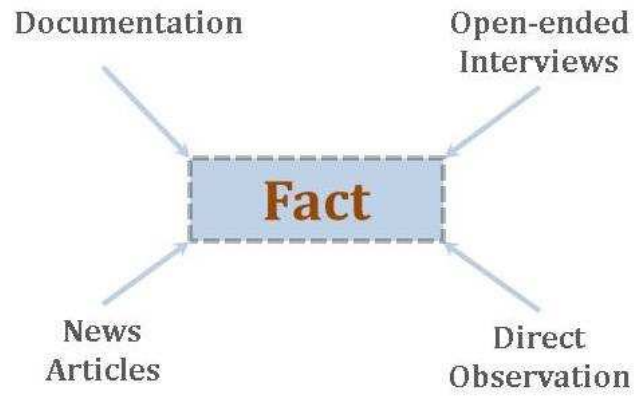


Figure 4. 8 Convergence of Multiple Sources of Evidence **Source** adopted from (Yin, 2009, p. 117)

Chapter 5\ the City of Liverpool; Historical Account and the Early Regeneration of the Waterfront (1980 - 1997)

5.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to review the history of transformation of the city of Liverpool. This review is essential to understand the external and the internal factors that had significantly influenced and shaped the city's social, economic and physical fabric. The chapter is divided into two main sections; the first is a historical account of the city, it intends to describe its origin, and the major elements that shaped its growth and decline focussing primarily on its recent history. The second section aims to study the early period of Liverpool waterfront regeneration. It starts by highlighting the changes in urban governance; then it reviews the two major regeneration projects that took place during that period of regeneration. The two regeneration projects are the Albert Dock and the International Garden Festival. The chapter concludes by stressing the fundamental role that the urban waterfront of Liverpool played in shaping the subsequent transformation of the city.

5.2 Liverpool; the History of the Urban Transformation

5.2.1 Origin and Growth

Liverpool is located in the North West of England region; it is the core city of the 'Merseyside' conurbation which encompasses five metropolitan boroughs: Liverpool, Sefton, Wirral, St Helens, and Knowsley (Figure 5.1 & 5.2). The history of Liverpool goes back 800 years, when King John of England granted a charter for a planned new town there. Liverpool's mediaeval growth was slow, yet it was apparent in the central grid of the city's old seven streets that reflects the character of medieval city¹. Although the city has credentials as a mediaeval town, the most rapid and dramatic physical, demographical, and economic changes by which the city most known, occurred between the 19th and 20th century (Sykes et al., 2013). This dramatic expansion was a result of the city becoming the main UK port linking the early industrialising region of North West England with North Americas and West India, thus, it had positioned itself as the second most important port in Britain after London (Belchem, 2006).

¹ The seven old streets are Castle Street, Chapel Street, Dale Street, High Street, Old Hall Street, Tithebarn Street and Water Street



Figure 5. 1 Liverpool in the wider context of the UK. **Source** | Office of the Deputy Prime Minister (ODPM) (2002), Your Region Your Choice, The Stationary Office, London.

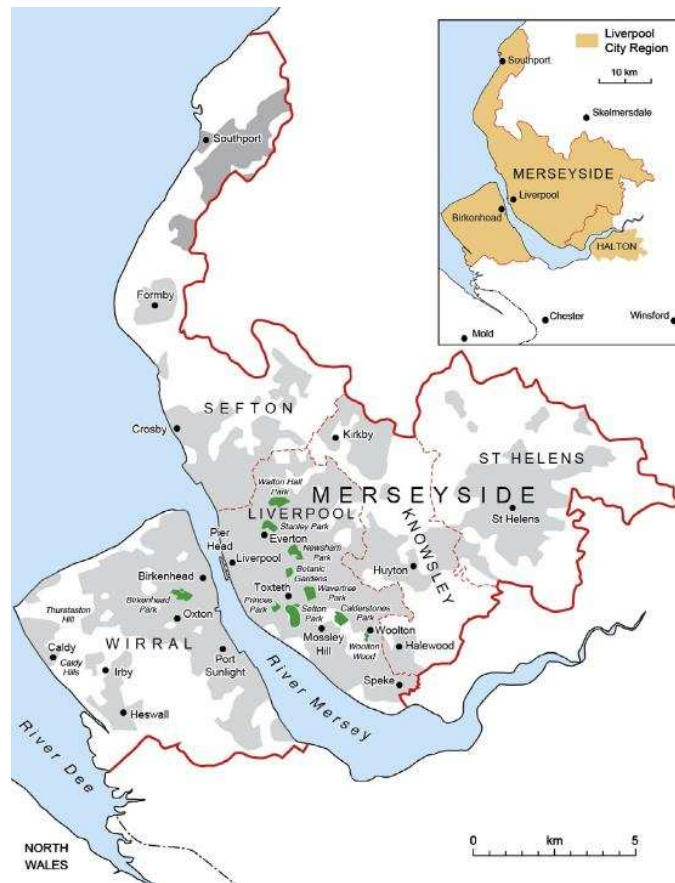


Figure 5. 2 Merseyside and Liverpool City Region. **Source** | Sykes et al. (2013)

The city of Liverpool has experienced extremes of growth and decline. Since the city became an independent port in 1647, it has developed as a global port based around international trade in salt, slaves, raw material and manufactures, eventually the city entered into a direct competition with other British Cities 'Bristol, Cardiff and London' and quickly it began to gain on its rivals (Wilks-Heeg, 2003). By the end of the 19th century the Illustrated London News described Liverpool as a wonder of the world, the New York of Europe, a world city rather than simply British county (cited in Belchem (2006)). The Victorian Society (1967, p.3) also noted that "it is no exaggeration to say that by the mid-nineteenth century Liverpool with London and New York, was one of the three great maritime commercial centres of the World" (quoted by Wilks-Heeg (2003, p. 40)).

The city has benefited from its prime location facing the Irish Sea, with straight access to Dublin, Glasgow and New World colonies across the Atlantic ocean, and on the other side a hinterland of rapidly industrialising English North and Midlands with its newly built canals and railways (Sykes et al., 2013). The growth of the city had also significantly increased the city population. In the mid-1930s, it had risen to more than 800,000 compared with 70,000 in the early 1800s, with around a million people living in its suburbs by the beginning of the twentieth century (see Figure 5.3) (Sykes et al., 2013).

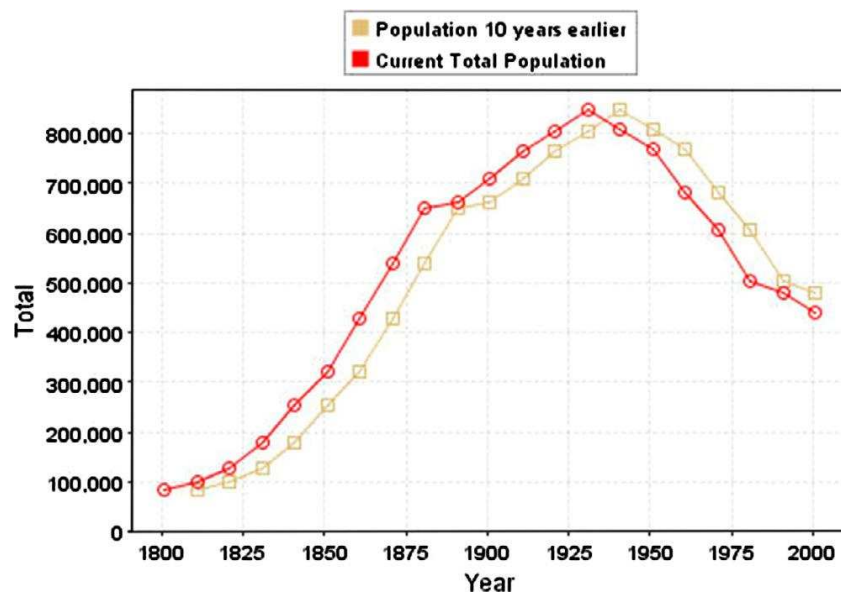


Figure 5.3\ Liverpool Population 19th and the 20th century. Source\ Sykes et al. (2013)

The growth of the city was enhanced dramatically by the industrial revolution which increased the pace of handling and the variety of goods; Liverpool handled a growing volume of sugar, cotton, grain, and tobacco imports and befitted as the main British port for export coal and manufactured goods, Liverpool's merchant fleet was more modern and larger in tonnage than

that of London and more foreign consulates and embassies were on its streets (Wilks-Heeg, 2003, Belchem, 2006).

The wealth and demography of Liverpool has been reflected in its urban evolution, and the city's topography has also significantly shaped its wider urban growth and physical identity. Sykes et al. (2013) described the areas around the old docks were filled with warehousing, rope makers and ship suppliers, the more wealthier people of Liverpool settled on the west side of the river Mersey and then planned the town of Birkenhead in a grid layout. To the north and the south of Liverpool, further large dockland settlements were built, the working class tended to settle in close proximity to the waterfront whilst middle class accustomed to live outward and uphill building townhouses and villas on a series of sandstone ridges overlooking the river. As such, Sykes et al. (2013) observe that to certain extent there was a segregation between middle class housing and working class areas. Couch (2003) points out the city's working classes remained poor and unrewarded in an unjust sharing of trading income.

In the heyday of the port during the 19th century, the city attracted migrants from Ireland, Wales, Scotland, Britain colonies, and the Continent, Belchem (2006) argues that cosmopolitanism is a critical feature of Liverpool's culture, character and history, it is what placed Liverpool apart in advance and of other UK's provincial cities. Belchem and MacRaild (2006) said the presence of Irish outweighed all others, despite the Scots and Welsh added further element to the city's Celtic and un-English character, they continued pointing out that "... networks of economic and social life, even the formation of the city's distinctive accent, were subtly shaped by a rolling continuity of transients, sojourners and settlers. Indeed, the distinctive 'scouse' culture or 'Liverpool stew' has been described as a cosmopolitan blend of 'Lancashire amiability, Irish blarney, Welsh acerbity, as well as bits of Chinese, German, and Scandinavian'. A permanent marker of the city's cosmopolitan demographic roots, this 'accent exceedingly rare' was to become Liverpool's instantly recognizable badge of difference" (Belchem and MacRaild, 2006, p. 387-88).

The city of Liverpool has a very strong physical character derived from a combination of its topography and built environment (Interview with senior NWDA official, 2013). Liverpool's built environment, and in turn its physical identity is largely shaped by its mercantile past but its recent qualities is closely linked to its economic flourishing, it is also influenced by technological, planning and architecture trends and thinking (Biddulph, 2011). The first dock was built in 1715, soon after that Liverpool started to expand its docks resulting in the development of 39 docks (Hatton, 2008) (Figure 5.4). The prosperity of the city has been manifested in the scale and technology of the docks themselves, the luxuriousness of the

commercial buildings that housed the shipping companies, banking and insurance companies that revolved alongside the shipping trade, the city also spent large of its wealth on magnificent civic buildings such as St. George's Hall (1854), parks and gardens, and infra-structure (Couch, 2003) (Figure 5.5).



Figure 5. 4 The map of Liverpool 1836, it shows that the built environment Identity of Liverpool is largely shaped by its mercantile past **Source** acquired from

http://www.gillmark.com/images_CMS/products/506/12819614728260_506_largeimage.jpg [Accessed 16th May 2013]



Figure 5. 5 St. George's Hall is an example of the wealth of the city during the 19th century **Source** acquired from http://upload.wikimedia.org/wikipedia/commons/f/fc/St_Georges_Hall_Liverpool_3_%286727529617%29.jpg
[Accessed 12th May 2013]

The twentieth century saw building of Liverpool its most famous architectural landmarks on the Pier Head waterfront: the Liver Building (1911), Cunard Building and the port of Liverpool (1916) the three building together known as the Three Graces. This period of wealth created one of the UK's richest architectural legacies (Hughes, 1999). Recently, as recognition of the importance of Liverpool architectural and landscape legacies, the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization 'UNESCO' in 2004 inscribed parts of Liverpool Waterfront and Commercial Quarter as World Heritage Site 'WHS' for its outstanding universal value to International community. UNESCO (2004) described Liverpool Maritime Mercantile City as the supreme example of a commercial port at the time of Britain's greatest global influence (Figure 5.6).



Figure 5. 6 the Three Graces of Liverpool are considered the most outstanding architectural masterpieces on the Pier Head waterfront, recently the site has been inscribed as World Heritage Site **Source** the author (2013)

5.2.2 The Decline of the City

Unfortunately, the economic flourishing of Liverpool did not continue. A number of external and internal factors led Liverpool to lose its economic fortunes. The signs of decline were evident from the beginning of the 20th century (Couch, 2003). Despite the period before the World War I being the heyday of passenger traffic, Liverpool share of UK emigrant traffic was dropping in favour of Southampton and Cunard (Couch, 2003). During World War II large parts of the city centre and the docks were destroyed by bombing (Biddulph, 2011) (Figure 5.7). Most significantly was the shift from Commonwealth orientation to European trade, and that resulted on favouring the east coast on the other side of the country where Liverpool found itself increasingly uncompetitive comparing with ports feeding to Rotterdam (Interview with Richard Evans, 2012). This was fundamental as the decline of manufacturing industry in the North West. Richard Evans (Interview, 2012) stressed that the weakening of Liverpool's fortune was a combination of competition from other ports and the decline of hinterland. However, this has been mirrored in the core population dropping almost the half to 430,000 by 2001 (LCC, 2011) (Figure 5.3).



Figure 5. 7 Liverpool City Centre, large parts of Liverpool City Centre and waterfront were destroyed after the WWII Source\ acquired from <http://www.pixmule.com/blitz-2011/6/> [Accessed on 23rd July 2013]

The twentieth century also witnessed the decline of docks system due to the massive development in cargo system technologies, the containerisation, and the increase of the size of vessels, when did that occur it arrived with great speed and dramatic impact (Hoyle, 2000). Couch (2003) explains this was resulted in reducing the demand for wharfs and increasing the speed of cargo handling which led to abandoned of the smaller and older docks on Liverpool Waterfront. A more noteworthy impact of that was the significant reduction of unskilled labour demand, by 1980s unemployment rates reached almost 40% in certain areas (Sykes et al., 2013). Wilkinson (2013) pointed out the technological changes had extended to impact the city social and economic structure. From 1960s, despite central government regional policy initiatives saw the introduction of car manufacturing plants besides other employers in the region in order to reduce the unemployment rates (Biddulph, 2011), the Liverpool's economy and that of the wider Merseyside sub region continued to decline resulting in rapid out-migration (particularly of young and skilled) (Sykes et al., 2013). Batey (2002) argued that the underutilisation of key resources such labour, the high rates of unemployment, and a low economic activities rate contributed to a perceived long-term lack of competitiveness, serious issues related to labour relations, and social exclusion and polarisation in both the core city and the wider Merseyside.

Sykes et al. (2013) argue that the sharp decline of Liverpool is rooted in a complex interaction of the macro level technological and trading changes as mentioned above, with a series of locally

driven planning policy decisions during 1960s and 1970s, most significant was the adoption of comprehensive area clearance and redevelopment policies. They argue that the method and the results of clearance policies were tragic, documenting how such changes temporarily raised housing standards but dissipated existing community, businesses, and changed inner city's urban fabric (Figure 5.8). Stamp (2010) said that number of landmark buildings were destroyed, of which Foster's Custom House, St. John's Market and ornate Sailors Home were just the most notable examples, hence, this period was considered by conservationists as the era of municipal vandalism.



Figure 5. 8 Tower Block on Rokeby Street, Liverpool 1970s, the picture reflects the official thinking at that time, demolishing whole areas in which communities were established and then rehouse them in what has been considered at that time modern houses. **Source** acquired from Liverpool Forum Archive, <http://streetsofliverpool.co.uk/?s=Blitz> [Accessed 5th January 2014]

The city was badly affected by the new town policy which exacerbated by the loss of activities in the centre and led thousands of its workforces to move, that was just at the time of the shift from industrial economy towards higher technology and service based economy (Evans, 2012) (Figure 5.9). A ring of new towns around Liverpool such as Woolton and Huyton, beyond the reach of tax base and in much closer proximity to the North South motorways created to certain degree a kind of competition with Liverpool, which left the city with more residual population, while the city finances became much more relying on the central government grants (Evans, 2012, Sykes et al., 2013).

The combination of the above discussed factors had severely impacted the city. Yet, what is more serious was the systematically racist policing and the official rejection to the long-

established black community which has exploded in a widely publicised riots in the inner city and Toxteth area known locally as the uprising. Parkinson and Duffy (1984) argued that the 1981 riots in Liverpool has grabbed the attention on the severity of the problems endured by the inner-city residents of one of the most deprived cities in the UK, furthermore, it showed the adverse impact a wide range of economic, industrial, regional and social policies had upon inner cities communities.



Figure 5.9 Byrom Street in 1950s (left) and 1978 (right), the two photos show the changes that occurred during the 1970s with the adoption of the new inner city town policy) **Source** acquired from Liverpool Forum Archive, Photographer (unknown), http://streetsofliverpool.co.uk/liverpools-managed-decline/?utm_source=rss&utm_medium=rss&utm_campaign=liverpools-managed-decline [Accessed 5th January 2014]

5.2.3 The Beginning of Change; From Confrontation to Partnership

In response to the pressing economic and social issues in Liverpool, the national government decided to appoint Michael Heseltine the National Minister for the Environment at the that time as a specific Minister for the Merseyside (Parkinson and Duffy, 1984). Soon after his appointment, Michael Heseltine established the Merseyside Task Force (MTF). Just few months before the MTF, the national government created the Merseyside Development Corporation (MDC) one of the first two Urban Development Corporation's in the country (UDC) (Meegan, 1999), which will be discussed in the following section. The MTF was established in October 1981 and remained until 1993 although it intended to work for only one year (Couch, 2003). The aim of MTF was to coordinate government policies and in Liverpool and to generate new initiatives, and it was very concerned about reducing the rates of unemployment and enhancing the economic and the social life of the area (Couch, 2003). Nonetheless, the MTF was criticized by its emphasis on racial issues, providing few projects to benefit the black community but they were secondary to the broader Merseyside-wide initiatives which were almost completely not-touching the black people (Parkinson et al., 1988).

Despite the criticism to the MTF, Couch (2003) pointed out it had played a considerable role in the regeneration of the city, promoting training programs, housing projects, tourism and leisure initiatives and encouraging local business development. However, the state of built environment in the second half of the twentieth century also was degraded. The economic decline created a difficult situation and limited the quality and the quantity of development, created a vast areas of derelict dockland, and also limited the resources available to streets, public spaces and buildings (Biddulph, 2011) (figure 5.10).



Figure 5. 10 Liverpool Dockland 1981, this photo shows the amount of dereliction in Liverpool Docklands, this photo was taken by Photographer Matt Reardon (1981), **Source** acquired from Liverpool Forum Archive, <http://www.yoliverpool.com/forum/showthread.php?108121-Liverpool-s-Albert-Dock-Unseen-1981-Black-and-White-Images-Taken-by-18-Year-Old-Photographer-Matt-Reardon> [Accessed 9th January 2014]

Notwithstanding a city with such a situation might work for a robust alignment of local and national government in order to act effectively in addressing the resulting challenges (Sykes et al., 2013). However, this was not the case in Liverpool, the relationship between the local and the national government became extremely unstable by the early 1980s. Crick (1986) reasoned that as it was a consequence of the complex problems that the city was facing, and an increasing sense of blame on the national government, impersonal forces of global capitalism personified by the Conservative Prime Minister Margaret Thatcher, a hard left 'Militant' local labour party has gained the control of the council in 1983. Lees (2011) explains that the council adopted a new regeneration strategy based around building new municipal housing and clearing the slum tenements with illegal budget which almost bankrupted the city (cited in (Sykes et al., 2013)). The council then under the 'Militants' ideology brought into confrontation not only with the

national government but, also with their own national Labour Party (Parkinson, 1985). As a result of having voted for illegal budget, 47 councillors were disqualified from the office in 1985 (Sykes et al., 2013).

The late 1980s and early 1990s, Liverpool City Council with a new leadership aimed to repair the broken relationships, especially with the national government. This period as reported by Sykes et al. (2013) witnessed the change of relationship from confrontation with the national government to an era of partnership. As direct benefit from that, the city received considerable funds from the national government and that included the City Challenge Program where the city encouraged to work in partnership with community, private, and voluntary sectors to undertake large physical regeneration programs (Couch, 2003). Moreover, the city also succeeded to gain a considerable amount of European Funds 'European Objective One Program', which aims to the cities that are lagging behind in order to make them more attractive for private investments (Sykes et al., 2013).

The term intercity competition has emerged during this period to describe when the National Government started to introduce the concept of the competition between the 2nd Tier cities². Dominic Wilkinson (Interview, 2013) explains that *"the national government understood the 19th century model of competing between the second tier cities, and you get things like City Challenge Program, there is not large sum of money but what it is start to do? It starts to say, well there is a little bit of money here but not enough for everybody but rather than spread it thinly and ends up with everybody not having enough money, we will concentrate and we will do as a beauty competition but the reverse of which city has got the most poverty, so they all competing at poverty level to get the money, so this idea of competition started to crystallise in the local governance of the cities and their local authorities as the 19th century is the century of competition between cities"*. The new funding programs which was based on competition were widely applauded as they are innovative; they adopts a comprehensive and strategic approach; they are targeted upon specific areas, time limited, output driven and based upon partnerships (Russell et al., 1996).

Sykes et al. (2013) argued that it wasn't only the fund that you get from the National Government or the European Union was important but it was also the institutional structures

² The second Tier Cities: those cities outside the capital whose economic and social performance is sufficiently important to affect the potential performance of the national economy. It does not imply that they are less important than the capital cities, in the UK the 2nd Tier Cities are: Birmingham, Bristol, Leeds, Liverpool, Manchester, Newcastle, Nottingham, and Sheffield. Source: PARKINSON, M., MEEGAN, R., KARECHA, J., EVANS, R., JONES, G., TOSICS, I., GERTHEIS, A., TONKO, A., HEGEDUS, J., ILLES, I., SOTTARAUTA, M., RUOKOLAINEN, O., LEFEVRE, C. & HALL, P. 2012. Second Tier Cities in Europe: In An Age of Austerity Why Invest Beyond the Capitals? Liverpool: ESPON & European Institute of Urban Affairs, Liverpool John Moores University.

that was established to manage those funds and deliver projects became key component of the emerging governance framework, which for Liverpool was central to help building the fractured governance capacity of the city itself, besides repairing the trust with the central government. An example of these emerging institutions is The Merseyside Partnership (TMP) which was established to promote the Liverpool region to attract inward investment besides managing the tourism economy for the region, now known as the Liverpool Enterprise Partnership LEP. Rob Burns (Interview, 2013) elaborated on the impact of the new approach of competition between the 2nd tier cities in the UK saying that *“the competition has led to the emergence of new type urban governance that has a dual role: the first is the regularity role and every city has to do where legal finance has to be completely legal, and the second is making sure that they are attracting investment”*. In fact, this significant change in the city’s urban governance has had a substantial influence in shaping the subsequent transformation.

A new era of regeneration has started to take shape after 1997. With the election of a new labour government, the relationship between the city council and the central government became very cooperative which brought what Giddens (2013) termed ‘The Third Way’ ideology with the intention of bridging the gap between the social democracy and new-liberalism (see section 6.2.1). In 1998, the new Liberal Democratic administration that replaced the previous Labour group, were proactive in promoting partnership, civic boosterism and entrepreneurship, and pushing forward the city centre’s regeneration ((Cocks, 2012) cited in (Sykes et al., 2013). The North West Development Agency NWDA was established to further increase the focus on economic and urban development on the core cities of Liverpool and Manchester (Williams and Baker, 2007). Further funding was grabbed by the city through a number of other areas-based regeneration initiatives (Cocks, 2009) (see section 6.2.1).

Despite Liverpool has grown recently in terms of its economy to “... one of the fastest growing cities, growing faster than other English Core Cities in 2003” (Liverpool City Council, 2003), however, the city still remains lagging behind its other core cities. The economy of the city suffers from long term issues; it has a higher rates of public sector employment and fewer private sectors business and jobs it should, for a city of its size, and with economic downturn, public sector is the most vulnerable to cuts (Biddulph, 2011). The wider UK and European economy also have a significant impact on the city’s performance and prosperity. The UK economy remains static in the after of the two recent recession, moreover, evidences and analysis shows that it will remain fragile in the years ahead. The European economy in general is likely to experience on-going pressure, while the Euro Zone is considered vulnerable (Liverpool Vision, 2012a).

Nowadays, Liverpool has adopted different strategies to regenerate itself. Culture has an increasing role as a catalyst for the city economy and image renaissance. The city has delivered ranges of new cultural assets and venues, and the city now is established as one of the UK's top five destinations (Vision, 2012a). Dominic Wilkinson (Interview, 2013) (the Ex-Chair of Liverpool Architectural Society) stressed that “...*Liverpool does have a very strong culture which helps not only with the image of the city but also economically with the music industry and the art culture in Liverpool is very important, the Biennial and tourists who come to Liverpool on the back of that, music festival like sound city, so Liverpool is a good weekend destination to things that happen in the city, so cultural regeneration is a reality in Liverpool and I think it is successful*”. Despite there are some concerns about the role culture can play in the future regeneration of the city, yet, cultural regeneration in Liverpool remains integral part of the process of transformation.

Having established this broader context, the subsequent chapters will examine the transformation of Liverpool urban waterfront. Three major eras have been identified; the MDC era between the 1980 and 1997, the urban renaissance era 1997-2012, and the city's future development from 2012 onward. Several internal and external factors led to classify those eras accordingly and they will be explored throughout the discussion. The following section will explore the first significant phase of Liverpool waterfront regeneration – the MDC era.

5.3 Liverpool Waterfront Regeneration 1980-1997

5.3.1 The Merseyside Development Corporation MDC

The MDC mission was to induce a private sector led economic recovery at the heart of the most economic depressed city in Europe. It was established under the Local Government Act 1980, and given the task of the physical regeneration of 865 acres of obsolete docklands of Merseyside which included three local authorities Liverpool, Sefton and Wirral on both banks of the river (The Comptroller and Auditor General, 1994). In fact, the MDC was not the first attempt to regenerate the derelict docklands of Liverpool, as stated by Couch (2003), there was an attempt for a nearly decade earlier when the City Council has published 'Liverpool South Docks: Principle of Redevelopment'. The intention of this report was to set up planning principles that should guide the redevelopment and maximizing the environmental and the economical outcomes while avoiding the undesirable interim conditions (Amos, 1972). Moreover, in 1975, the Docklands Action Group which was a pressure group that had formed and produced its own idea for the future of the area. The group aimed to awakening the public participation and using co-operatives and partnerships to redevelop the area for the benefit of local people (Couch, 2003).

However, despite the previous mentioned effort during the 1970s to bring the obsolete docklands into effective use, the Conservative Government by the early 1980s took the view that single-minded development agency would be more appropriate vehicle for such large scale projects and that's how the MDC had been established (Couch, 2003). This type of a new development corporation has been justified by the government that Liverpool Docklands required an agency with limited objectives operating in a closely defined area which would regenerate the area in more efficient and effective way rather than local authorities if were given the necessary powers and resources (Parkinson, 1988). It also has been argued that the MDC can create a greater political stability and create a more promising environment to encourage private developers.

Parkinson (1988, p. 112) stated that the MDC was established with four main tasks: to bring land and buildings into effective use; to encourage the development of new and existing commerce; to create an attractive environment and to ensure that housing and social facilities were available to encourage people to live and work in the same area. The power of MDC was very broad, it can acquire land by compulsory purchase or voluntary agreement, also by land can be vested in it by the Secretary of State. The MDC was like the local planning authority in its area with the power to determine planning applications by private sector and to grant consents (The Secretary of State for the Environment, 1980).

The MDC did not carry out the development itself; it just aimed to prepare the site for private sector to and housing associations. Parkinson (1988) has argued that the MDC had faced less community opposition than to the LDDC³. This was primarily because, most of the lands were non-residential and few people were working within its borders. Parkinson continued saying that despite the Liverpool docklands geographically close to the city centre, in reality they are physically self-contained and culturally and politically isolated from the rest of the city.

The MDC published its first plan the 'Initial Development Strategy' (IDS) in 1981 (Merseyside Development Corporation, 1981). The purpose of this plan was to set out a strategy for reclamation and identifying the land uses, it was a flexible framework for public and private sector investment, as pointed by Couch (2003) a guide to the control of development and a programme for land acquisition and reclamation.

The IDS had targeted to achieve a mixed use plan of industrial, commercial, residential and leisure development. 55% of the regenerated area was intended for industrial use; forty per cent commercial, recreational and residential; and five per cent for the port of Liverpool. In fact, after seven years the MDC has revised its strategy and became more flexible in responding to the market demands (Meegan, 1999).

The derelict area of the Merseyside did not attract the anticipated industrial uses. Fortunately, while the demand on the industrial uses was low, a demand on the leisure has been very high. In 1984, as Couch (2003) stated that there are three initiatives had showed the tourist potential of the area: the Albert Dock renovation which attracts over 2 million tourists to the area annually; the International Garden Festival which attracted almost three million; and the Tall Ships race which also had attracted 2 million visitors. With the success of these three events, the MDC shifted its strategy from focusing on attracting industrial uses to concentration upon leisure and tourist-based strategy.

During the early period of the establishment of the MDC from 1981-1988 most of its work has consisted of reclamation and restoration of Liverpool waterfront. Two major projects was the focus of MDC during that period: The International Garden Festival which cost over £30 million and the restoration of the Albert Dock with £25 million cost (Meegan, 1993).

The MDC started working on restoring the docks walls and gates to obtain the water system to operate through the docks. Also a limited amount of houses has been provided, a boat marina

³ LDDC London Docklands Development Corporation and the MDC are the first two development corporation established in the country to carry out a massive development program in their designated areas.

has been developed, and a business park has been renovated (Couch, 2003). Parkinson (1988) indicated that the majority of the bulk of MDC achievements during this period have been in physical regeneration and environmental improvement, it has transformed the physical appearance of the docklands. Albert Dock which is marked as the flagship project of the MDC was envisioned to be demolished in the 1970s now is the largest listed building grade I in the UK (Meegan, 1999).

During this period, the mid 1980s, Parkinson (1988) showed that the MDC had been criticized that it is not so far created substantial numbers of jobs, the MDC argued that the most of its expenditure so far has been preparing the ground for future economic expansion and that job increases will be made in the future.

The second period of the MDC lifetime started by 1988 when the government decided to increase the boundaries of the MDC almost three times and guaranteed further funding. This has resulted in increasing the influence of 'locality effects' in the form of sustained local political lobbying over the extended area (Parkinson, 1988). An interview with Chris Farrow (Assistant Director, Economic Development, MDC, December 1997), he indicated that the inclusion of considerable residential population certainly ran against the grain of central government thinking which was reluctant to see Development Corporations extending into residential areas because of the problems that will be accompanied with such extensions. In fact, this has resulted that the MDC strategy had been more oriented towards community based projects and more share of the MDC expenditure going to support residential development, training and business (Meegan, 1999). Therefore, throughout this short period between 1988 and 1992 the challenges faced the MDC in its new areas was totally different from the strictly physical regeneration which was needed in the dock areas and new techniques and approaches had been developed (Parkinson, 1988).

The MDC produced a new development strategy in 1990 together with detailed local area proposals (Couch, 2003). The aim of this new strategy was to create a 'comprehensive regeneration' in order to make the waterfront areas contextually integrated with the city as a whole and help Liverpool to recapture its position as a Global City (Merseyside Development Corporation, 1990). The strategy aimed to:

- Encourage enterprise, new business and help existing business to grow;
- Improve people's job prospects, their motivation and skills;
- Create a better environment for residents and business;
- Make inner areas more attractive places in which to live and work;
- Market Merseyside to potential investors, businessmen and tourists.

Couch (2003) commented that the new MDC strategies were more ambitious than those of the IDS back in 1981 where the main focus was on bringing the obsolete docklands into beneficial use. While the new strategies stressed on the economic development and support for private investment.

The third period of the MDC lifetime was between the 1992-1998, which witnessed the change of the MDC strategy from investment in land reclamation, building refurbishment and environmental improvement to 'place marketing' approach and much more engagement with private sector (Imrie and Thomas, 1999). Adapting an entrepreneurial approach was necessary as the changing of the political situation at all levels from local to national, in addition to, the social demands from the communities that the MDC was responsible for a more open, partnership type, approach (Meegan, 1999).

Many international investors had been attracted to this area and a number of flagship projects have been built. More cooperation with the local communities resulted in decreasing the amount of the unemployment in waterfront area and the city as a whole (Imrie and Thomas, 1999). Meegan (1999) pointed out that the reinforcing of the partnership approach was the catalyst of European regional development funding programmes.

In general, during the period of the MDC, the remarkable transformation of the waterfront has acquired a positive response in the city. Parkinson (1988) argued that the business, tourism and leisure strategies adopted by the MDC, opening up the waterfront to the public, and creating partnership approach with private sector and local communities have probably resulted in a very successful waterfront regeneration programme and created less of a gulf with its local community than had the LDDC in London.

In 1998 the MDC was wound up and all the power it held reverted to the Liverpool Borough under the process of 'de-designation'. However, the special purpose agencies charged with promoting urban regeneration such as the MDC were in fact heavily criticised. Turok and Shutt (1994) stated that most of these special purpose agencies were responsible for small areas and districts which led to the fragmentation of the regeneration efforts and created problems of coordination and prompted efforts to initiate 'partnerships' of various types. "In practice, collaboration has been hindered by the limited local accountability of these bodies and their pursuit of separate agendas. The context of constrained public resources has also fostered rivalry to secure available funds and discourage the exchange of experience and integration of activities that is vital to effective urban regeneration" (Turok and Shutt, 1994, p. 212).

However, the experience of Liverpool with the MDC was far from wholly negative; the relationship between the two was relatively harmonious, and much of the MDC regeneration was regarded as the physical symbol of the beginning of the recovery (Parkinson, 1988). Parkinson (1988, p. 118) stated “the MDC has given the lead to a developing tourism, leisure and cultural industries on Merseyside to which the local authorities are now responding”. Nevertheless, Couch (2003) criticised the approach of the MDC as one of the Urban Development Corporations (UDCs) as it was following ad-hoc initiatives and opportunism, and tending to have little regard to the wider plans for the development of the city, and thus, more isolated and less integrated areas. Consequently, a new form of regeneration agencies has been established by the end of 1999, which will be discussed in the next chapter. The following sections discuss the two major flagship projects of the MDC.

5.3.2 The Albert Dock Restoration

The Albert Dock is the greatest monument built in the Liverpool waterfront in 1846. It was designed by Jesse Hartley as the first enclosed dock system in which warehouses line the four sides of an enclosed dock and rising vertically from the dock walls, the merit is that goods can be unloaded directly from the ships into the warehouse minimising the risk of damage through repetitious handling and the danger of robbery. The Albert Dock has a unique structural system from iron, stone and brick without timber to avoid the building being burned in a case of fire. The Albert Dock was considered as a revolutionary docking system; two year after it opened it had featured the first hydraulic cranes. The design of Albert Dock as an enclosed dock made it very popular to store valuable goods such as cotton, tea, silk, ivory and sugar.

Despite being a landmark of Liverpool innovation of dock system, the Albert dock however, started to struggle just after 20 years of its completion. The dock is designed to cater for sailing ships, yet the development of steam ships meant that the size of the dock was too small; and by the beginning of 20th century the dock was only able to cater for only 7% of the Port of Liverpool Ships. Another design issues exacerbated the problem such as the small entrance which prevented large ships from entering besides the lack of quaysides.

During the May Blitz in 1941, a large part of Albert Dock was destroyed around 14% of its floor space. In the aftermath of the World War II, the financial problems of the owners of the Dock and the general decline of the Docking system due to the maritime technological changes, the Albert Dock fell slowly into decline and its future was no longer certain. Interestingly, the Albert Dock was granted Grade I listed building in 1952 as a recognition of its architectural and technological value.

Although the Albert Dock has been recognised nationally, yet there were number of proposals were aimed to redeveloped the land and demolish the Albert Dock during the 1960s and early 1970s but luckily they all failed to materialised. The Albert Dock by 1972 were emptied and closed down (Jones, 2004). Belchem (2006) pointed out that the Albert Dock in many sense as it has resembled the wealth of the city at the time of its construction, it is subsequent decline symbolised the collapse of the city local economy. Since the close down of the Albert Dock in 1972 until the establishment of the MDC in 1981, there were many attempts to regenerate the site but they all failed chiefly because the incapability of the Liverpool City Council to handle number of regeneration initiatives (Figure 5.11).



Figure 5. 11 \ The Albert Dock 1981, this picture shows the state of dereliction of the Albert Dock before the regeneration **Source** \ picture was taken by Photographer Matt Reardon (1981), Liverpool Forum Archive, <http://www.yoliverpool.com/forum/showthread.php?108121-Liverpool-s-Albert-Dock-Unseen-1981-Black-and-White-Images-Taken-by-18-Year-Old-Photographer-Matt-Reardon&highlight=albert+dock> [Accessed 5th February 2014]

The establishment of the MDC in 1981 was significant for the regeneration of Albert Dock. The use of public money to physically regenerate Liverpool south docks was seen crucial to attract private investment into the area. After two years of negotiation, the MDC created the Albert Dock Company which was responsible about the regeneration of the Albert Dock. The regeneration of the Albert Dock started with the restoration of Dock system which was badly deteriorated, and then in 1986 the Merseyside Maritime Museum moved into the Albert Dock.

In 1988 the work in TATE Liverpool was finished and the Albert Dock was officially opened by the Prince of Wales. Many have seen the decision of locating Tate gallery in Liverpool as major success of the city as it established Liverpool to be the hub for the modern art in the north (Interview with Meegan, 2012). In the same year, the ITV established a new studio in the Albert Dock and started to broadcast from there, two years later the Beatles Story museum opened adding more to the cultural significance of the Albert Dock. Throughout the 1990s many hotels, restaurants, and companies established their branches there, and eventually nowadays the place is one of most important tourist attraction in the North West region and also part of the city's UNESCO world heritage site (Figure 5.12).



Figure 5. 12 the Albert Dock after regeneration, the dock is now one of the most visited attractions in the North West region and it contains number of the leading cultural institutions **Source** the author (2013)

In interview with Meegan (2012) 'Professor of Urban Economics at LJMU', he argued that the regeneration of the Albert Dock was marked as a major shift in the city urban identity from a port city to a city with a port because the significance of port for Liverpool has substantially decreased, he further argued that despite this project was top-down, the MDC had adopted a very pragmatic approach and the project in its terms was quite successful. Grindrod (Interview, 2013) 'Senior staff of TATE Liverpool, and the director of Liverpool Waterfront Business Partnership' pointed to the importance of regeneration of the Albert Dock to wider waterfront arguing that the Albert Dock is more mature in terms of its development because the Albert Dock regeneration is here for a long time. The role played by the MDC was also immensely praised by Grindrod (2013), she said that without the MDC support the TATE and the other cultural institutions would probably not be there, also the continuous support from Liverpool

Vision (see 6.2.1) for Albert Dock now was crucial for Albert Dock to be a landmark attraction on its own.

The regeneration of Albert Dock was considered as a flagship regeneration project that successfully coupled built heritage with culture (Interview with Evans, 2012) 'Planning Expert, European Institute of Urban Affairs EIUA'. This was very important to the subsequent marketing and branding the city. Grindrod (Interview, 2013) elucidated that saying the brand of Liverpool waterfront now is much more stronger than before, the TATE Modern which is a contemporary brand in a great listed I building and WHS which actually very strong point in terms of reimagining the city.

Despite the success of Albert Dock regeneration, it was considered by many as an isolated landmark building on the edge of the waterfront and not really integrated with the city centre. This has been recognised lately in the regeneration of the city centre as a serious challenge which needs to be treated as an integral criterion for any future regeneration project in the city centre (see 6.3.2). Parkinson (Interview, 2013) 'The current director of EIUA, previously member of the board of the MDC' elucidated more saying that "the MDC did a lot of good things in the waterfront, when the dock were closed and derelict, they were entirely cut off from the rest of the city and they actually meant to be like that with its high walls for security purposes, the MDC, however, raised the quality standards but it did not manage to bridge the waterfront and the city centre they were actually two separate places". Parkinson (Interview, 2013) also pointed out that the Albert Dock as a tourist destination is great but there is a need to insert more other uses in order to get the right mix of activities.

In general, the Albert Dock regeneration merits are far exceeding its shortcomings. The regeneration has resulted in creating a quality place in the city's waterfront, and enhancing its historic identity and cultural offer.



Figure 5. 13 The Albert Dock, this photo shows the liveliness of the Albert Dock today **Source** It's Liverpool website <http://www.albertdock.com/attractions/tate-liverpool/> [Accessed 3rd February 2014]

5.3.3 The International Garden Festival

The International Garden Festival was the first garden festival to be held in the UK in 1984. The Conservative environment minister Michael Heseltine saw the introduction of tourism with a high hope to regenerate the city at the time when the city was suffering from the decline of the port and the other social problems such as the Toxteth 1981 riots. The Garden Festival was described by the BBC (2006) as "a five month pageant of horticultural excellence and spectacular entertainment". The Garden Festival was a great success for the city, it has attracted more than 3.5 million visitors for the city, and it is also included 60 individual gardens on an area of 950,000 square metres.

The Garden Festival was located on the south docks of Liverpool on an area that was derelict and needed to be cleared from industrial waste before the landscaping for the festival could begin. Liverpool has invested heavily in the festival as a part of urban regeneration policy and city marketing strategies. The festival was seen as particularly effective as tool to ally tourism objectives with urban planning (Quinn, 2005). However, the International Garden Festival unlike the Albert Dock was controversial. Couch (2003) pointed that the experience of the Liverpool International Garden Festival illustrated the consequences of unsatisfactory forward planning. the concept of a 'Garden Festival' was widespread in Germany, where such events

where held from time to time in different cities to celebrate the gardening and landscape arts and as a mechanism for reclaiming derelict land for future re-use (Couch, 2003).

What can be noticed is that the city tried to exploit the idea of cultural festivals as a quick fix for the economic and physical situation of the area; however, the outcomes of such approach as exemplified in Liverpool Garden Festival were limited and more complicated than it was anticipated besides the long term vision for the area was not clear which led after the closure of the festival to years of redundancy. Couch (2003, p. 125) stated that “what should be an asset to the local community has become instead a monument to the consequences of a failure to think through and plan the long term use of the site”. Nowadays, with a number of later initiatives the area is been partially developed into new housing development and some of the old gardens have been restored and reopened for visitors. In general, despite the project has been criticised by many academics, the project was quite successful in terms of changing the perception for the place from a waste land to an international destination besides some other social benefits.



Figure 5. 14\ The International Garden Festival in Liverpool Source

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/File:Liverpool_International_Garden_Festival_Japanese_Garden.jpg [Accessed 6th July 2013]

5.4 Conclusion

This chapter intended to review the historical transformation of Liverpool with specific focus on the city’s waterfront. It has highlighted the central role played by the waterfront in the process

of transformation of the city. Although the waterfront regeneration of this period has succeeded considerably in restoring some of the physical aspects of the waterfront and improving the environmental conditions of docks, on the other hand, it did not manage to contextually integrate the city with its waterfront. In fact, the waterfront regeneration of this period did not aim to address this issue and the wider issues of the city; this is due to the nature of the MDC as a special vehicle to address only the derelict docklands of Liverpool that falls within its confined zone. However, at that time, it was quite crucial to have such a powerful institution 'the MDC' to guide the development, restore the confidence of the private sector and attract leading cultural institutions. In general, the MDC period witnessed a significant shift from industrial based economy and port related activities towards cultural and visitors economy. This can be clearly seen in the two flagship regeneration projects of the MDC; the Albert Dock restoration and the International Garden Festival.

Chapter 6\ Liverpool Waterfront Regeneration (1997 - 2012)

6.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the process of transformation Liverpool waterfront between the period of 1997 and 2012. It focuses on the wider context of regeneration of this period as well as the specific regeneration projects that had accomplished. The aim is to develop a comprehensive understanding and identify lessons of good practice. The chapter will start by studying the context in which the urban regeneration took place. Four major initiatives and instruments that were of considerable importance were identified. These initiatives and instruments are structured according to the following headings: a new approach and vision, the establishment of Liverpool Vision; assuring the quality of the urban environment 'the design guides and development strategies'; seeking a global recognition 'the UNESCO World Heritage Site Status'; and a catalyst for regeneration 'the Liverpool Capital of European Culture'. The findings of the quantitative analysis of the news articles also presented in this section.

After establishing the context of the regeneration, the chapter then focuses on studying the major waterfront development schemes. It investigates how did they emerge and develop? What was their impact and contribution to the transformation process and reshaping the identity of the city? And what are the general issues that these schemes have raised? The regeneration projects are grouped in three major areas in which the most significant amount of regeneration took place. The areas comprises: the historical Pier Head Waterfront; the Paradise Street Development Area PSDA; and the Kings Waterfront. Lastly, the conclusion section will try to sum up the key features of the urban regeneration in this time period and state the main argument of the chapter.

6.2 The Context for the Development in Liverpool between 1997 and 2012

6.2.1 A New Approach and a New Vision; the Establishment of Liverpool Vision

The impact of national policy on the development of UK cities such as Liverpool, specifically the increased political recognition and promotion of urban design as a driver for better cities, cannot be overstated. To place Liverpool's transformation in context, a review of the policy initiatives which occurred over the last 20 years – and what they illustrate in terms of broader shifts in political thinking about public space and private development - is essential.

The year 1997 was pivotal for the cities across the UK, when a new national Labour government was elected. The government was keen in reinforcing the role of cities and adjust peoples' perception of urban life (Biddulph, 2011). It recognized that the performance of the cities will have a considerable bearing on the overall economic success, and therefore, the efficiency and the well-being of cities were of national concern (Begg, 1999). Although during the previous period (see (Biddulph, 2011)) London and south east of England had boomed, the new Labour party was very concerned about heartlands in cities in the rest of UK where the social and economic consequences of deindustrialisation was apparent.

The new government in 1998 set up the Urban Task Force UTF led by (Lord) Richard Rogers to establish a vision for urban life that will bring people back into cities. The establishment of UTF was a response to: the decline of regional inner-city areas and communities, an official prediction of a requirement for 4 million additional household, and suburban sprawl consuming greenfield sites as an alarming rate, causing social and economic decline within inner-city neighbourhoods (Rogers, 1999). The outcome was published a year later in the 313 report, *Towards an Urban Renaissance (1999)* which established a vision for urban regeneration based on the principles of design excellence, social well-being, and environmental responsibility, through a viable economic and legislative framework. Punter (2009) argued the report helped to reshape the planning system, housing and regeneration in the subsequent years in Britain, through focussing in particular on the role of urban design, which has been considered as a critical element in enhancing the quality and longevity of development, whilst becoming a key component of the progression towards zero-carbon development and more sustainable cities.

The UTF report was seen by number of critics as a clear commitment to entrepreneurial governance and gentrification (Lees, 2008, Punter, 2007). The report's 105 recommendations advocated for well designed, compacted and connected cities, supporting different range of

uses, where people live, work and enjoy in a well balance walkable neighbourhoods that are socially diverse (UTF, 2005). This was complemented by calling for effective public transport connecting these neighbourhoods to the wider urban context. The quality of public realm was also a major concern besides reducing the impact of cars on the neighbourhoods and the city as a whole (UTF, 2005).

Biddulph (2011) describes the new urban policy agenda of the new Labour government of the 1990s as offering middle grounds between both 'the New Right' (the Thatcher and Major governments known by privatisation, deregulation, specialist development agency-led) and the 'old left' (previous Labour government featured by more redistributive, regulatory plan-led Keynesian approach). This led to the emergence of new type of politics called 'the Third Way' (Figure 6.1), and the argument behind that is "as a consequence of fundamental processes such as globalisation, contemporary society is undergoing profound and irreversible changes and that these 'new times, call into question established political and policymaking frameworks" (Tiesdell and Allmendinger, 2001, p. 903).

However, the Third Way was fundamentally about modernisation. In urban regeneration context it has required a new type of organizations based on partnerships in order to combine and balance the interest and the agenda of public and private sectors (Giddens, 2013). Biddulph (2011) noted that the private sector would be responsible for delivering the space needed and the forms of development by emerging market, on the other side the public should be regulating against forms of development that inappropriate for a planned context, beside securing a community benefits through the use of planning gain powers.

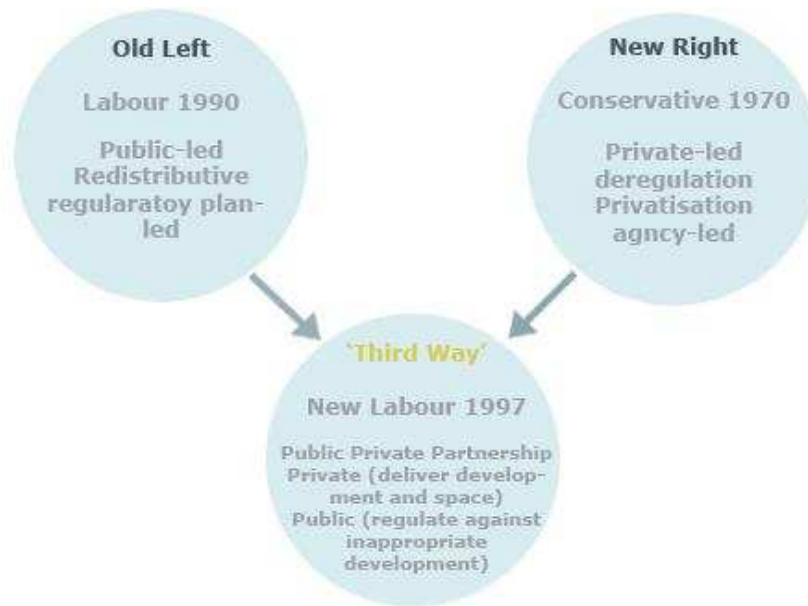


Figure 6. 1 \ The Third Way policy which characterised this period of development **Source** \ the author

The impact of the Urban Task Force report was significant for Liverpool; it has grabbed the attention of the city to the role that urban design can play and this has been reflected through policy initiatives, design strategies and new developments.

Liverpool, soon after the publication of UTF's report, established *Liverpool Vision* in 1999 as the UK's first Urban Regeneration Company 'URC' (see section 2.3.3.3) with the aim of guiding the regeneration of the city centre and the waterfront (Parkinson, 2008). *Liverpool Vision* aimed to bring key public and private sector agencies to strengthen the city economy and enable it to compete more effectively in international markets than ever before. *Liverpool Vision* was a partnership organization formed to build consensus between the organizations responsible for delivering projects. These organisations are Liverpool City Council LCC, Homes and Communities Agency, North West Development Agency NWDA, and Liverpool City Region Local Enterprise Partnership LEP (Vision, 1999). The establishment of *Liverpool Vision* was seen by many critics as a significant step in the process of transforming the city. Rob Burns (Interview, 2013) stressed on the importance of establishing a combined approach arguing that, "a number of key projects would not be delivered if it was only LCC or just *Liverpool Vision*, such projects need a political mind in which only *Liverpool Vision* cannot deliver, besides it needs an entrepreneurial forward thinking in which also the LCC clearly lacks, thus, the two working together was crucial". Similarly, Michael Parkinson (Interview, 2013) reflects on the role played by *Liverpool Vision* saying that "*I think historically Liverpool was very bad in creating partnerships, there was a great antagonism between public sector and private sector. Now with Liverpool Vision, there is a new sort of mood, a new relationship, a new culture, the place as*

partnership, the place as a business and all those sort of things. Obviously, the place is run differently now than once it was”.

Liverpool Vision identified that the city centre and the waterfront were potentially major drivers for economic and social change in the city as a whole (Vision, 1999). The reasons behind this were; the availability of land around the city centre and the commercial core, the high quality of the historic environment and the need to regenerate it, the area is the most visited and most seen by the residents as well as the visitors, the existence of economic drivers such as the two Universities, retailing and vibrant culture (Biddulph, 2011). Parkinson (2008) noted that the failure of previous initiatives to regenerate the city centre was due to the lack of focus and also the failure to engage the private sector enough. In 1999, Liverpool Vision commissioned an international consortium to produce a plan for Liverpool, and after extensive public consultation the plan titled ‘Strategic Regeneration Framework (SRF)’ was published in 2000.

The SRF set very ambitious long term strategic goals designed to raise the aspiration of the city, the document was produced to hone the vision and establish the way in which the city centre was to develop physically, whilst showing flexibility in, identifying different potential development scenarios, with the aim of providing guidance for a number of bodies including: the city council, Liverpool Vision, North West Development Agency NWDA and the private sector, on priorities for the dynamic evolution of the waterfront and the City Centre (SOM, 2000). The SRF contained many of the recommendations that later shaped the transformation of the city. In terms of urban design, the document was fundamentally about creating better places. It included analysis of the different magnets in the city centre and the waterfront and the quality of the connections between them, it also identified the run-down areas and the possible positive interventions. However, The SRF was not only an urban design document, in fact, the document as pointed by Biddulph (2011) was intimately tied a concern for physical form and quality into a wider debate about economic and social issues possibilities.

The SRF identified seven Action Areas and five Supporting Themes in order to focus on deliverability of the strategy and achieve the overall vision of the regeneration (The main recommendations arising from the SOM are summarised in table 6.1). The Action Areas (Figure 6.2) aimed to; concentrate related activities in distinctive neighbourhoods; enable the City Council to create a co-ordinated approach to project delivery; and generate the optimum regeneration and economic benefit to the city. On the other hand, the SRF Supporting Themes are envisaged as being the City Centre wide and link between the actions areas together. The Supporting Themes is not exclusively physical connection, but it extended beyond that to cover economic and culture strategies.

In general, the SRF was fundamental to the subsequent developments of Liverpool’s City Centre and the waterfront. In essence, it was about modernisation and trying to transform the city to a place for living, working and entertaining. The SRF was exactly what the city needed in a time when the city had no clear vision. A number of specific documents were produced following the publication of this strategy that will be discussed in the following section.

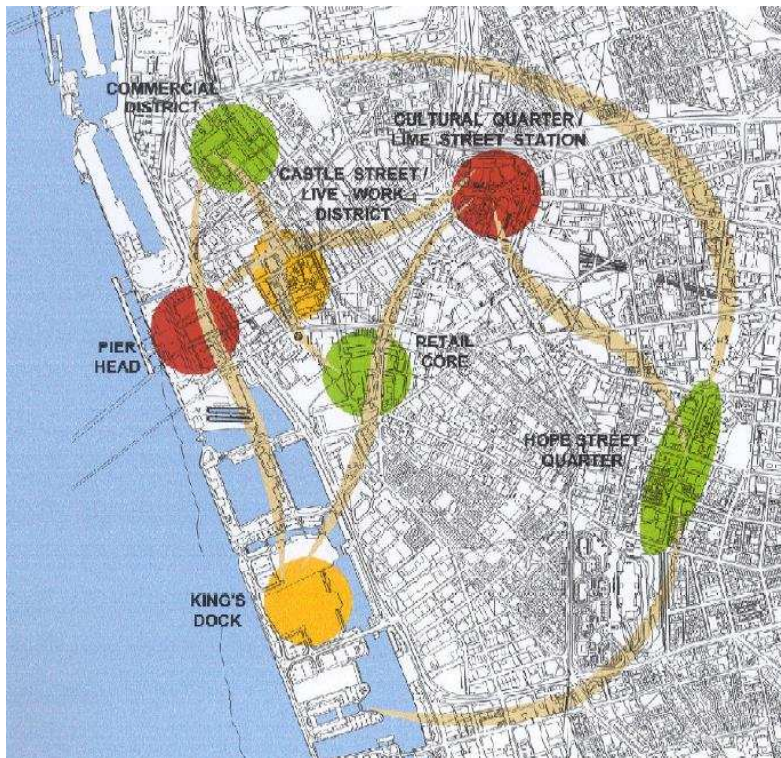


Figure 6. 2\ SRF Action Areas plan Source\ (SOM, 2000)

To sum up, the emergence of ‘Third Way’ policy has significantly led to the establishment of the Liverpool Vision ‘Urban Regeneration Company’ as a new type of public-private agencies with the aim of guiding the development and attracting investors. Liverpool Vision was a key in establishing a shared vision through the SRF which was of considerable importance for the regeneration of Liverpool during that time.

SRF Recommendations	SRF Action Areas	SRF Supporting Themes
	<p>The Pier Head</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Redesign the Strand as a “maritime boulevard” • Activate the ground floors of the “Three Graces” • Construction of a “<i>Fourth Grace</i>” 	<p>Capital of Culture</p> <p>Raise the international profile of Liverpool by maximising its cultural strength and assets.</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • 2008 European Capital of Culture bid • 2007 800th Birthday Celebrations • World Heritage Site Status

<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Construction of a Mixed-Use Terminal Building 	
<p>Commercial District (Business Exchange)</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Introduce Branding Programme - Business Exchange • Improve entries to Moorfield Station • Connect to Princes Dock • Provide links to the north, across Leeds Street 	<p>Connectivity</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Implement a balanced movement strategy that delivers an approachable and accessible City Centre for all • Deliver a unique high-quality public realm that unifies the City Centre
<p>Castle Street / Live-Work District</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Revisions to the traffic management network • Streetscape enhancement / pedestrian priority of area streets • Activate and up-grade the ground floors of buildings on Castle Street and in the Live-Work District • Redesign Exchange Flags public open space 	<p>Community Engagement</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Continue community engagement process through workshops, displays and exhibitions to disseminate Strategic Framework to the wider community. • Establish an interactive programme of engagement as action plans are developed.
<p>Cultural Quarter / Lime Street Station</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Streetscape enhancement of surrounding streets • Introduction of commercial use of St George's Hall and St John's Gardens • Refurbishment of St George's Hall 	<p>Reinforcing City Communities</p> <p>Reinforce City Communities by making the most of current and future City Centre opportunities so that economic and social disparities between communities are eradicated.</p>
<p>Retail Core</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Create a well-planned, dynamic and vibrant shopping experience by creating a step-change in the quality of the offer • Regenerate the existing Retail Core • Integrate exciting new retail opportunities within the PSDA 	<p>Business Development</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Focusing on businesses with real growth potential • Development of City Centre Clusters • Getting the business friendly context right. • Establish a Liverpool City targeted marketing Strategy
<p>King's Dock</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Examine and analyse possible uses: <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - conference / convention / exhibition centre arena - waterfront park / water gardens - family leisure and entertainment facilities 	
<p>Hope Street Quarter</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Provide new and enhanced public open spaces. • Plan for improved pedestrian linkages through the area and beyond into the rest 	

- of the City Centre and adjoining districts.
- Streetscape enhancements to key streets
 - The establishment of a network of squares and spaces

Table 6. 1 this table summarises the SRF (2000) action areas and supporting themes **Source** adapted from SOM (2000)

6.2.2 Assuring the Quality of the Urban Environment: Design Review and Design Guides

The idea of urban design and place making was a major concern for the national government as well as the local authority. This, however, mirrored in adopting two key measures. The first was the design review process and the second was design guides and strategies.

In 1999, at the same time when the new government commissioned the Lord Rogers to produce Towards an Urban Renaissance report, it also established the Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment (CABE) to improve and raise the quality of built environment, promote effective treatment of design matters, facilitate training for developers, local authorities and communities on design agendas, and establishing a design review processes nationally and subsequently locally (CABE, 2003). CABE shows, in fact, the desire and the commitment of the new government to the urban design agenda as a way of solving many of the issues related to urban decline and deterioration.

In Liverpool similar to CABE yet on a regional level, the city council established Liverpool Architecture and Design Trust LATD, the organisation with a small permanent staff and volunteers from local universities and design practices; it aimed to raise the awareness of the value of design for the city in parallel with the emerging debate nationally. The LATD also similar to CABE established a design review panel to comment on schemes and planning applications submitted to the city council. The LATD duplicated the design review of CABE which also review major projects in Liverpool, in the design and development process, whilst comments of both not always in agreement which usually frustrates the local planning authorities (Biddulph, 2011). Simultaneously, there were also another two design review organization in Liverpool the first was Liverpool Urban Design and Conservation Area Panel 'LUDCAP' and the second managed by Places Matters which also offers the same like CABE and LATD⁴.

⁴ Today, apart from Places Matters all other design review committees have been scaled down that is because the issue of urban design and place making became down the agenda of the recent government.

Despite the significant emphasis that was placed on the role of design review which was reflected in the number of organisations offering that, yet, the extent to which the design reviews process influenced shaping the quality of places is debatable. Some critics think that the design review process was very important to ensure as far as possible that the regeneration projects are consistent with the urban design agenda of Richard Rogers report (Interview with Brown, 2013), Skempton (Interview, 2013) 'Merseyside Civic Society' also argued that design review was a very important component that contributed to the success of number of projects in the city centre and the waterfront. However, on the other hand, the design review process was deeply criticised by sometimes inconsistent, ill-informed, and not particularly useful which in many cases create frustration for both developers as well as the local planning authority (Interview with Burns, 2013) 'the Urban Design and Heritage Manager in LCC'.

Design Guides were also used in parallel with design review to provide examples of good practices and draw attention to the general issues of urban design. Design Guides as defined by Short (2007) are the documents and the policies which are particularly produced to guide the design of new building proposals whether these documents were in national level or local, or whether they were for specific types of developments (e.g. tall building) or urban design guidance. On the national level the Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment (CABE) and English Heritage are the two bodies known for producing design guidance whereas Local Planning Authorities LPAs are the responsible for that task in their localities.

CABE and English Heritage have jointly produced number of general design guidance documents that have influenced the way in which cities think about their localities. One of these documents that has greatly influenced the newly emerging tall building developments in Liverpool as well as other UK's cities is a document titled 'Guidance on Tall Buildings', produced jointly by CABE and English Heritage which shows how the two organizations evaluate proposals for tall buildings. In addition, it offers advice on good practice regarding the planning process of tall buildings. This document also helps the LPAs to inform their policy making and evaluate the proposals of tall buildings if there are no appropriate policies in place (CABE and Heritage, 2007). The House of Commons (2002) has criticised this report for the ambiguity in function of the organizations that produced this guidance: English Heritage is body that in charge of protecting the built heritage in the face of new developments while CABE is calling for a quality architecture of contemporary values. However, the pressure for new developments coupled with the existence of design guidance such as this guidance of CABE-English Heritage at the national level have found a great response in individual cities. A review for guidance and planning policy by Short (2007) revealed that there are a wide variety of frameworks and

ranging from short policy statements in development plans, to complex and broad urban design guidance.

Power of Place (2000) was also an important document which has been published in response to the Urban White Paper (ODPM, 2000). The report advocated for parameters that would result in the future of built heritage as a catalyst for regeneration (English Heritage, 2000). This report has also extended the use to the concept of 'character' to be used in conservation planning of urban areas rather than it was previously used for archaeological sites only. The use of characterization in conservation planning aims to define what makes a place special which helps as pointed by Thomas (2004) to estimate how much change could be made, and of what sort, a place can absorb without losing its distinctive qualities. Similar to this is another document published jointly by CABE and English Heritage in 2001 titled 'Building in Context'. The document aims to stimulate high quality of design when development takes place in historically sensitive contexts. The document comprises a number of case studies in which the achievements were far above the expectations and tries to draw some lessons both about design and about development and planning process (CABE and Heritage, 2001).

In 2008, English Heritage produced a key document that covers the management of new developments in historic environment titled 'Conservation Principles, Policies and Guidance for the Sustainable Management of the Historic Environment'. This report has been developed through extensive debate and consultation with a number of the organizations working in the area of heritage preservation. The aim of producing the Principles, Policy and Guidance as stated "*...is to set a logical approach to making decisions and offering guidance about all aspects of the historic environment, and for reconciling its protection with the economic and social needs and the aspirations of the people who live in it*" (English Heritage, 2008, p. 13). Table 6.2 summarises this document.

The majority of the design guides on a national level were concerned about the issues of heritage conservation and urban design; this was a reaction to the massive physical regeneration projects that were happening in all the UK cities. Couch (Interview, 2012) pointed that national design guides were very important in drawing the attention of planners and architects to the issues of built heritage through a fairly consistent number of publications.

Theme	Principles
Conservation Principles	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Principle 1: The historic environment is a shared resource ▪ Principle 2: Everyone should be able to participate in sustaining the historic environment ▪ Principle 3: Understanding the significance of places is vital ▪ Principle 4: Significant places should be managed to sustain their values

	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Principle 5: Decisions about change must be reasonable, transparent and consistent ▪ Principle 6: Documenting and learning from decisions is essential
Heritage Values	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Evidential value: the potential of a place to yield evidence about past human activity. ▪ Historical value: the ways in which past people, events and aspects of life can be connected through a place to the present – it tends to be illustrative or associative. ▪ Aesthetic value: the ways in which people draw sensory and intellectual stimulation from a place. ▪ Communal value: the meanings of a place for the people who relate to it, or for whom it figures in their collective experience or memory.
Assessing heritage significance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Understand the fabric and evolution of the place ▪ Identify who values the place, and why they do so ▪ Relate identified heritage values to the fabric of the place ▪ Consider the relative importance of those identified values ▪ Consider the contribution of associated objects and collections ▪ Consider the contribution made by setting and context ▪ Compare the place with other places sharing similar values ▪ Articulate the significance of the place.
Managing change to significant places	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ Establishing whether there is sufficient information to understand the impacts of potential change ▪ Considering the effects on authenticity and integrity ▪ Taking account of sustainability ▪ Considering the potential reversibility of changes ▪ Comparing options and making the decision ▪ Applying mitigation ▪ Monitoring and evaluating outcomes.

Table 6. 2 Summary of 'Conservation Principles, Policies and Guidance for the Sustainable Management of the Historic Environment' **Source** (English Heritage, 2008)

On the local level, design guides tend to be in a form of development strategies. Liverpool has introduced number of development strategies after the SRF (2000) in order to further guide the developments in the action areas and detail the supporting themes. In 2000, Liverpool City Council in partnership with Liverpool Vision and Mersey Travel published the Liverpool City Centre Movement Strategy CCMS. The aim was to shape the city's transportation policies and public realm objectives, leading to a transformation of how the city centre is used and perceived. The CCMS called for taking balanced approach to the delivery of three main elements of the physical regeneration process; transport and movement, urban design and public realm; and development and regeneration (LCC et al., 2000). Other key elements of the CCMS are pedestrian priority areas; high quality public transport connecting the existing transport hubs and new major development areas; and revised traffic circulation and parking plans. LCC (2004a) explains that the CCMS aimed to integrate planning and design of both transport and public realm works through the suggested pedestrian priority areas. The CCSM incorporates pedestrian friendly urban design as a part of the development of transport and infrastructure

investment program. As a whole, the CCMS was very successful in the development of pedestrian friendly approach which has created a thriving and vibrant environment and encouraged people to use the city centre for different purposes (Figure 6.3 & 6.4).

Another document was Liverpool Urban Design and Development Guide UDDG (2003). The guide reflects as pointed by Biddulph (2011) the language and the agenda of urban design, and therefore, it connects to the wider way of thinking what urban design can achieve. It was very good in general and effective in educating and encouraging architects and developers to be more sensitive to their environment (Interview with Couch, 2012). However, the Merseyside Civic Society MSC criticized the UDDG as it could be applied to any urban area and needs to be made exclusive to the city. Also the MCS argued that despite this document demands a high standard urban quality, this needs to be reflected in adequate dedicated professional skill and member support, the Local Planning Authority does not have the capacity to deliver a good design quality, it approves incomplete work, does not impose design standards, or pursue enforcement and has a little dialogue with public (MDC, 2002).



Figure 6. 3 The City Centre Movement Strategy Map **Source** (LCC et al., 2000)



Figure 6. 4 Liverpool City Centre, the quality of public realm has significantly improved with the adoption of the CCMS Source\ the author (2013)

In 2004, Liverpool City Council sought to further detail the public realm strategies that have been proposed by the previous two documents. A Public Realm Implementation Framework was introduced, the purpose was to set quality and performance parameters within which and public realm to be designed and implemented (LCC, 2004a). The document involves categorizing the streets and the public spaces in regards to their proposed movement function and also character. Public realm was classified as strategic streets and boulevards, city streets, pedestrianized streets, major squares and gardens, water spaces, city squares, garden courts, pocket parks and public buildings. A set of design requirements and principles was set for each category, and then number of projects was developed to enhance the city's public realm. Biddulph (2011) argued that this document shows a noteworthy development in the way of thinking about and implementing urban design projects (Figure 6.5).

There are several other strategies documents produced by Liverpool Vision and Liverpool City Council many of them are very specific to certain action areas and others are more towards implementation, yet, the previously reviewed strategies are the ones that have the most significant impact.

At large, design guidance documents tend to use more encouraging language such as 'could' instead of 'should' (Biddulph, 2011), thus, this creates sometimes confusion amongst developers and architects of how much compulsory is it? Some see it as a policy and others as advice

(Interview with Burns, 2013). The main issue that design guidance might cause, specifically if the guidance is designed to target a certain defined area, is how strict the guidance is? Burns (Interview, 2013) gave the example that “in Liverpool we have got the Tall Building Guidance in the World Heritage Site SPD and this caused a series trouble with UNESCO, they requested the city to have more strict guidelines and determine the locations and the heights of the buildings”. Burns (Interview, 2013) heavily criticised having a strict guidance arguing that “this not the way cities should evolve and certainly city like Liverpool did not evolve that way, also we have already over regulated and there is a danger of that. Furthermore, the city should not be one organization vision because there could be developers can come with better ideas but if there is strict guidance it will stop them and that kills creativity which is in turn the essence of Liverpool” (Interview with Burns, 2013).

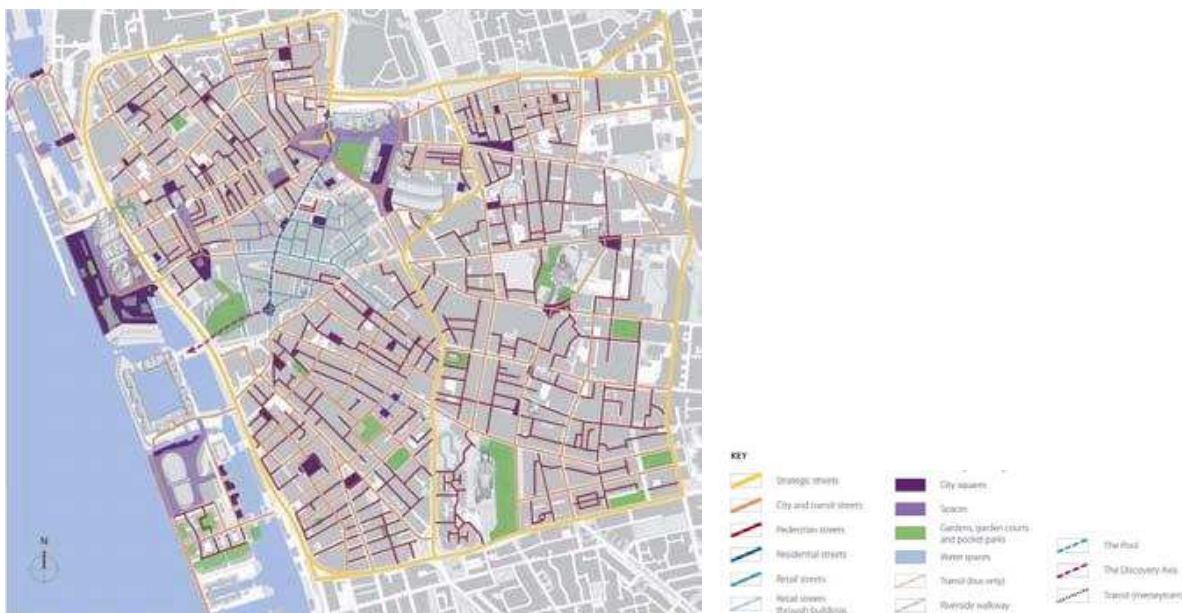


Figure 6.5\ Public Realm Implementation Framework Source\ LCC (2004a)

In summary, many of the factors that shaped the transformation of the city as discussed previously were caused by national and supranational economic trend and policies whether it could be considered bad ‘Thatcher Policies of Privatisation’ or good ‘towards an urban renaissance report’, thus, they are ‘top-down’ and there is not much that a city like Liverpool can do to affect those variable (Kresl, 1995). However, there are many aspects of policies, strategies and guidelines that a city such as Liverpool can control. This period shows a very significant contrast to the previous period where huge concern placed on urban design and the matters of heritage conservation being discussed on a national and local level. Comparing that with the previous period the value of place and design was entirely ignored. Biddulph (2011)

affirms this saying, this links to the new form of governance by which the place is treated as a valuable asset, rather than a location of living or work.

6.2.3 Seeking A Global Recognition; UNESCO World Heritage Site WHS (2004)

Liverpool's significant heritage is considered amongst the richest in the country, defining the character and the identity of the city (LCC, 2001). LCC (2001) recognized in the 'Strategic Policy' that Liverpool new development proposals should ensure protection and enhancement of city's historic fabric which is an integral part of Liverpool's distinctive character. In 2004, Liverpool has inscribed to the World Heritage Site by UNESCO as "*a supreme example of a commercial port at the time of Britain's greatest influence*" (UNESCO, 2004). The status ranks Liverpool alongside other internationally well-known historic cities such as Bath, Vienna, Venice, and Edinburgh. There are three principles for why Liverpool has outstanding universal value as declared by the UNESCO (2004);

- Liverpool was central in the development of dock construction, port management and internationally trading systems of the 18th and 19th centuries.
- The port's structure and buildings is a significant testimony to the mercantile culture.
- Liverpool played a major role in shaping the today demography by involving in two activities, a) through its involvement in slave trade between Africa and America and b) through its involvement as a leading port of mass European emigration to the New World.

The inscribed area of the WHS is consisted of six distinctive historic quarters that have relatively different functions. The area expands along the Albert Dock through the Pier Head and all the way to Stanley Dock, also through the historic commercial districts and the Ropewalks area to the historic cultural quarter around William Brown Street (UNESCO, 2004). A buffer zone around the inscribed area which incorporates much of the rest city centre and the waterfront was also defined (Figure 6.6). The aim of the WHS list is to ensure that the site universal outstanding value is conserved and understood. The status of WHS is considered as the most prestigious internationally-recognised heritage status which can provide the city with a significant opportunity to promote this unique status, also to increase civic pride and flourishing cultural tourism (UNESCO, 2004).

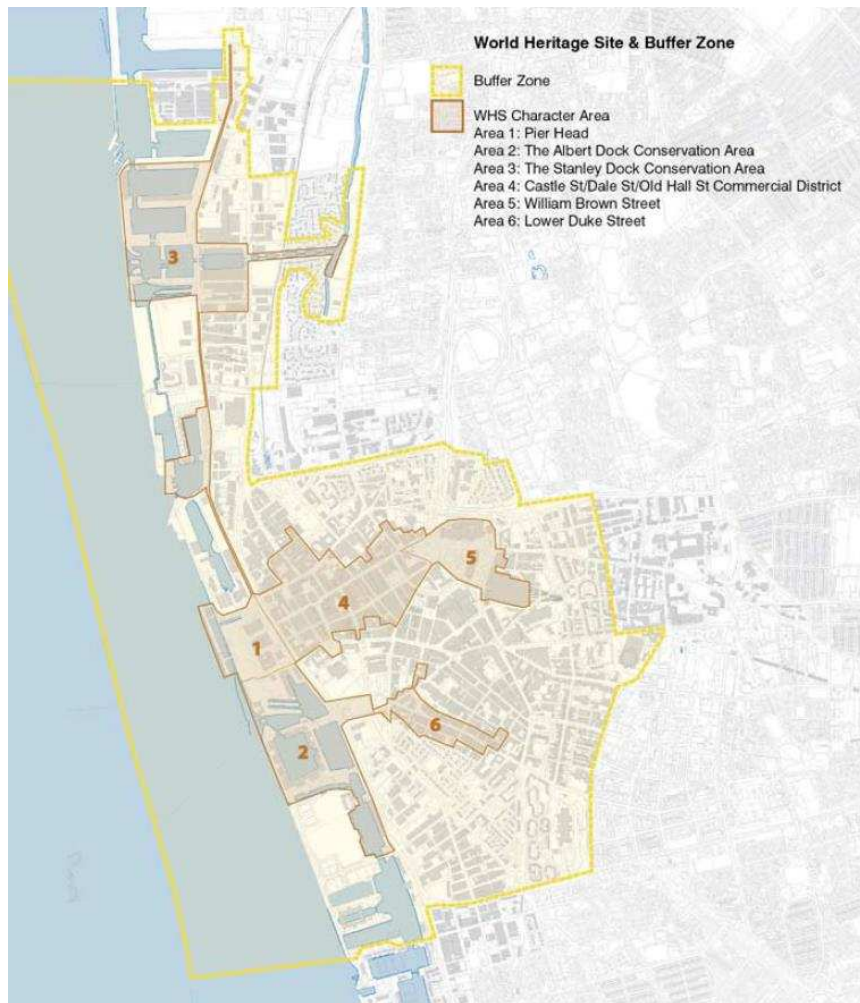


Figure 6. 6 World Heritage Site and its buffer zone **Source** (LCC et al., 2009)

In general there are two ways of looking at the WHS as pointed by a Former NWDA Senior Official (Interview with the Author, 2013); first as an additional device for the conservation control for the WHS and its buffer zone (this will be discussed in the context of each development that have started after the WHS status), second, as a device for changing Liverpool image for the external world and make it as a city where people think about it in positive way, the city that is very rich culturally and has a very fascinating history, he also pointed out that "... the WHS which I was instrumental to get it, would have been a very useful tool for the city to reimage itself but the city did not used it positively at all, it is an opportunity which completely missed by the people who run the city". In regards to the news article analysis, it shows that although the WHS status represents a huge step for the new emerging city's image, very modest news articles coverage for this achievement was reflected on the national and local news articles with only one article to be found in the Guardian. The article titled "UNESCO sets seal on Liverpool's renaissance",

UNESCO (2004) stated that *“Liverpool Maritime Mercantile City WHS offers a wealth of educational, tourism and leisure opportunities which should be fully utilized to enhance the experience of living in and visiting the city”*, yet despite that many questioned its economic impact on the city. Meegan and Wilkinson (Interview with the Author, 2012, 2013) argued that how much economically the city has benefited from the WHS is questionable, the tourists do not come to Liverpool because it is a WHS, many of them come started to come because other reasons such as the cheap Easy Jet flights and Liverpool Airport, and also because of the cultural offer that the city has such as the Beatle Story, and other cultural activities so they will come whether it is WHS or not. Here a former NWDA senior official heavily criticised the city saying that *“... they did not respond positively to the WHS, wonderful example of the low profile of the WHS in positive terms I occasionally go in to museum tourist information centre in the city and I just say to the staff at the reception have you got anything about the WHS and the usual respond is completely blank look they know nothing about it at all, they don't know that the city is a WHS so whatever the reason that why the city has not the WHS to advantage itself but it has of course meant to that EH and UNESCO have more control on what we build here”*.

6.2.4 A Catalyst for Regeneration; Liverpool Capital of European Culture 2008

The European Capital of Culture ECoC is a scheme in which a European city is awarded the accolade of capital of culture. It has started in 1985 and became the one of the most prestigious and high profile events in Europe (Commission, 2011). The award is made on rotational based every year with each member state nominating a city to represent them during the allocated year (Connolly, 2011). The aims of this award as stated by Commission (2011) are: to highlight the richness and diversity of European culture; celebrate the cultural ties that links Europeans together; bring people from different European countries into contact with each other's culture and promote mutual understanding; and foster a feeling of European citizenship. In addition to that, many studies have shown that the event is valuable chance to: regenerate cities; raise their international profile and enhance their image in the eyes of their own inhabitants; give a new vitality to their cultural life; and boost tourism (Commission, 2011). Glasgow city was first city allocated the award in 1990 and Liverpool most recently in 2008.

Connolly (2011) indicates that the winning bid of the Liverpool City can be seen as top down urban cultural planning: while it recognized the entrepreneurial approach to develop its infrastructure, marketing and rebranding the city (Figure 6.7), it is at the same time denied the entrepreneurial strategy throughout the promotion of a discourse of local community and 'people based regeneration'. Liverpool City Council (2002) declared that “regenerating the industrial landscape is top of the agenda. Culture, with its potential to drive both tourism and

inward investment, as well as deal with the enormous challenges of regeneration communities, is a key tool in dealing with this”.



Figure 6. 7 Liverpool Capital of Culture 2008 helps to rebrand the city **Source** acquire from <http://www.ibocc.org/news.php?ref=64> [Accessed 12th August 2014]

The Liverpool City Council as a result of its new approach mentioned above set up a new inclusive organization the Liverpool Culture Company in July 2000 with the purpose of planning and delivering the event of the European Capital of Culture (LCC, 2005). It is clear from the name Liverpool Culture Company the intention to link the culture with the entrepreneurial approach in order to deliver a successful economic regeneration. However, Connolly (2011, p. 9) has criticised this approach saying that “the commitment to economic and social regeneration within Liverpool approach proved to be both a blessing and a curse: a blessing in that it contributed to its winning the award; a curse in that the tensions and incompatibilities within such approach inevitably destabilized Liverpool’s plans for Capital of Culture ‘COC08’”.

The Liverpool Culture Company ‘LCC’ was initially established to prepare the bid for the UK European Capital of Culture through engaging with a wide variety of individuals and organizations at all levels with the aim of enlisting their support in drawing up the formal bid documentation (LCC, 2005). Another one of the key tasks was stated by the LCC (2005) is to set up the strategic vision, coordinating and supporting the city’s cultural infrastructure with private, public and non-profit sector partners, and through this creative collaboration the Liverpool City will place itself as a destination within Europe for culture, tourism and investment. In fact, after the awarding of Liverpool the accolade of the capital of culture, the LCC has started to move from bidding to delivery organization.

The Liverpool Central theme for 2008 was ‘The World in One City’ which was built on the history of the city as it was the world link through trade and transportation. LCC (2005, p. 8) stated that the city through hosting the European Capital of Culture aimed to achieve three goals;

1. Sustainable Cultural Infrastructure: developing cultural capital by increasing and enhancing the cultural infrastructure, encouraging new products, processes and enterprises in culture and creative industries sector;
2. An Inclusive and Dynamic Community: developing social and human capital by increasing local participation in cultural activities to increase community cohesiveness; and
3. A premier European City: developing our economic capital by improving the range and the quality of the city's infrastructure with city centre and community renewal.

Garcia et al. (2010) pointed that the ECoC programme tended to operate on different levels, in particular on the context of the broad urban regeneration, the intention of regenerating and repositioning the city and enhance its image was at the heart of the ECoC vision. Daramola-Martin (2009) indicated the ECoC 2008 coupled with the physical regeneration of the city centre and the waterfront which was the largest of its type in the whole Europe have transformed the image and the perception of the city and offered the city the way out from a succession of failed initiative, underinvestment, economic decline, and rebrand the city.

Since Liverpool was chosen, the LCC worked within the context of themed year programs, with the aim of focusing on increasing the quality and the range of activities. The central theme of the Liverpool Capital of Culture was 'The World in One City' which has started in 2003 with a timeline of themed years, 2003 the year of learning, 2004: Faith in One City, 2005: Sea Liverpool, 2006: Liverpool Performers, 2007: 800th Birthday (year of Heritage), 2008: European Capital of Culture, 2009: Environment, 2010: Innovation (LCC, 2005). During these years' themes, the issue of creativity was the central plank of Liverpool's economic and social development, here, Connolly (2011) pointed out Liverpool has promoted itself as a 'creative hub' by applying the New Labour's approach of joining cultural industry to the new high-tech industry: thus forming a new industrial sector, creative industry.

As engaging with the people and achieving social inclusion was a key aspect which led to the success of the Liverpool bid to become the ECoC, Liverpool Culture Company and Liverpool City Council have placed a great focus on the role of the ECoC on achieving social cohesion and community change as well as broadening access and engagement in culture (Garcia et al., 2010) (Figure 6.8). However, despite the great positive impact on the social development, Connolly (2011) has heavily criticised the Liverpool creative approach saying that within the social objectives the unresolved tension between the entrepreneurial approach and community based regeneration became very obvious. He continued (2011, p. 13) "the analysis of Liverpool's social instrumentalism demonstrated that the way in which this turn to the cultural and creative as part of a social inclusion discourse, marks a profound ideological shift in that it disallows an

engagement with the structural -which underpins a social justice approach- and endorses an essentially neo-liberal conception of exclusion that focuses on cultural as the key locus of social marginalization”.

The city of Liverpool used to have very negative media coverage on the UK national media that was reflected directly on creating a negative pre-conception about the city, especially after the decline of the port, in addition to, the significant increase in the level of unemployment and the high rates of deprivation. Nonetheless, Garcia et al. (2010) pointed out that since the ECoC has been awarded to Liverpool in 2003, a remarkable change in approach to media coverage about the city in national and local perceptions. In general, the impact of ECoC on Liverpool was significant for key two reasons: to increase the pace of regeneration and to rebrand the city as a city of culture. The subsequent section is presenting the findings of the qualitative analysis of the news article collection.



Figure 6. 8\ La Machine’s giant spider, making her way through the streets of Liverpool – one of the events of Liverpool CoC 2008 which has contributed in engaging the public and changing the image of the city **Source**\ acquired from http://www.liv.ac.uk/researchintelligence/issue39/images/la_machine.jpg [12th August 2014]

6.3 The Major Development Schemes between 1997 and 2012

This section aims to study the major developments that completed in Liverpool waterfront between 1997 and 2012. This will allow a deeper understanding for the impact of the each development on the process of transformation the waterfront. Three key areas have had transformed significantly during the period from 1997 and 2012. The Areas are; the Pier Head Waterfront, the Paradise Street Development Area, and Kings Dock (Figure 6.15).

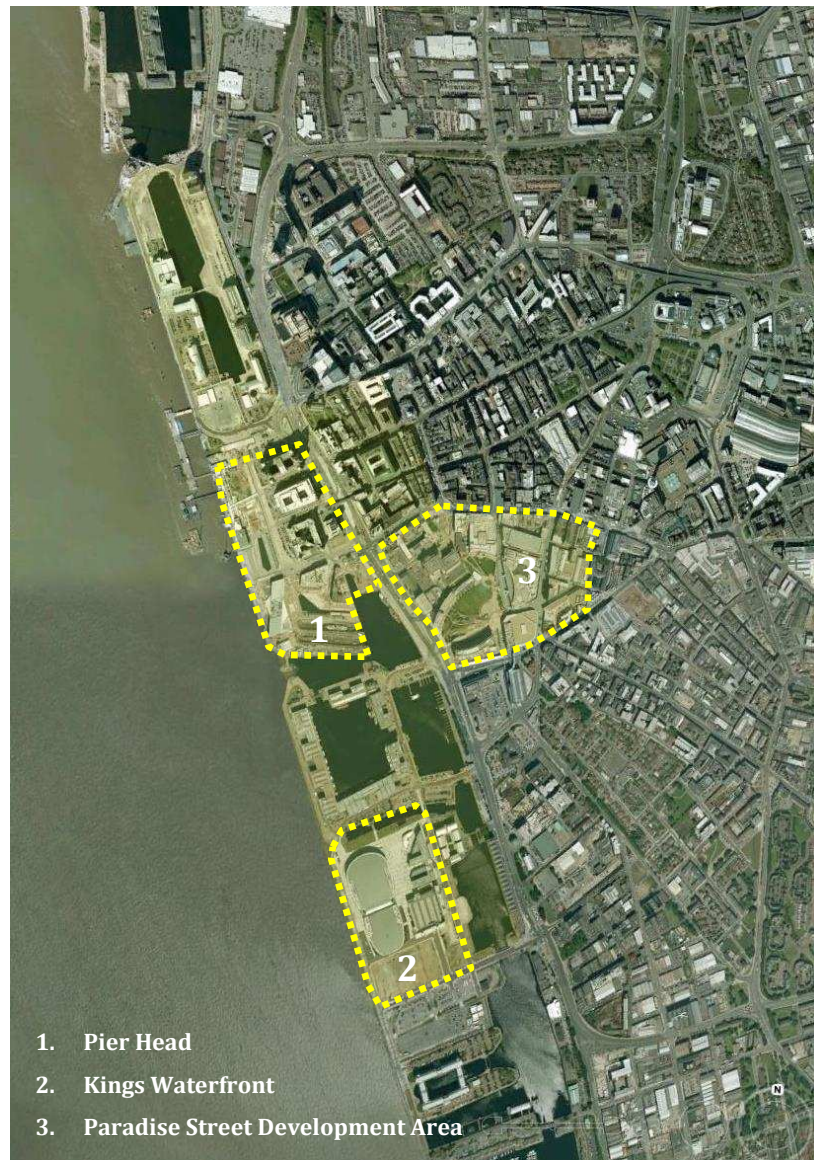


Figure 6. 9 the Key Development Areas within Liverpool Waterfront between 1997 and 2012 **Source** Adapted from Google Earth (2014)

6.3.1 The Pier Head Waterfront

The Pier Head waterfront is the key waterfront in Liverpool and the most recognisable image of the city. It was the point of departures and arrivals from the river Mersey for decades. The Pier Head comprises the three Edwardian landmark buildings of Liverpool known as the Three

Graces of Liverpool; the Buildings are the Port of Liverpool Building (1907) Grade II* Listed building, the Royal Liver Building (1911) Grade I listed building, and the Cunard Building (1916) Grade II* listed building. There is also a building east to the Port of Liverpool called George's Dock Tunnel Ventilation Building and Offices (1934) which is a Grade II listed building (Figure 6.17). The waterfront is also a home for many listed monuments, many of them to commemorate the lives of those lost at the sea (LCC, 2004b).

The Pier Head Waterfront is a part of Liverpool Maritime Mercantile City WHS, it is built entirely on reclaimed land and has undergone several changes during its lifetime (LCC, 2004b). This section aims to study the transformation of Pier Head Waterfront since 1997. Figure (6.16) compares two maps of Pier Head Waterfront in 2000 and 2012 which shows a huge transformation occurring during this period. The projects are the unbuilt Fourth Grace scheme, Mann Island and the Museum of Liverpool development, and the Public realm enhancement project. Each of these projects will be studied in the subsequent sections allowing their individual impact to be analysed and assessed.

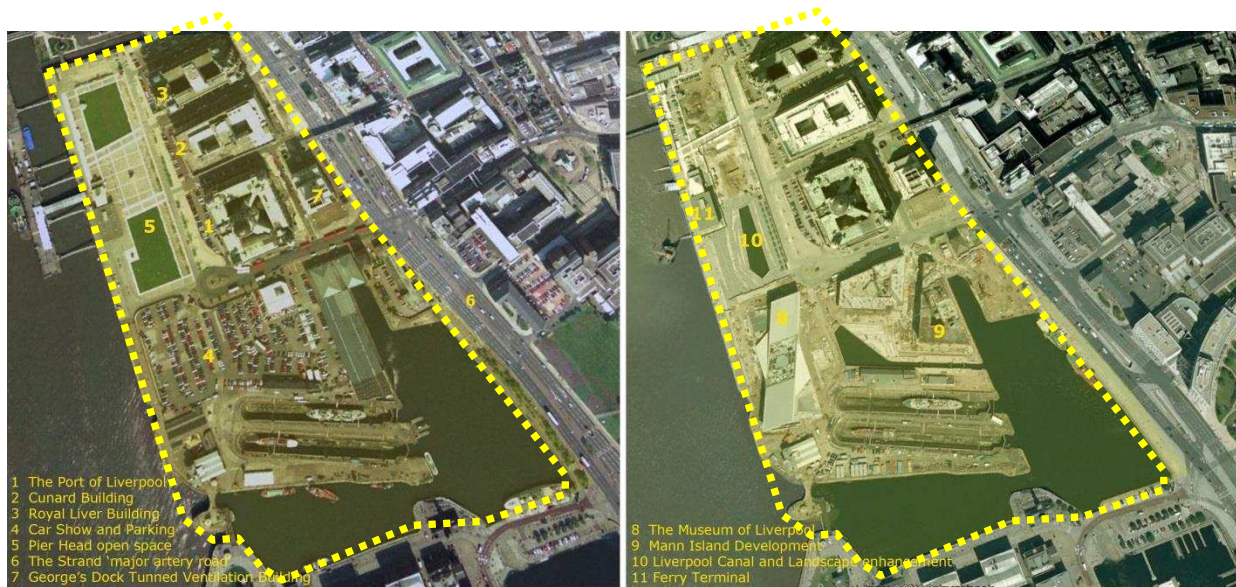


Figure 6. 10 Map of the Pier Head Waterfront in 2000 (left) and 2012 (right) which shows the transformation in the southern part, it was a car show and now it is the location of the Museum of Liverpool and the Mann Island Mixed-use development **Source** Adapted from google earth (2014)



Figure 6. 11 The Three Graces in the Pier Head Waterfront from left to right The Liver Building, Cunard Building and the Port of Liverpool **Source** the author (2013)

6.3.1.1 The Fourth Grace ‘The Cloud’

Although Liverpool has several of landmark buildings such as the Three Graces, St. Georges Hall, and the two Cathedrals, yet the city decided to build another iconic building on its waterfront. The waterfront is the best known image for Liverpool with its Three Graces shaping the skyline image of the city. The SRF recognized the opportunity for adding an architecturally significant building to add to the waterfront composition (Figure 10). The rationale behind that was the city needed a development that could grasp the international attention and shape the new image of the city in order to exploit the cultural tourism economy (SOM, 2000). In 2002, Liverpool Vision announced an international competition to design *the Fourth Grace* on Pier Head Waterfront between the existing three graces and the Albert Dock (Figure 16). The city aspired to create what is known as ‘the Bilbao effect’ which would help to boost the image and the tourism economy of the city besides strengthening the city’s bid for the European Capital of Culture 2008. The competition brief for the Fourth Grace called for a symbol of Liverpool’s future, and a landmark that would complement the three existing civic buildings whilst providing a dynamic venue for public activities (Rogers, 2003).

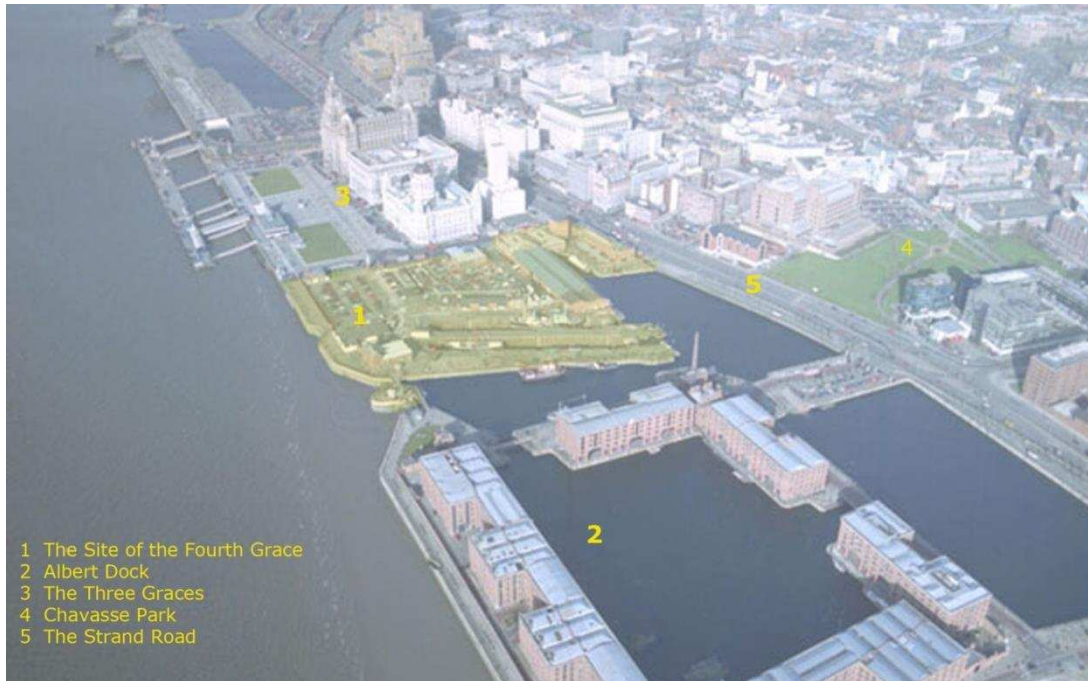


Figure 6. 12 The site of the Fourth Grace (2000) between the Albert Dock and the Three Graces offered the city a great opportunity to build an iconic building on its waterfront **Source** acquired from <http://www.edwardcullinanarchitects.com/projects/4g.html> adapted by the author [Accessed 15th June 2013]

The importance of this project is reflected in the national and the local newspapers throughout the different stages of the project. This significance can be related for two reasons, first, the nature of the project as an iconic landmark building, second, the location of the project in the very historic Pier Head Waterfront next to the Three Graces. A total number of 24 news articles have been identified all from National newspaper such as the Guardian, the Observer and BBC. The Fourth Grace project, since its inception has received a massive response from the media as a big futuristic step that the city of Liverpool would embrace. Carter (2002) in The Guardian pointed to the great importance of the project saying that the city wants to build “*a spectacular waterfront development of international importance in one of the world’s great waterfront*”. In another article headed “*Liverpool Launches Search for Fourth Grace*”, The Guardian (2002) wrote that the Fourth Grace is one of the most exciting development opportunities that the city is aiming to build, it indicated that the project is hoping to create the world’s best urban history museum which will articulate the remarkable story of Liverpool and show the city’s unique impact on the world. The article also point out that the city is going to launch the project bid for architect and developer at a conference of thousands of developers and architects. A connection by Carter (2002) has been illustrated for the key role that the Fourth Grace is going to play for the city’s bid for the ECoC in 2008.

The announcement of the project drew 17 expressions of interest from different developer-led consortiums. This, however, was considered by some critics as a low demand to develop in Liverpool despite the inspiration for the iconic building (Biddulph, 2011). Nonetheless, four famous architects had been shortlisted; Richard Rogers, Norman Foster, Edward Cullinan, and Will Alsop. The four proposals were initially criticised for their appearance and for their contrast with the city's historic skyline (Figure 6.19). However, Foster's design came first in a poll by visitors at an exhibition in the Walker Art Gallery displaying the various plans of the four proposals (Hetherington, 2002). The language of aspiration for the future can be grasped in Glancey (2002) when he stated in the Guardian that the city hopes that the Fourth Grace to be designed by one of the four leading architects will have the same impact as the Guggenheim in Bilbao, he also said "*the city is moving back where it belongs – the waterfront. How it looks in five years really does matter. How about graceful?*".

However, despite Foster's design coming first according to public perception, Liverpool Vision chose the least favourite design defending its decision by saying that Alsop's design is the most original (Hetherington, 2002). The competition formed a rich topic for media debate, with newspapers and fuelling the discussion about the impact of the Alsop's design on the city's waterfront. Alsop's design was formed from three major structures; the Hill, which is an exhibition space and auditorium, The Cloud, which was the main structure and was heavily criticised for its undefined use, the Living, an apartment building consisting of 19 storey next to the Cloud. One of the positive elements of the scheme was the comprehensive landscape and urban design vision to integrate the whole area together (Figure 6.20).

Will Alsop's winning design caused a significant controversy amongst people which was reflected in the newspapers labelling it as "*deflated balloon, wart, monstrosity ...etc*", for example. The Guardian (2002) pointed out that "*Rarely, it seems, has an issue stirred up such emotion and hostility among readers of the Liverpool Echo, who on the last count rejected what has been called a space-age design by a 51-49 per cent margin*". Sudjic (2002) indicated that "*The lurid computer generated images of the project show an appropriately liver coloured tottering spiral, propped up on spindly legs, ambushing the imperial Edwardian relics of Liverpool's past like something out of The War of the Worlds*", he also noticed that in any more culturally confident period, the Alsop's winning design which he described as the custard pie thrown in the city's face, would be considered as satire, or outrage. Sudjic (2002) reasoned that by the febrile climate of post-Bilbao civic boosterism which led the project to be warmly welcomed by the same people who would be most expected to be outraged, all people remain underwhelmed, the politicians, planners, councillors all in favour of the project.

However, on the other side Glancey (2002) reported that Alsop fought back, defending his design saying *“from its earliest days Liverpool has attracted people with an appetite for the new and the different - people with the courage to travel and explore: risk-takers, pioneers and investors. Only a genuinely daring and distinctive design will succeed in revivifying the spirit of Liverpool and capturing the imagination and attention of an international audience”*. BBC (2002) reported that Alsop himself said that he did not expect everyone to immediately like the building, he also argued that the Liver Building was itself controversial at the time. He added that *“all the three buildings have served Liverpool very well, but they have been serving for a very long time, now is the time for new building that captures the spirit of those original three and in that sense it sits very well besides them”* (BBC, 2002).

Sudjic (2002) questioned the need of the city to build anything in the Pier Head pointing that the city did not suffer a shortage of offices, shops, flats, hotels or museums that the project will offer, nonetheless, it was only the Liverpool Vision decision to transform the iconic Pier Head waterfront view in the most dramatic way possible. The Fourth Grace project had been discussed and debated widely; it was the first time in the recent history of Liverpool that an architectural project generated such an echo in the national and local newspapers.



Figure 6.13 \ The Fourth Grace Proposals for Richard Rogers and Norman Foster respectively **Sources** \ acquired from http://www.skyscrapernews.com/4th_grace_foster1.jpg & <http://www.richardrogers.co.uk/render.aspx?siteID=1&navIDs=1,4,25,474&showImages=detail&sortBy=&sortDir=&imageId=768> [accessed 15th June 2013]

The Cloud by Alsop was expected to be one of the jewels in the crown of ECoC 2008. Nevertheless, it was beset with difficulties, and was cancelled due to spiralling costs in 2004 and the project being shelved. The increased of the estimated cost of the project from £228 to £324 have led the four partners in the scheme Liverpool Vision, the North West Development Agency, Liverpool City Council and National Museum Liverpool to decide to cancel the project (BBC, 2004). However, the failure of the project resulted in a very pessimistic language in newspapers

doubting the city's ability to deliver large ambitious projects and events. Ward (2004) reported in the Guardian that *"Liverpool's preparations for its year as European Capital of Culture in 2008 suffered a setback yesterday when plans for a waterfront building designed by one of Britain's most adventurous architects were scrapped"*, he continued to conclude that *"The loss of the Cloud will embarrass Liverpool and call into question the city's ability to deliver a major scheme on its waterfront"*.

Carter (2004b) highlighted in the Guardian to the huge stir created by axing the Fourth Grace *"it has dominated the front pages of the Liverpool Daily Post and its sister evening Paper, The Echo, all week. The Fourth Grace will no longer be joining the Port of Liverpool, the Liver and the Cunard buildings on the city's waterfront, and the decision has caused a huge furore"*. In the same article, Carter (2004b) reported that the former mayor Eddie Clein will lead an inquiry into the collapse of the flagship waterfront project which was one of the key facets of Liverpool's capital of culture bid. Eddie quoted saying *"we have had three disasters with major projects; we want to make sure this is the last one. All these people making major decisions of behalf of people of Merseyside and wasting thousands of pounds of public money have to be called for account. We need to know what went on and why – that is what people of Liverpool want to know"*. Similarly, Finch (2008, p.17) comments in his article 'Liverpool Still Needs Vision' that *"a horrid behaviour is exemplified in the surreal story of the so called 'Fourth Grace' building in Liverpool. The original competition winning proposal by Will Alsop was cynically abandoned after it had contributed strongly to the successful City of Culture bid; abandoned not at least because the joint city/development agency client failed utterly to produce a convincing brief"*. He continued arguing that it is very disappointing the fact that too many architectural competitions, which are sponsored by public bodies for public projects, end in disastrous failure. The reason behind that is because architectural competitions are used often as substitutes for real decision-making, which in turn derives from the absence of a comprehensive long-term vision about (in this case) Liverpool's urban future (Finch, 2008). In fact, Sudjic (2002) previously argued before the failure of the project that the city actually did not need the project, it was merely for the purpose of image creation and the city did not know exactly what to do in this priceless location.

The fiasco of the Fourth Grace had put Alsop under the newspapers focus. The failure of this project helped to lead to the end of his practice (Sudjic, 2004). Alsop in interview with The Guardian said *"to receive a press release, with no phone call or explanation is absolutely downright rude. It had clearly upset other members of consortium – particularly when we have a viable scheme. I rather hope it doesn't shake other investors' faith in the city"*, he added, *"We have the support from CABE, and English Heritage and on the technical side from the Liverpool Planners. How can they cancel the project when they are not even being asked to put more money*

into it? My fear is that Liverpool may decide to do something in extreme hurry for 2008. God knows who with or what it will turn out to be" (Carter, 2004a).

After the Fourth Grace failure, the city was indeed trying quickly to come up with new ideas to develop the site. Although a public inquiry into what went wrong with the Fourth Grace pointed to the lack of the leadership, Sudjic (2004) argued the city seems to have no intention of acting on its findings. He pointed that the city was trying to come up with another defective proposal for an iconic building for the new Museum of Liverpool. However, the question was for number of journalists that Liverpool needs really to consider whether it genuinely needs any more iconic architecture or any more museums? Sudjic (2004) argued that from the past Liverpool clung with outdated ideas and now it is embracing the idea of architectural icons as the way to the culture-led economy, despite the British Airways stopped its direct flights to Bilbao in response to the declining magic of Guggenheim Museum. He indicated the city needs more to repair its fractured nature, the city does not have one clear city centre, instead it has four disjointed districts, and the city's affection with icons and museums will exacerbate this problem, he added, *"the fabric that rebuilds the city, in not isolated landmarks"*. However, Sudjic (2004) argued that *"although all those criticisms of the city and the failure of the Fourth Grace, it meant that Liverpool has past the worst periods and is looking towards the future"*.

What can be noticed as Booth and Gates (2002) argued that the fourth grace shows that architecture despite the huge development in its forms and techniques, it fails to find a common public language. Unlike urban design, it has succeeded in developing criteria and principles allowing the projects to be discussed according to them. Reading from the newspapers, what could be found is a language like, we like and we don't like, deflated balloon, monstrosity and so on. This shows the absence of a common architectural language.

Despite the failure of the Fourth Grace, the project has sparked the discussion about the identity of the area and its impact on the authenticity of the site. The World Heritage Committee (2004) in response to concerns raised about the impact of the Fourth Grace on the WHS had requested that the national authorities to pay a particular attention to monitor the transformation on the WHS with the aim of not adversely impact the heritage, on the other hand, it also had demanded that the City Council should assure proper height for any new constructions, respect the qualities of the area, and they should complement the area's historic character. In fact, this can be seen as a serious challenge to any new development let alone strikingly iconic buildings such as the Fourth Grace. Jencks (2012) argued that iconic buildings tend to stand-alone, alienate itself from the history and from continuity, he reasoned that saying star architects are usually

too embarrassed to acknowledge the history, or connect to the urban realm or are afraid of failure if they do so. This could represent a real danger for the historic environment of the site.

The relationship between iconic architecture and globalisation was a great concern for a number of academics (Sklair, 2010, Sklair et al., 2006, Harvey, 1989b, Beriatos and Gospodini, 2004). Sklair (2010) pointed that iconic architecture in the past tended generally to be driven by the state and/or religion, however, the era of globalisation, iconic architecture is substantially driven by what he called 'transnational capitalist class'. This also has exemplified in Liverpool, where the previous iconic Three Graces have been primarily driven by the state to show the power and the wealth of the city, whereas, the Fourth Grace Project is driven largely to satisfy the culture-ideology of consumption, in which Sklair (2010) argued that, such projects start to be used in more deliberate ways to transform the built environment particularly in globalizing cities.

Iconic architecture is a clear manifestation of globalisation on cities. As the city pointed that the aim is to exploit the cultural tourism economy of the city, in other word, it is what Sklair (2010) termed the culture-ideology of consumerism through turning architectural icons into special kinds of commodities. The end-point of culture-ideology of consumerism is to turn everything into commodity form. Iconic architecture is no difference from other quasi-cultural fields, endowing commodity with architectural icons as pointed by Sklair (2010), is just simply special and added quality that enhances the exchange (money) value of the icon and all that associated with it. However, it can be argued that the danger for the identity of Liverpool is that, iconic buildings are not genuinely about enhancing the identity and the image of place rather than satisfying the conditions of globalisation.

The failure of the Fourth Grace demonstrated how the city was trying to create that image of a global city without real consideration of the need or the impact of the project on the city, in fact, that failure is a direct consequence of the massive competition between cities that aim to establish global credentials through the promotion of iconic architecture. Sklair (2005) explained that many cities deliberately use iconic architecture and international star architects to create something different in order to put their cities on the map. This process often starts as in Liverpool's case with a high profile competition, usually restricted to a few star architects. This, usually high profile competition spills over into the mass media as mentioned previously as we have seen from the previous analysis of the news articles.

Iconic architecture not always only iconic because the building itself rather than the name of the architect. In Liverpool the names of the four star architects resulted in huge national and local interest which had echoed simultaneously in the news articles. This can be seen in two ways,

the high value of the historic area of the Pier Head Waterfront that it has attracted such renowned architects competing to put their signature there next to the historic Three Graces, also on the other hand, as all cities around the world are becoming more consumerist (Sklair, 2005). This can be seen as a clear commitment from the city to embrace the globalisation agenda through its iconic architecture.

Sklair (2010) saw iconic architecture as a kind of hegemonic architecture that serves the interests of the transnational capitalist class through the attempt of deliberately turning public spaces into consumerist space. In fact, there is some truth in that argument seeing the huge number of iconic architecture in cities around the world especially in the realm of shopping centres that primarily built as a consumerist spaces. However, the question for Liverpool is, can iconic buildings such as the unbuilt Fourth Grace transform the image of the city? Or in other words does Liverpool really need iconic buildings to transform its image? Different points of views from the research interviewees were expressed. Couch (Interview, 2012) argued that iconic architecture can be used to market cities like Bilbao ‘the Guggenheim Museum’ or Birmingham ‘the Bull-Ring shopping centre’, a city with poor or no image, but Liverpool already has its image and in no need for such costly projects. Similarly, Wilkinson (Interview, 2013) affirms that saying: *“does the city need iconic buildings, it is questionable, often a lot will ask about the iconic architecture and its impact on cities after the Guggenheim in Bilbao [...] it is quite good in crystallising changes in the city into individual buildings so they always do serve purposes but I am slightly suspicious here, Liverpool has got a number of iconic buildings anyway it is got the Pier Head, Albert Dock, the Two Cathedrals, St. Georges so there is no shortage of iconic buildings but there is shortage of decent quality modern architecture true, at some point in the future they could have one yes I don't see why it couldn't, but I don't think they have that effect”*.

Correspondingly, Skempton (Interview, 2013) argued that *“Liverpool can manage without new ‘iconic’ buildings – it already has more iconic landmarks than most cities [the two cathedrals, St George's Hall, the Three Graces, etc.]. However, new architecture of recognised quality would be welcome if it symbolised the city's renaissance – at the moment, Liverpool's recovery is still fairly tentative, and we may have to wait a while for genuine new icons to emerge”*. Nevertheless, Evans (Interview, 2012) said *“I wouldn't been keen on the Fourth Grace, the mass of that building is too great and I think it made more a bit of the statement less planned and more excitement”*. Yet, he added that *“there is a role for iconic architecture I agree but it is not the right time and context”*. The general inclination of the research respondents was neutral, the existence of the Fourth Grace may not really has that impact as it expected by the city, nor it is going to seriously harm the identity of the city.

What can be seen from the findings of the interviews and the language and expressions of news articles that the iconic Fourth Grace project was very controversial on the popular side as well as the professional side, Brown (Interview, 2013) recalled that within the society 'Merseyside Civic Society' we had very different points of views about the Fourth Grace. This finding is supported by Jencks (2012) in his article 'The Coming of the Cosmic Icons', he also indicated that iconic building often take the debate beyond the professional side to the popular side, this was clearly seen in the amount of articles written about the project and the open poll for the selection of the project and the debate that has been created. Wilkinson (Interview, 2013) pointed out that despite the failure of the project, it was useful for raising debate, it got people interested in the site and the public exhibition for the four schemes was very successful in engaging with a lot of people and a lot opinions and ideas. However, it can be argued that the importance of the Fourth Grace for the city was not because of its nature as an iconic building which, as assumed, will rejuvenate the image of the city. Rather, the importance of the Fourth Grace is that it has demonstrated that iconic architecture is not a matter and what is matter is the fractured nature of the city. In short, iconic architecture can be deceptive and, therefore, cities need to consider their the quality of their places and spaces through urban design framework as opposed to focussing on producing global images through iconic buildings.



Figure 6. 14 The Cloud, the winning project of the Fourth Grace competition in Liverpool Waterfront **Source** acquired from http://stevocreative.com/category/portfolio/architectural_illustration/ [Accessed 18th June 2013]

6.3.1.2 The New Museum of Liverpool

The idea of developing the site after the collapse of the Fourth Grace still remained. A new Master plan was produced by Liverpool Vision, Liverpool City Council LCC, and the site owner, the North West Development Agency NWDA. The site was divided into two more moderate

schemes; the Mann Island Development on the east side and the Museum of Liverpool to the west. The aim was to develop a vibrant mixed-use development that would reanimate Liverpool waterfront and link the different parcels of the city centre and the waterfront together. The brief for the western side of the site called for a new museum of Liverpool life, intended to explore the social history of the city. The historic nature of the site was an important feature; the brief emphasized that the new museum building should act as a symbol and contributor to the regeneration of the city, and enhance the role of tourism in Liverpool.

The site required a high level of sensitivity, hence, the philosophy of the architect, 3XN, was to treat the site as a part of the pedestrian flow on the waterfront between the Albert Dock and the Three Graces, turning the building and the public space around it into a gathering space with a building structure that would open the views rather than obstruct them (Dezeen Magazine, 2011). Additionally, the city demanded a building that would be bold, functional and act as a social place, which meant that the place should be flexible, dynamic and facilitate changing exhibitions in the galleries (Bayley, 2010).

The architect described the design as being reminiscent of the trading ships which were previously dominating the Liverpool waterfront (Figure 6.21), while the façade's relief pattern creates a new interpretation of the historical architectural details of the Three Graces (Figure 6.22). The huge gabled windows open up the views from inside the museum to the harbour and the city, symbolically drawing history into the museum, and simultaneously allowing the building to be seen from outside (3XN, 2011). Another important element was the urban design and the public spaces created by the building, the building in fact offers outdoor external steps with views to the water, the Three Graces, and the Albert Dock which adds to the dynamic urban environment and serve as a meeting place for both locals and visitors (3XN, 2011). Frearson (2011) described the design of the museum as a dynamic low-rise structure which enters into a respectful dialogue with the harbour promenade's taller historical buildings, which has resulted in a modern and lively public space.



Figure 6. 15 the Museum of Liverpool aims to resonate the trading ships of the harbour **Source** the author (2013)

The design of the museum was very challenging in terms of size. The museum was the largest national museum to be built in the UK over the last 100 years. Over and above, the location of the museum on a UNESCO World Heritage Site next to the Liverpool famous Three Graces in a high visible historic area which meant the building will be prone to critique. However, Nielsen the director of the 3XN pointed out *“This is one of the largest and most prestigious projects in 3XN’s 25 year history. The Museum’s design is a result of a very rigorous process, where it was of utmost priority to listen to the city inhabitants, learn the city’s history and understand the potential of the historical site that the Museum now sits upon”* (Magazine, 2011).

Interestingly enough, the content analysis of news articles revealed a slightly different approach towards the Museum of Liverpool compared to its unbuilt predecessor. Unlike the Fourth Grace, where the vast majority of news articles were very much concentrating on the architectural and the imagery side of the project rather than its content. However, in regards to the analysis of the news articles for the Museum of Liverpool, it revealed three main areas of concern; the cultural dimension of the project which was dominant, and the architecture of the Museum besides its location in the UNESCO WHS and both with relatively less importance. The New Museum of Liverpool has enriched the discussion about the culture of the city and the debate about what will be most appropriate to be exhibited there. Ward (2006) wrote in *The Guardian* that the aim of the Museum is ambitious, to celebrate the rich heritage of Liverpool, from its prehistoric time to its days as the port of the British Empire to the Beatles story. He explained that what is dividing the opinion now is the city’s sheer contrariness, the decision of sharing the city’s tragedies and triumphs raise many concerns from the public. Ward (2006) quoted Dr. Fleming,

Director of National Museum Merseyside saying that “*the Museum of Liverpool will chart many of the stories that make the history of the city’s people in a serious and factual way. Its purpose is educational, and the Museum will strive to achieve the balance which reflects the reality of city life*”. Many others have regarded the museum as a manifestation of the cultural tourism economy that the city has embraced particularly after winning the ECoC 2008 award. Balakrishnan (2008) reported that the culture tourism economy helps Liverpool gearing up to revamp its facilities and change the old stereotypes of a city that still suffers from the after-effects of 2nd world war and the decline of its port. The culture has gave Liverpool the sense of direction, said Balakrishnan (2008), there has always been a competition in the north-west between here and Manchester, and Liverpool tended to be overshadowed, now it feels like Liverpool getting its chance with the exploitation of the cultural economy.

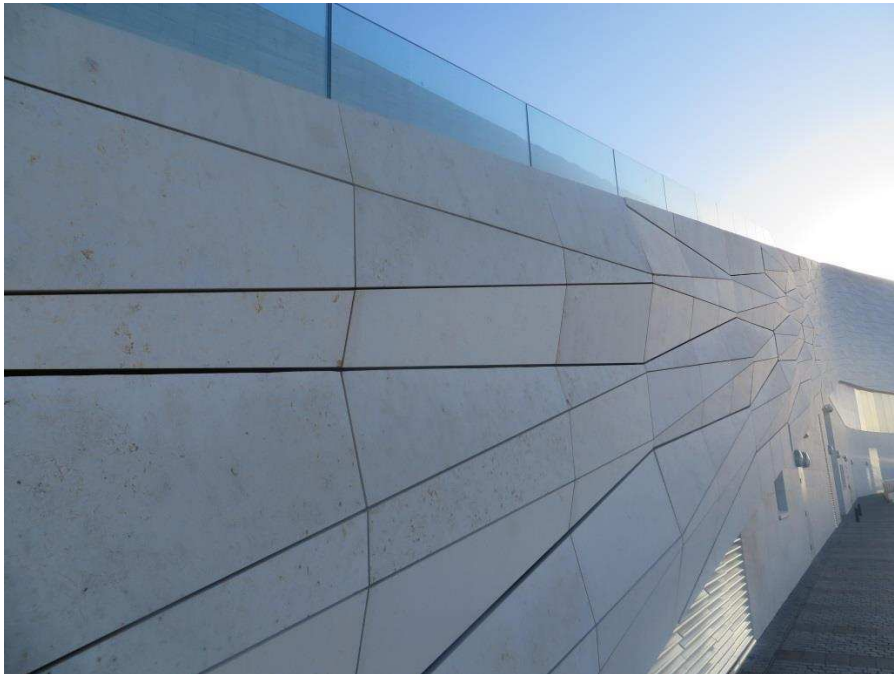


Figure 6. 16\ the external cladding of the building seeks to find a new interpretation for the historical architectural details of the Three Graces **Source**\ the author (2013)

In terms of the architecture of the building, the project had less response in the media compared to the earlier Fourth Grace project, apparently, because the modesty of this building in contrast with the unusual design of the Fourth Grace project. However, this building meant that Liverpool has finally got its new waterfront landmark; the Museum generally has been welcomed in the newspapers, Kennedy (2011) in *The Guardian* described it as the extraordinary new arrival on the city’s waterfront. However, the design of the new Museum of Liverpool since it was opened has been unpopular with critics. The building was nominated by *Building Design Magazine* to receive the Carbuncle Cup for the ugliest building completed in the

UK during that year (Frearson, 2011). It can be argued that this might be exacerbated by the location of the museum in World Heritage Site alongside the Three Graces, and whatever the design, there is no way to avoid criticisms.

Several articles were also very critical about the museum design and its integration with the surroundings historic environment, besides its contents and its internal galleries. Moore (2011) stated in *The Observer* *"How can this have happened? How could so many positive words – "regeneration", "vision", "culture" – plus so much public and private funding, plus so much scrutiny by bodies such as the Commission for Architecture and the Built Environment, have led to what now stands on Liverpool's waterfront? How could so many noble titles – UNESCO world heritage site, capital of culture, the "Three Graces" – have been bestowed on what is, to use a sophisticated critical term, a god-awful mess?"* he also noted to the lack of integration of the museum with its historic context saying that *"the main issue is not the presentation of the museum's contents nor, exactly, the design of the building that houses them, but, rather, the composition, or lack of it, of the museum building, combined with other new structures that are rising around and the historic monuments that were already there"*.

Different points of views have been expressed by the respondents of the research. Wilkinson (Interview, 2013) argued that Museum of Liverpool as well as the new pieces of the architecture on the waterfront generally they are a reasonable while some of them they are much better than other, he stressed that *"at a macro level, I think they are quite positive, good function and good locations, but as a micro level, I think there are plenty of criticism that could be made, the museum integration to the surrounding is poor, yet, it is tricky because the harsh environment there, it is windy, cold waterfront and quite difficult to manage that in terms of the design, the museum is unsuccessful in that aspect but probably unbalanced outweighed by the success in other areas, they are quite good but it could be better"* (Figure 6.23). Brown (Interview, 2013) pointed to the integration of the project saying that *"the Museum of Liverpool and Mann Island Development (see section 6.3.1.3) both angular in slightly different way, one white and one black and against the classical lines of the Port of Liverpool, I think they complement each other and they are very good addition to the waterfront"*. Similar to this is Burn (Interview, 2013), he argued that *"both The Museum of Liverpool and Mann Island are contextualised designs because they have a rationale and they are really clear why they look like this, it is not because they do not look like a warehouse or a classical building that is mean they are not contextualised"*. On the contrary, a former NWDA senior manager (Interview, 2013) said that *"the reaction to the contemporary architecture on the Waterfront is a personal matter, but I do not think the new museum does not fit comfortably with its context"*.

In general, the museum of Liverpool building was very significant on the image and the identity of the waterfront. The impact on the image was reflected on the number and the tone of news articles that were written discussing the project. The museum of Liverpool resembles what is been known by many academics as cultural regeneration. From the analysis of the news articles, there were a number of areas of concerns as mentioned previously; yet, the cultural side of the project was the most significant. According to De Frantz (2005), such these cultural flagship projects combine competing images of economic regeneration and socio-cultural cohesion within a shared urban symbol of civic pride, yet, Evans (2005) pointed out measuring the outcomes of such flagship cultural regeneration projects is problematic and very difficult to quantify. However, the Museum of Liverpool can be seen as the shift of the city's rationale from achieving global significance through a strong image of architectural masterpiece to a more explicit cultural approach where the architecture become merely the container for that content 'the culture'. The first approach proved to be controversial, risky, and ambitious, while the latter is more welcomed, yet less aspiring.



Figure 6. 17 the museum building has been criticised on the micro level for not been able to adequately integrate with the surrounding public space **Source** the author (2013)

6.3.1.3 Mann Island Development

The brief for Mann Island demanded a highly imaginative and sensitive design approach in view of its location within a World Heritage Site and its position between the historic commercial port buildings and the Albert Dock (Bayley, 2010). The brief of the project also pointed to the need for the proposal to respect and conserve a series of key vistas of the Three Graces that

were considered essential to the visual ambience and the character of the WHS (Bayley, 2010). Additionally, the urban design challenge for the project was the poor visual connection between the site and the city. The Strand, which is a busy multi-lane highway, forming a big barrier physically and psychologically between the site and the city centre, the challenge was to overcome that through the design of a pedestrian node and reconnect the city physically and visually.

In 2005, Broadway Malyan was commissioned by the site developers (Neptune Developments, and Countryside Properties) to produce a new proposal for the site. The architect worked very closely with the city council and his design proposal gained strong support from the both CABI and English Heritage. The design consists of three black buildings, three public spaces and a new canal basin. The project is mixed-use, comprising residential, commercial and office facilities. The developers of the project note that the project is designed to complement and enhance existing and planned attractions on the Liverpool historic waterfront and will form a pivotal point between the Three Graces and the Albert Dock with the geometry of the new buildings reflecting this transition (Island, 2007) (Figure 6.24).

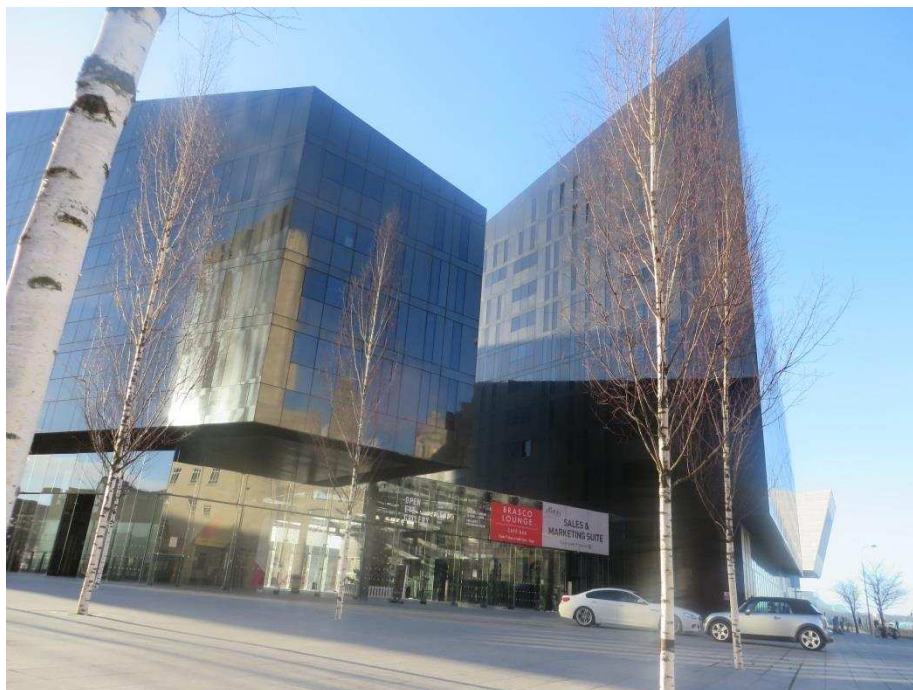


Figure 6. 18 The Mann Island Development, a very strikingly different design from its surroundings **Source** the author (2013)

The project resulted in three public spaces forming a sequence of transition between the city centre and the historic waterfront. The first public space collects the pedestrian from the enhanced pedestrian crossing from the east point and opening the views towards the Albert Dock, the Three Graces, and the Mann Island Development. The second transitional public space

is a covered, glazed public space between the two residential blocks which connects the outer public space on the east next to the Strand with the inner sheltered one facing the canal basin. This public space also works as a foyer to the next one besides providing space for temporary public exhibitions. The third public space is around the canal basin, well defined by the two residential blocks, and providing spaces for food and external leisure activities (Figure 6.25).



Figure 6. 19\ the left picture shows the public space that collects the pedestrians from the city and the covered public space between the two buildings, the right picture shows the third public space around the canal basin

Source\ the author (2013)

The cluster of the three black buildings is placed over transparent double height commercial and leisure podiums, with projected overhangs forming pedestrian roots around the cluster. These transparent podiums provide a very sharp contrast to the solid heavily decorated bases of the adjacent Three Graces buildings. The inclined roofs of the two residential blocks form a contrast to the building's side elevations, the sliced roofs which can be considered as a fifth elevation create a sense of scale and providing residents with views to the surrounding WHS. CABE (2006) has raised huge concern about the commercial building that located along the main street (the Strand) in respect to its form, materials and its effect on the immediate context. On the other side, and with regards to the other two residential buildings, CABE (2006) indicates that the arrangement and form is very convincing, relating to a series of views towards the Three Graces and inflecting to accommodate these vistas. The approach of responding to the historic environment by dramatic contrast with competing with them was also highly appreciated.

The Mann Island Development was widely applauded despite there being some controversy about where the buildings are located. In this regards, Couch (Interview, 2012) stated that "*the Mann Island development provides a good solution, some people criticise it but I think they are quite sophisticated, quite clever solution to that particular location*", Grindrod (Interview, 2013)

although she did not like the design of the scheme, she pointed out that the Mann Island fits very well within the context, they do not feel like constraining the area or having a negative impact on the waterfront and they add significantly to the identity and the image of the area. Several interviewees have stressed the importance of the contextualisation of the new development within the historic environment of the waterfront; Douglas (Interview, 2013) stated that *“the Mann Island development is very contextualised, they are a wonderful complement to the historic Three Graces because they pick up the reflections from them, they are very simple, straight lines and black against white ornamental, I think it was a genius design that the architect came with”*. Similarly, Wray (Interview, 2013) explained the Mann Island development integrates within the waterfront historic environment *“... the black buildings I think they do work for a variety of reasons, first, if you get closer to them they do visibly reflect the very florid architecture of the Edwardian Buildings so in a strange kind of way they do integrate, second, because the sheer simplicity compared with the highly ornament Edwardian architecture they are an appropriate foil, thirdly, the black mass of those buildings echoes the black mass which is created by the black water areas so I think they do work”* (Figure 6.26).

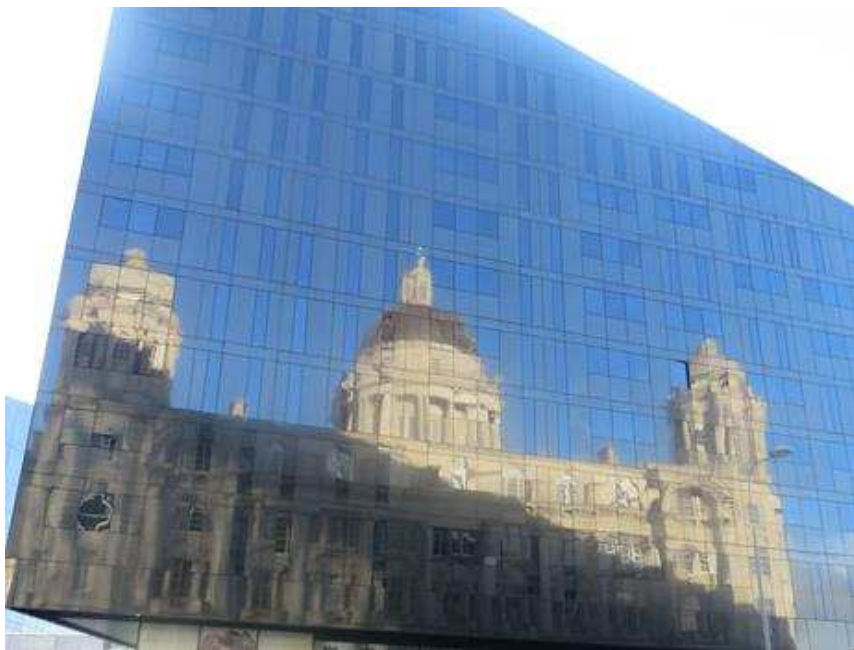


Figure 6. 20\ the reflection of the port of Liverpool Building on Mann Island's façade **Source**\ the author (2013)

Evans (Interview, 2012) slightly dislikes the design but he also emphasized on the importance of contextualisation through mixing modernity with heritage saying that *“it is important to mix modernity with heritage, generally, the architecture of Mann Island some love it and some hate it and that is something subjective, my personal view, that they are fine in terms of mass and shape and they are good in filling the gaps but I think the architecture is not sympathetic as it could be”*. Skempton (Interview, 2013) stressed on the role that can played by International modern

architecture saying that “... I expect every new development to be ‘international’ in character. They have the potential to act as a modern frame around the historic city, and restore the city’s economy”. Affirming this was Brown (Interview, 2013), he argued that “... the Three Graces were planned separately and not as a group, they were each individual bold statements of the economic power of the city of their age, and what was needed is something which was contemporary of the today value”, he also continued arguing “... to build something like the dockland today will be astronomical and ridiculously expensive, you could never do it, and you could never match it by adopting classical style because it will be nonsense, and it will be a sort of pastiche imitation”.

In spite of the argument that the Mann Island has obstructed the classical views towards the Three Graces, Wilkinson (Interview, 2013) asserts that the three black buildings have framed the view to the Three Graces quite nicely. Brown (Interview, 2013) agrees specifying that “... the architect did a tremendous job in the way using the sloping roofs to retain some of the views, I think he exceeded the brief in that in chopping off some of the vertical constraint to reveal views which would not be there if it was only driven by commercial pressure” (Figure 6.27).

Conversely, the project has attracted criticism from some preservationists, headed by the Liverpool Preservation Trust. These critics, were very concerned about the location of the development inside the WHS and the possible impact on the integrity of the WHS. Wayne Colquhoun a very strict preservationist said to the BBC Radio Merseyside “this is the biggest risk to Liverpool’s skyline since Goering sent the Luftwaffe over 1943, and we have got to really wise up to the fact that this is a World Heritage Site and it has to be treated accordingly” (BBC, 2006).



Figure 6. 21 the Mann Island Development retains some glimpse through its inclined roofs to the Three Graces
Source the author (2013)

In 2006, the Mann Island development along with other developments in the WHS fuelled concerns within UNESCO about the impact of these developments on the integrity of the WHS in which they built. The UNESCO in 2006 undertook The State of Conservation mission to Liverpool on the instruction of UNESCO's World Heritage Committee. The mission looked at the amount of the major developments in the city, which in their view may harm the integrity of the WHS. The mission assessed the state of conservation of the WHS in its wider context, more particularly, it also evaluated the impact of Mann Island development on the integrity of the WHS (LCC et al., 2009).

The State of Conservation mission to Liverpool in 2006 noted with great concern that the new museum of Liverpool next to the Three Graces did not comply with the recommendation of the WHS Management Plan as it was designed to be dominant rather than recessive; and also noted that the three additional buildings are being planned on the waterfront, one of which could be intrusive in architectural terms (the commercial block). Consequently, the mission requested the Liverpool City Council to put in place strategic plans for future development that set out clear strategies for the overall townscape and for the skyline and the waterfront (WHCommittee, 2006).

In response, Liverpool City Council has committed itself to introduce a stricter planning control based on comprehensive analysis of the townscape characteristics, urban pattern, density, and sense of place. This has resulted in the WHS Supplementary Planning Document.

In the final conclusion of the report of the State of Conservation Mission in terms of the addressing the threatening effects of town planning on the authenticity of the WHS stated the following (UNESCO and ICOMOS, 2006, p. 2)

- The site's protected areas with related structures and individual buildings were **not under imminent danger** of significant modification or degradation, nor would any of the development proposals obstruct views to them in any significant way;
- However, when taking into account building density, urban pattern and historic character of the Pier Head, **potential threats to the functional and visual integrity of the site may exist**. With the development of guidelines for the application of the condition of integrity to cultural sites still in process, potential impacts of contemporary design proposals on historic areas such as the Pier Head will remain difficult to assess.

In October of the same year, at invitation from the UK Government and as a response to the request from the World Heritage Committee to further assess the impacts of the contemporary design proposals on the WHS, a joint reactive mission from the UNESCO and ICOMOS 'International Council on Monuments and Sites' was established to review the state of conservation of the WHS in Liverpool (UNESCO and ICOMOS, 2006). A specific attention was placed on the impact of Mann Island and the New Museum of Liverpool on the Outstanding Universal Value of the WHS. This has revealed a significant difference of opinions because the lack of the common architectural language to assess the new contemporary design proposals with. The report shows in regards to the complementary to the Three Graces, the City Council and its partners, including English Heritage, were of the opinion of that the new developments complement the historic environment of the site, because its high quality architectural design and the materiality (UNESCO and ICOMOS, 2006). Another issue was the dominance of the museum building on the waterfront, the report pointed that the City Council and its partners and also the architect were on the opinion that it was not challenging the iconic Three Graces and that the design had considered the sensitivity of the site as it set out in the project brief.

The Mission was not in total agreement with the City Council and its partners, the report concluded that in spite of the design of the new developments on the Pier Head does not exceed the heights of the Three Graces, however, the whole design with its inclined roofs, sliding forms, huge scale and asymmetry, deviates from the existing urban pattern and historic character of the area. The report reasoned that to the absence of specific architectural design guidelines that

referred to the highly sensitive area of the Pier Head. The report also refers to the complexity of this issue because the room for interpretation for the existing cultural-historic value and in particular the Outstanding Universal Value, with corresponding intense debate, including those in the World Heritage Committee, on the appropriateness of architectural designs (UNESCO and ICOMOS, 2006).

The different urban design documents which were produced by the city such as Liverpool Urban Design Guide that outline different historic character within the city was praised by the Mission but also the Mission called for a more comprehensive historic character analysis to be conducted for the whole WHS in order to support the management of change in the future. This historic character analysis should be introduced in the future architectural design briefs, the aim as stated by UNESCO and ICOMOS (2006, p. 11) is to *“facilitate a more systematic and technical assessment of the appropriateness of the designs in sensitive, historic contexts”*.

The development of Mann Island in the Pier Head Waterfront was a hot topic that attracted the media attention. The controversy about the appropriateness of the design was heavily debated in the national and local news providers. In general, several articles reflected the high hope and expectations about what is going on the waterfront and dramatic change in the image of waterfront. Liverpool Echo (2011b) stated *“...these are exciting times for our wonderful waterfront, with major developments coming to fruition at Mann Island”*. Conversely, in 2012 the Mann Island scheme has been nominated for the Carbuncle Cup by Building Design Magazine for the ugliest building of the year. This actually shows the controversy about the appropriate of the design in that historic part of the waterfront, it may not be nominated if these buildings were somewhere else in the city. The controversy was mostly associated about where they built rather than their design as noted by Douglas (Interview, 2013).

This section has giving an account of the impact of Mann Island on the waterfront identity and the emerging debate it has generated. Several points can be highlighted, the first is the importance of having a shared vision. Unlike the previous Fourth Grace project which has failed because the lack of the purpose, however, it was very clear in this project that from the start, the city, Liverpool Vision, NWDA, and the site developers has established a clear vision for the area. This alone was not enough, gaining the support of other organisations such as English Heritage, CABE, and local civic organisation through their early involvement proved to be crucial. It has resulted in expanding the support for the project and helped throughout its progression until the completion.

Second, it can be noticed that developing in historic areas is a very complex process; it is very likely to raise controversy between the different parties involved ‘preservationists and the

advocators of progression'. Whilst both sides have their own side of the argument, however, balancing between change and preservation is what the city was aiming to achieve through the involvement of all parties. Sometimes, the different parties can reach to a compromised solution, yet, in other cases, one side win and the other lose and this process is at the heart of transformation (Interview with Burns, 2013).

Third, urban design is a very important matter especially for such large visible developments. Mann Island succeeded to enhance the urban environment of the waterfront through filling the gap between the Albert Dock and the Three Graces besides creating a number of public spaces. The design of the buildings also succeeded in complementing the Three Graces and providing a glimpse to them through the formation of the buildings massing. Urban design can provide a good tool to assess new architectural proposals in relation to their context. Whilst the majority of the interviewees agreed on the positive addition of the Mann Island to the waterfront, yet, they disputed about it is architectural design. Fourthly, contemporary architecture in historic environment is a significant sign of the transformation of that district. Contemporary architecture can be imperative for two reasons; for its economic contribution besides it can be a significant piece of today value. However, what is important is the contextual integration of contemporary architecture within its ambience. Mann Island although it is strikingly different from its context, seems to be very well integrated largely because of its form, materiality and simplicity.

Last, WHS even though it does not carry any further planning restrictions more than that of English Heritage, however, it has created an enormous challenge for the city's new developments. The WHS meant that international organisations such as UNESCO and ICOMOS would have a great influence on shaping and controlling Liverpool waterfront transformation. WHS, in fact, can be tricky. WHS has both positive and negative sides; positive in terms of influencing the quality of the design to be to the highest standards; negative regarding that it advocates for a very strict planning control which can diminish developers' creativity. In Liverpool, a very strict planning control can work against the innovation of the city which is the essence of the WHS itself (Interview with Burns, 2013).

6.3.1.4 Pier Head Canal Link and Public Realm Project

The Pier Head public space with its Three Graces is the defining image of the city. The area is the largest and one of the most important city spaces at the heart of WHS and the waterfront of Liverpool. One of the key priorities in Liverpool's SRF (2000) was the improvement of Pier Head public realm (see section 6.2.1). A key public realm project was the extension of the Leeds and Liverpool Canal into the city centre together with a new ferry terminal and a new cruise liner

facility were identified by the City Council to maximise the benefits and create a distinctive and a vibrant space (Bayley, 2010).

The Pier Head Canal Link and public realm project was jointly managed by the City council and the British Waterways, Place North West (2010) argued that this project highlights the importance of effective working relationship between the partners and land owners and tightly managed, multi-disciplinary project team to deliver coherently a complex pattern of uses in a historic context.

The City Council and the British Waterways commissioned AECOM to prepare a master plan for the area. The new master plan needed to be respectful to the WHS; hence, the local authority planning, English Heritage, CABE, and a local review panel were involved from the early stages of the design (West, 2010) (Figure 6.28). The challenge was to reintegrate the site historic statues and memorials into the new proposal, also the integration with the new Museum of Liverpool; Mann Island Development was of significant importance (AECOM, 2010). The project was jointly managed by the City council and the British Waterways, Place North West (2010) pointed out that this project highlights the importance of effective working relationship between the partners and land owners and tightly managed, multi-disciplinary project team to deliver coherently a complex pattern of uses in a historic context.

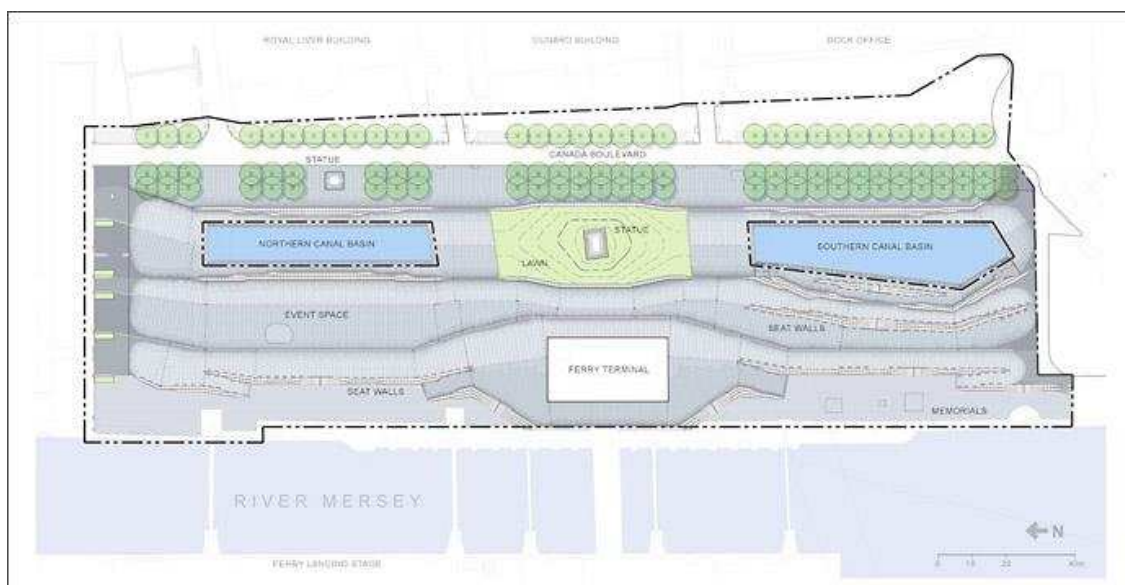


Figure 6. 22 The Pier Head Master plan **Source**

http://www.aecom.com/What+We+Do/Design+and+Planning/_projectsList/Pier+Head+Masterplan+and+Design,+L+Liverpool,+U.K.

Place North West (2010) pointed that there was a design challenge to overcome the difference in the levels between the area level and the water level in the canal, the designer has

ingeniously treated the entire space as a gently folded surface, the result was akin to amphitheatres sink into the ground around the canal turning the waterway into a kind of stage and enabling access to the water's edge. Bayley (2010) described the landscape saying that the crease lines that create the folds run the length of Pier Head, yet they seamlessly change their nature as they move through the space. These folds are emphasized with a natural stones echo the facades of the Three Graces (Figure 6.29).



Figure 6. 23 The Pier Head public realm and the canal link, the left picture shows the ferry terminal building and the right shows the Three Graces **Source** the author (2013)

The project has brought a new life into what was considered as desolate area. The canal created a lively environment with its boats and water reflections. What can be observed is the area has become a tourist destination, with many visitors from across the globe capturing images for their records of their visit to the city. Similarly, the ferry terminal although it is being very controversial in term of its architectural design (Interview with Brown, 2013), and receiving the Carbuncle Cup for the ugliest building in 2009. However, it has helps creating vibrancy with its café, restaurant, and Beatles Storey attraction, besides serving as the Mersey Ferry Terminal and overlooking the River Mersey.

The role that can be played by the pier head waterfront after this major public realm enhancement has been highlighted by Douglas (Interview, 2013). She said *“what is needed in the waterfront now is a whole host of things around filling the gaps around the development sites, connecting various areas of the waterfront together, getting more animation. What we recognise is the waterfront very important for us because of the visitors economy, image and brand”*. Currently, the image of the pier head waterfront can be seen in the marketing and the branding of Liverpool. Parkinson (Interview, 2013) indicated that *“what has been created in the waterfront is a quality development and quality public spaces. The work that has been achieved helped in connecting the city with its waterfront, rather than feeling the city is a place and the*

waterfront is another, this has resulted in bridging that gap between these two to a certain extent”.

In general, the quality of the whole area is of high standards, a careful attention has been paid to the details of paving, lighting, and street furniture. The Pier Head waterfront public space functions now as an important area that connects together the old historical buildings with the newly built contemporary architecture. Additionally, it has become a large urban park, and a place to accommodate big public events as was witnessed in the city final event of the Capital of Culture 2008, when around 35 thousand people gathered at the waterfront for entertainment and firework (Figure 6.30).



Figure 6. 24 the Pier Head provides the city with large public space to host huge public events **Source** acquired from <http://www.liverpoolecho.co.uk/news/liverpool-news/liverpools-waterfront-festival-attracts-more-4283276>

[Accessed 23rd September 2013]

6.3.2 Paradise Street Development Area ‘Liverpool One’

A quick look to figure (6.15) shows the vital location of the Paradise Street Development Area PSDA in Liverpool. Although the area is considered as a part of the city centre, yet, the area is very much historically and physically linked with the city’s central waterfront and, hence, any regeneration program in this area will significantly impact on the waterfront. Historically, this area has been bombed totally in the 1941 and became redundant creating a big vacuum and dividing the city and its historic waterfront⁵. An inner city ring road ‘The Strand’, a bus station, a hotel and office building with ground floor parking had been developed after the war by the powerful local authority guided by the post-war urban design thinking. In 1990s, the Paradise

⁵ Liverpool was the UK’s second most bombed city after London

Street area was a disconsolate zone that linked the regenerated area the Albert Dock, the business district, and the shopping streets.

A number redevelopment initiatives were proposed but all failed to bring change to the area because the short of funds and the lack of interest (Biddulph, 2011). However, the City Council realised in 1999 that it needed to focus its attention on the regeneration of its city centre that had lost out to its competitors through years of dereliction and underinvestment. The city decided to focus on the area around the Paradise Street which contained one of the city's finest historic buildings, The Bluecoat School, and the Chavasse Park (Figure 6.31).

The regeneration of the PSDA is quite large and unique scheme that has transformed the city significantly (Figure 6.3.2). Biddulph (2009) pointed out that two things have derived the transformation of this area, the first; the availability of European Objective One fund to the city as a result of its status as one of the weakest-performing regions in Europe; the second, the changes in governance as discussed previously in section (6.2.1). The PSDA prolonged from 1999 until its completion in 2008, the year that Liverpool was celebrating the European Capital of Culture. The following sections will discuss the different phases of the development and examine how it impacted the identity of Liverpool.



Figure 6. 25 left Chavasse Park before the PSDA, right The Bluecoat Chambers in Liverpool which regards one of the finest historical buildings in the PSDA. **Source** respectively

<http://www.skyscrapercity.com/showthread.php?t=637859&page=17&langid=5> & the author (2013)

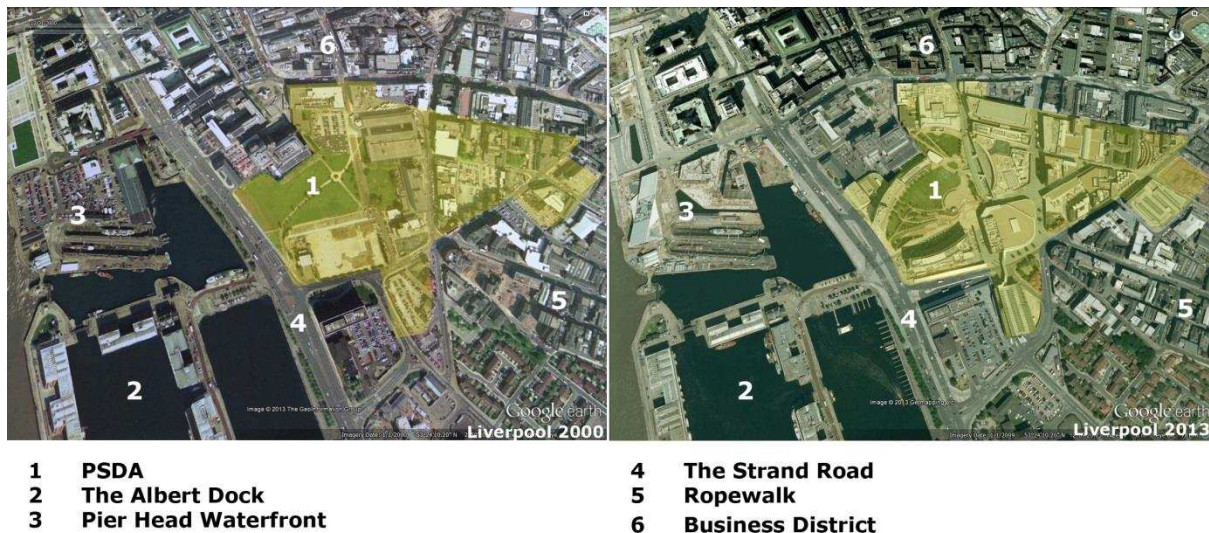


Figure 6. 26 The Transformation in Paradise Street area before and after the PSDA **Source** Google Earth maps modified by the author (2014)

6.3.2.1 Shaping the Vision

The rescue and the regeneration of PSDA was vital for two reasons as pointed by Littlefield (2009). First, to re-join back the different zones of the city the commercial quarter, the waterfront, and the Ropewalk Quarter together; second, to expand the city retail quarter and bring the city back to its status as the UK top five shopping destinations in 1970s, there was a disappointment in the city that even smaller cities like Chester at that time was providing attractive shopping destination than Liverpool. Furthermore, Butler '*Project Director in Grosvenor*' (Interview, 2013) said when the work of the MDC in the waterfront begun to bear fruit, there was a point that in order to get to the waterfront it is a must to traverse the unsafe area of Paradise Street area.

The City Council commissioned Healey and Baker in 1998 to study the city centre retail provision; its retail offer, function and future offer. The aim of the study was to enable the city to identify the potentials for which the city centre could be protected and enhanced and also to find answers why the city centre was undesirable for large developers. The City Centre Retail Strategy concluded that Liverpool is short of around 100,000m² of new major retail development to reassert the city role not only as a regional retail shopping destination, but also to protect the city's main retail area vitality and viability in the long-term (Parker and Garnell, 2006). This report coincided with the changes in the council leadership, and a year later, Liverpool Vision was established. The report suggested that the area around Paradise Street is the most suitable for this new retail quarter. The idea of redeveloping the area around the Paradise Street as the retail area was supported by the number of initiatives, policies and action plans which had started to form an overall vision (Littlefield, 2009). The general thinking at

both the regional and the national was tending to consider the city centres is the rightful place for retail in comparison with out of town shopping malls. English Heritage (2013, p. 10) affirmed this saying *“Retail development and new investment in town centres remain the most vital elements of the urban regeneration agenda, across the whole country, although cohesion and pride in the quality and economic vibrancy of our town centres arises from much more than just shopping”*.

Another element was of great importance, which was the general national and local inclination towards the idea of place making and urban design (see sections 3.3 & 6.2.2). This has considerably influenced the assessment of the new emerging projects. The city also specifically conducted in 1999 an urban design study for the PSDA which has established the guidelines for the new development. This, however, shows the increasing role of urban design in urban regeneration.

In 2000, a proposal by the architect Philip Johnson for a large shopping mall hidden inside futuristic membrane of roof superstructure was proposed. The mall contained a bus station and links the shopping area with the Albert Dock. The City Council despite the significance of the design in terms of form, it did not see it adding to the wider regeneration of the area and rejected the proposal. Biddulph (2011) argued in theory it is iconic building with a star architect in which the city in theory should be delighted to accept, yet, the city reacted differently by rejecting the design because it did not carry wider benefits for the city. This shows that the city was very much driven to embrace the urban design agenda. It also shows that the city did not want simply a mall which self-contained, inward facing which would sit, distinctively in superb isolation rather than a development that would be an integral part of the city and links the different parcels of the city all together (Interview with Parkinson, 2013).

Interestingly, one of the things that helped Liverpool to retain its distinctiveness was indicated by Meegan (Interview, 2012), he said that at the time of decades of decline and under-investment, the city was poor and could not do any development or knock down some of the old historic buildings or warehouses; while other wealthier cities have gone far into the redevelopment of its historic city centres, Liverpool was lucky because a lot of its heritage has been preserved and when the city turned for renewal it coincided with the time that the urban renaissance agenda and the issue of design excellence were at the top of the national and the local agenda.

6.3.2.2 The Selection of the Developer ‘Grosvenor’

As elaborated in the previous sections, when the vision for the PSDA has been shaped, it was the same time when the Rogers’s Report ‘Towards an Urban Renaissance’ was published and CABA

was established. Liverpool was clearly influenced by the new way of thinking and the brief for the PSDA contained much of these new agendas (Interview with Burns, 2013). The city asked in the brief the potential developers to holistically consider design quality, retail, transportation, heritage, pedestrian, sustainability, viability ... etc. (Littlefield, 2009). Hence, only large and well-resourced developer can be able to response. Red Holmes, Grosvenor project director for PSDA said *“the proposition back in 1999 and 2000 was that if the city could do a deal with the private property sector, it might be possible to regenerate the city from the city and build outwards. All the good, well-intentioned and important work that had gone on before – such the rescue and restoration of the Albert Dock and Garden Festival – weren’t changing anything much. It wasn’t reversing what seemed to be terminal decline of Liverpool. The idea emerged that the city need had to start again from the centre”* (cited in (Littlefield, 2009, p.41)).

In 1999, the city started to make its vision into reality by announcing the city’s interest to appoint a developer for the PSDA. A total of 47 developers expressed their interest to develop the site, they all were encouraged by; first, the change in the local politics and, second, by the city strong determination to go ahead with a radical transformation, said Littlefield (2009). Later, six giant developers were shortlisted and the following year Grosvenor was selected after a tough and hard competition that was attended not just by the city council but by other agencies such as Liverpool Vision, Mersey Travel, and English Heritage.

The city reasoned its selection for Grosvenor as the city was not looking for a fully worked out solution, rather, it sought a developer that to work with over the long term, said Burns (Interview, 2013) ‘the city council urban design and heritage manager’. He also indicated *“what was struck the city at that time was how much Grosvenor share from our vision, what we wanted a scheme which is not a shopping mall, it is regeneration scheme which is also has crucial urban design elements right in its heart and that was about re-sticking the city together because it has been fractured so much and Grosvenor scheme was embodying that principles, while other developers were saying what you are really need is a shopping mall, a climate controlled environment for shoppers”*. Furthermore, Burns (Interview, 2013) elucidated that the selection of Grosvenor was not only commercial driven, it was also kind of personal thing built on trust, he said *“the owner of Grosvenor ‘The Duke of Westminster’ lives down the way in Chester. The PSDA was very interesting for him, Grosvenor works globally but seems to be more local, seems to be more committed and seems to be sharing our vision and the politics behind it, and that is why we decided to go with Grosvenor”* (Interview with Burns, 2013).

The choosing of Grosvenor was a very important moment at the history of Liverpool for two reasons, Parkinson (Interview, 2013) argued. First, Grosvenor is very prestigious company,

established more than 300 years ago, which understood about the long term investment and the long term returns, it also understood that the good quality and the short term financial benefit were not mutually exclusive, they were not looking to keep a profit in 5 years' time, and so, they did not keep the cost down, this was critical to get the highest possible quality for the project. Second, the company, as Parkinson (Interview, 2013) stated *"... had an awful lot of money to invest and even though it was 50% of the budget they could spent, so it is £1.4 billion, it is a lot of money they could afford to do properly at one phase"*.

Having the right developer was absolutely crucial for the success of the PSDA, and what was more, is to have also the right team within the right developer, this all had manifested in Grosvenor and its PSDA team, Wilkinson (2013) pointed out. He further indicated that *"Grosvenor is obviously like other developers, they have done some developments in other cities and they have not been that successful, so you could bring the success down to few key individuals, and the real hero of the piece is Rod Holmes, the project director of Grosvenor, he was really fundamental to that success also his team as well but in terms of leading that teams his personal commitment was very important"*. Similarly, Parkinson (2013) affirmed that saying *"the Grosvenor team who run the PSDA project were of high quality, they thought carefully about the city, they thought carefully about the growth of the city and what it is about, so they were responding to their internal imperative and it was not because CABE or review groups, in fact, Grosvenor team were far ahead of that"*.

6.3.2.3 The Masterplan and the Delivery of the Project

Grosvenor appointed the BDP Masterplanners and other consultancy firms to turn the aspiration of the brief into a detailed masterplan. The main aim of the masterplan was that the scheme should help to reconnect the city with its waterfront, besides acting as a hub for pedestrian to the adjacent areas of the Ropewalk and Business District. The massive scale of the project was the largest challenge for the developers, said Davenport (2008) 'the chief urban designer of BDP'. He explained *"the way we addressed it, is to change the character of the project to suit the character of the city, so we built on quality, we built on existed buildings, and we built new public spaces as well as a great public routes"*. The masterplan modulates the scale and the grain of the development, Littlefield (2009) pointed, building up from the smaller, more intimate streetscape of the Ropewalk to something of the magnificence of the Pier Head. There were other challenges like fitting a car parking into the available land, the constraints regarding the listed buildings and the Ropewalk conservation area, and the topography challenge.

The masterplan responded to those challenges quite cleverly. For example, the topography of the site as Rees and Davenport (2008) described, has been turned into opportunity, Castle

Street (Derby Square) coupled with the concept of locating the car parking under the Chavasse Park created a potential for a two level street, in the new South John Street.

From the early stage, the developers of the masterplan took into account the need for phasing the project and divide it into different distinctive urban districts. As the masterplan developed, the distinctive districts within the PSDA were named: Paradise Street, Hanover Street, Peter's Lane, South John Street, and The Pool and Park (Rees and Davenport, 2008) (Figure 6.33). Paradise Street is a large cosmopolitan and pedestrian street, aligned with large scale landmark buildings, leading to John Lewis Store which is considered as an anchor store. The street also characterised by its double height stores frontages and its residential units (Figure 6.34).



Figure 6.27 PSDA Masterplan, developed by BDP, 26 architectural practices have been involved in the design of each building plot of the scheme **Source** BDP (2014)

Peter's Lane; now also called the Arcade is partially covered street which responds to its historic context and conserves sense of intimacy that has been created by the Bluecoat Chambers next to it. This area of the scheme where the most significant alteration of the streets pattern has occurred, Rees and Davenport (2008) said there was much agonising about this but the benefits in terms of creating vibrant Bluecoat Triangle outweighed the disadvantages (Figure 6.35). The third zone is the South John Street where there are the two anchor stores 'John Lewis and Debenhams' on its both ends, generating a significant pedestrian movement between them in two levels of galleries of shopping street (Figure 6.36).



Figure 6. 28\ Paradise Street, Liverpool One Source\ the author (2014)



Figure 6. 29\ The Arcade, Liverpool One Source\ the author (2014)

Hanover Street is a busy vibrant street, open to traffic in the south edge of the scheme where the scheme interfaces with the historic warehouses of the Ropewalk (Figure 6.37). The last distinctive area within the scheme is the Park and Pool; where a large green open area enclosed by two large buildings frame the view towards the historic Albert Dock (figure 6.38).

Hence, the masterplan rather than creating one large monolithic development, it has succeeded in creating series of new places, generating variety not uniformity, and also providing a wide space for contemporary architecture that is varied. This has led Grosvenor eventually to recruit 26 architects to design each building of the scheme. However, to balance the variety not to look too heterogeneous, Grosvenor and BDP developed a set of guidelines for each development and gave each architect a certain amount of design freedom that not to limit the architects creativity rather than to ensure the essence of the masterplan was maintained (Littlefield, 2009).



Figure 6. 30 South John Street, Liverpool One **Source** the author (2014)

Nowadays, the PSDA project has considerably succeeded in achieving what the city was aiming to. Parkinson (Interview, 2013) stated *“Liverpool One ‘previously PSDA’ is a quality development, it is well designed, the standard of the material and workmanship is very high, there has been great attention to the creation of the place, so when you go there you feel, this is a very good example of modern city development, it is modern and it connects and links”*. However, ensuring the quality and the integration of the project was not an easy task, there were other elements that had further influenced the project. Rees and Davenport (2008) argued there was nothing in the design left unchallenged, every piece of the master plan and architecture was scrutinised by a review panel headed by Red Holmes, other design review agencies also participated.

Interestingly, not like the majority of other design projects, the masterplan was not only driven by a single dominant idea, Littlefield (2009, p. 71) explained, *“rather, there were dozens of agendas, pressures, constraints, demands, wish-lists, visions, flashes of inspiration, and other criteria which all got poured into the designer’s mix”*. This actually showed the huge influence of the urban renaissance agenda on the developers’ approach where a holistic vision has to be adopted. Other features were also of great success for the project such as respecting the historic buildings and key views by ensuring that landmark historic buildings like the Three Graces and the Albert Dock were framed by the new buildings (Interview with Former NWDA senior manager, 2013). Additionally, the project has maximised connectivity between the different parts of the city centre, not only that, also ensuring the pedestrian experience through the site is pleasant and enjoyable through taking into account the materiality and the facades treatment of different buildings throughout the area (Littlefield, 2009). What is remarkable in this project was the success of urban designers in arguing for open street development. Biddulph (2011) argued this has created the impression of public streets from which many people would use throughout day and night, the only difference is how it is been managed.

The issue of managing the scheme has raised some concerns in the media with regards to privatising public streets and the possibility of excluding some groups of community from entering. In fact, there were some fears that the scheme will repeat the same issues of exclusion and control that are apparent in London Canary Wharf. Simon Mayhew (2004) wrote in *The Guardian* saying that, such a privatisation has occurred with other schemes like Canary Wharf and lots of out-of-town shopping areas, which are privately policed complexes, yet, all these examples are on sites that had no use in the past - Canary Wharf, for example, was a derelict site previously, and no-one went there. Mayhew (2004) stressed that this is the first time that such a privatised development is going to happen in the centre of a city. He further said that there is a possibility that a large chunk of Liverpool can become a no-go area to 'undesirable' elements of society, and a section of Liverpool's people could find that they are denied the right to access to an area of the city. Nonetheless, despite these worrying implications from the media with regards to social exclusion, Megan (Interview, 2012) 'urban planning expert and professor of urban economics in LJMU' indicated that *"these worries were before the opening of the project, but, in fact, the management of the project today is very good and the issue of social exclusion is not actually existed"*.



Figure 6.31 Hanover Street includes a mix of historic and contemporary buildings **Source** the author (2014)

Liverpool One is a good example of achieving balance between conservation and new development. All that down to Red Holmes 'the Director of Grosvenor PSDA', said Butler (Interview, 2013) 'the current director 'Liverpool One' previously PSDA'. He argued the reason why this such a good scheme in terms of taking care of old buildings and making sure the views and sight lines work because Holmes was incredible building environment person and he was very keen protecting the heritage. Example of that, Butler (Interview, 2013) recalls *"... there are two warehouses we kept, I was the second man of the Project after Rod and I would knocked them*

down probably, but Rod kept them, they are not that attractive, this decision was not very difficult to Rod Holmes despite the massive cost for conservation and there are hundreds of similar warehouses like them in Liverpool". However, although all that good intentions and good work from the developer in regards to respecting the historic fabric and built heritage of the city, English Heritage challenged the height of one of the largest building in the scheme 'the One Park residential tower', the original building was 5-storeys higher than now. English Heritage argued that it should not overwhelm the setting of the Three Graces. Butler (Interview, 2013) believed *"what English Heritage argued was entirely unconvincing. Their argument was that the building is going to spoil the character of the WHS, we did not have a time to fight back at that time so we went with what they have told us, in fact, the original building was much more stunning than the current one"*.



Figure 6. 32 The Park, Liverpool One **Source** the author (2014)

Today, Liverpool One is vibrant attractive place; it has succeeded in achieving mixed-uses of activities that enhance the vitality of the city and creating a place for living, working, and entertaining. No single person lived in the site in 1999, now there are 4 residential blocks with around 600 apartment, and 3 hotels with around 700 rooms (Figure 6.39). Butler (Interview, 2013) pointed out that *"Liverpool One has succeeded in creating culture, culture is about people interaction and is not only about art, no one lived in the site in 1999, so how you are going to have a culture when it is no one home? Now just the last year we have 26 million people visited the place, so Liverpool One has succeeded in creating culture and enhancing the culture of Liverpool"*.

The Liverpool One scheme has a significant impact on the city competitiveness. The city has risen from the 17th to the top 5 shopping destination in the UK (Liverpool Vision, 2013). To be able to compete on a regional and national level, the branding and marketing was taking as an integral part during the development of the project. Butler elaborated (Interview, 2013) *"the branding was absolutely critical, we know that we needed identity, so we had two brands; we had*

the brand called PSDA which is the construction arm, and we had the brand called Liverpool One. So we have two brands and we worked very hard to distinguish the PSDA was PSDA was building, construction, disturbance, noise, dust, and hustle, and Liverpool One is shiny, contemporary, clean, safe, fresh... etc.” However, Butler (Interview, 2013) said competition with other cities is massive and very tough, we have 26 million people came in Liverpool One last year, we should have a 30 million but that all down to the competition with Manchester, Chester, and even London, so we have always to make the place exciting and very interesting.

Enhancing the physical and cultural dimensions has significantly improved the site and the city image. The image of Liverpool outside the North West was terrible (Interview with Wilkinson, 2013), Wilkinson, Burns and Butler (Interviews, 2013) agreed that Liverpool image improved slowly and Liverpool One contributed to that, it gives the people the reason to come to Liverpool, a lot of people have that terrible image of the city and when they come to the city that image will changed dramatically.

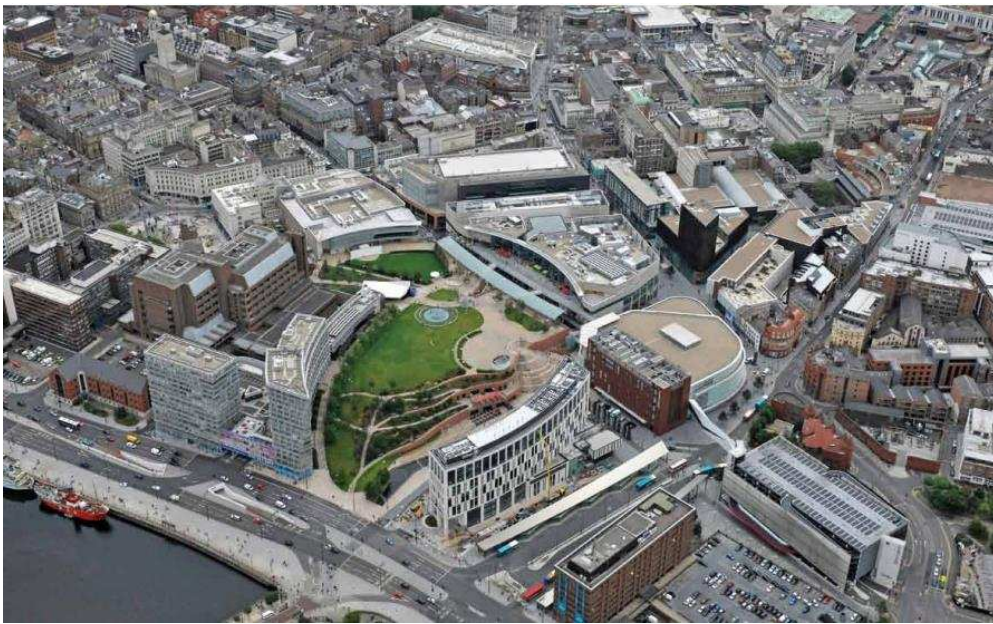


Figure 6. 33 Liverpool One, aerial view **Source** BDP website

The commitment of the developer to the city was a fundamental part of the success of this project. Butler (Interview, 2013) pointed out *“from a point of view of Grosvenor, the successful project has to achieve two elements; first, like any other developer we have to gain money out of the project and, second, we have to do the job very well and being good to the people, the environment, and the city, so it is more than making money, here in Liverpool we made the job very good, but we did not make a profit, partially because of the recession and prices went down and also because we have done the whole project in one phase, we tried to deliver too much too quickly and we have no choice because we committed and Grosvenor always does what it said”*. This is

actually what the city was looking for from the early start of the bidding period. This commitment has translated into a fantastic relationship between the city and Grosvenor built on trust and confidence. Burns (Interview, 2013), described that period saying *“it was a great relationship, and the whole process was absolutely wonderful, it was fantastic and we would never get that chance again, it is just wonderful process and Grosvenor showed commitment, innovation, and inventiveness, they were wonderful and they were really good at that stage”*. Butler (Interview, 2013) indicated the relationship between the Grosvenor and the City Council has developed through the time, it was difficult in the beginning because Grosvenor is commercial and the City Council is not, yet the relationship built up and got easier and easier.

In general, the process that this project has taken was exceptional; it is unlikely such that project of complexity and collaboration will happen again in the few coming decades. Over 30 individually designed buildings were coordinated to achieve the 2008 target delivery date with the year of the ECoC. In fact, this project has helped Liverpool on the way to re-position itself as a thriving city that holds a distinctive urban identity. In short, this project shows the critical role that urban design can play in the process of urban regeneration. However, without a strong commitment to urban design agenda, by all stakeholders, such a result might not be achieved. As such, it can be argued having a shared vision based on urban design agenda coupled with strong adherence by all stakeholders to those agenda are the key for a successful transformation of urban landscape.

6.3.3 Kings Waterfront

Kings Waterfront Located to the south west of Liverpool’s City Centre, is a huge vast area of land created by infilling some of the docks there and the clearance of some of associated buildings. The Kings Waterfront is significant for two reasons; visually because it is being just to the south of the Albert Dock and further north to the Three Graces; and historically as it is located within the UNESCO WHS buffer zone (see Figure 6.6) (Bayley, 2010). The Liverpool SRF (2000) identified Kings Waterfront as a priority area for the continued regeneration of Liverpool and Merseyside; it proposed an attraction of international quality to raise the profile of the city and the region, besides providing facilities for local, regional and international visitors (SOM, 2000).

A masterplan has been prepared jointly by the City Council, Liverpool Vision, NWDA, and English Partnership, the sensitivity of the site imposed substantial restrictions in the development of the site and extensive pre-planning consultation with English Heritage, CABA and local planning authority was carried out (Bayley, 2010). The master plan proposed multi use arena and conference centre, along with hotels, offices, residential and retail uses which

aimed to reinforce the wider regeneration of Liverpool's waterfront and position the City and the Region as a national and international conferences and entertainment destination (Figure 6.40) (Liverpool Vision, 2004).

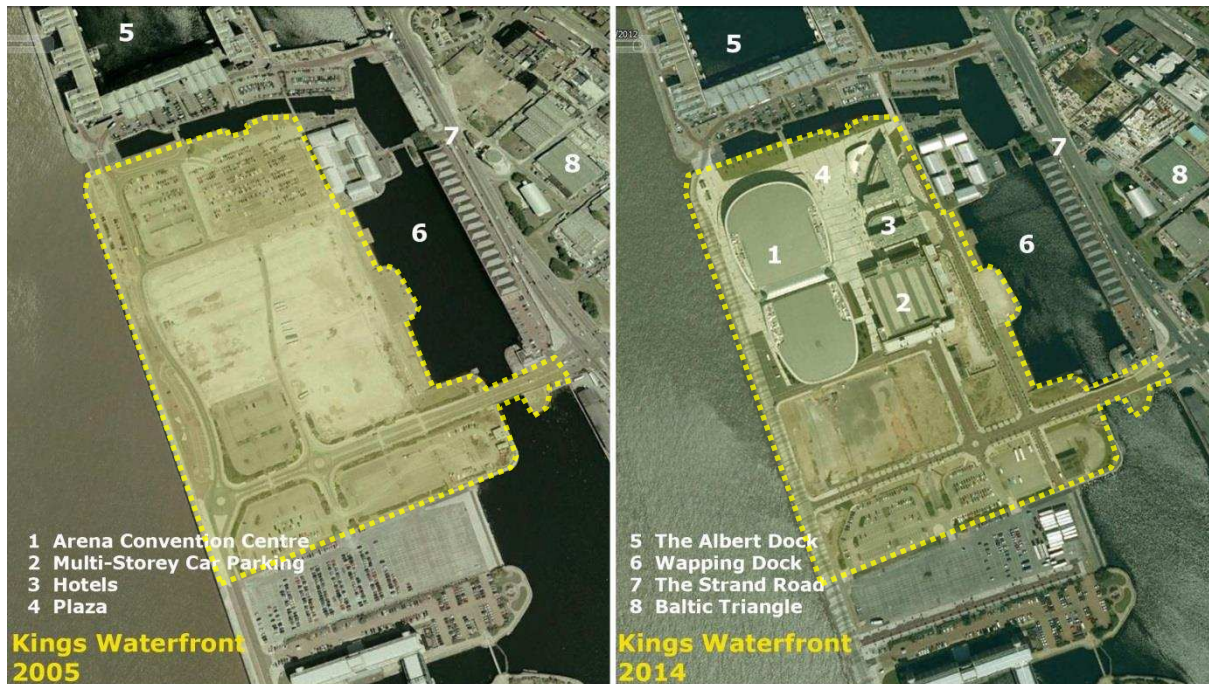


Figure 6.34 the significant transformation in Kings Waterfront between 2005 and 2014, the availability of large parcels of land on a highly visible area of the city provided the city with opportunities for a number of flagship projects **Source** images from Google Earth modified by the author (2014)

6.3.3.1 Liverpool Arena and Convention Centre ACC

The City Council has chosen Wilkinson Eyre Architects after winning international competition to transform the Kings Waterfront. The regeneration of Kings Waterfront has resulted in huge Arena and Convention Centre ACC occupies roughly half of the site, two hotels, multi-storey car parking, residential units, and a large open public space. The ECoC 2008 was fundamental to stimulate the regeneration of the Kings Waterfront.

The ACC building formed the focal point in ECoC 2008; the building comprises a multi-purpose 10,000 seat arena, exhibition hall, and a conference centre. According to Wilkinson (Interview, 2013) 'former chair of Liverpool Architecture Society', the building has contributed significantly to the success of the surrounding area namely The Albert Dock, it created a huge area for leisure and conference activities. The ACC was vital for Liverpool economy and image as well, a number of news articles discussed the contribution of the ACC and the Kings waterfront to the city as a whole. ACC Liverpool's chief executive Bob Pratney said for the Liverpool Daily Post that *"Despite the fact that we opened at the start of one of the worst recessions, we were profitable by the end of year two. I think it's fair to say that Liverpool has never had a facility like this before*

and it has proved very effective in stimulating regeneration and economic growth" (Post, 2011b). He also added: "We have already proved that Liverpool is an attractive and compelling destination for conference and exhibition organisers as well as major events. The new venue will enable us to build market share and to attract even larger and more lucrative events, helping to fill the city's hotels, restaurants and shops with high-spending visitors". However, despite the size of this project, it has gained less concern in the media due to the fact that there was less controversy comparing with the development on the Pier Head waterfront.

Parkinson (Interview, 2013) stressed on the quality of the design of the arena and the role it plays *"the arena is very important because as a building is excellent convention centre I speak a lot in a lot of convention centres and I know most of the convention centres are horrible this is very nice, it is on the edge of the river, it is very light and I think it is great advert for Liverpool as a convention centre, the echo arena is very important because it is for the first time we could attract big conferences"*.

The ACC is a new landmark building in the Waterfront of Liverpool, its design quality, shape, size, and functionality has added a significant value to the image of the city (Figure 6.41). A former NWDA senior official (Interview, 2013) said *"The convention centre I see it from the other side of the river as part of these assemblage of buildings old and new which as I said tears its way up, it works from the other side of the river from a distant view, the only time you see the convention centre in close up view if you a pedestrian walking beyond the Albert Dock buildings where it is suddenly appears as a new building which really relates more to the waterfront itself and the buildings other side of the river so I don't think that jars too much but that is a personal view"*. However, the same as Liverpool Museum, some small criticisms have been made on a micro level such as the integration between the building and the waterfront but that would be overshadowed by the pros that has been generated (Interview with Wilkinson, 2013).

This shows that the arena centre and the Kings waterfront as a whole has changed dramatically, adding to the visitors' economy of the city and its image, and contributing to enhance the identity of the waterfront.



Figure 6. 35 Arena and Convention Centre in Kings Waterfront, a bold contemporary architectural on the waterfront **Source** acquired from <http://www.wilkinsoneyre.com/projects/liverpool-arena-and-convention-centre.aspx?category=cultural> [accessed 3rd January 2014]

6.4 Conclusion

This chapter aimed to examine the process of urban regeneration and transformation of Liverpool waterfront during the period between 1997 and 2012. The chapter elucidates the complexity of the elements involved in the process of transformation and change. Kresl (1995) indicated that many of the factors that influence the transformation of a city are caused by national and supranational economic trend and policies, thus, they are ‘top-down’ and there is not much that a city can do to affect those variables. Nevertheless, there are many aspects of policies, strategies and guidelines that a city such as Liverpool can control. The transformation of Liverpool waterfront was, indeed, shaped by a complex interaction of global and national trends and local strategies and initiatives.

The issue of globalisation was a significant driver for urban transformation during this period. According to Cheshire and Gordon (1995), globalization has intensified the competition between cities which in turn forced them to be more active in trying to identify and reinforce their assets and improve their competitive advantages. Liverpool responded to that, in fact, lately but quite effectively through the adoption of what was known by the ‘Third Way’ policies in order to mix and combine the interest of public and private sectors. In this respect, new type of organisations has emerged with the aim of reconciling the needs of private sectors with

public interests. Liverpool Vision established to fit this purpose and it has played a pivotal role in the process urban regeneration of the city. Interestingly, the adoption of the Third Way policies coincided with the time when urban design was at the top of the national agenda. These two factors together have immensely shaped the new emerging urban landscape in Liverpool waterfront which was largely focusing on enhancing the quality of urban areas through the process of place making. Although this was a great success, Biddulph (2009) questioned if this commitment to urban design is going to be sustained at the top level, he argued that the demise of CABA and LATD could be evidence of reducing that commitment.

The regeneration of Liverpool waterfront was accelerated by the winning of the bid of ECoC 2008. The city has recognised culture as tool to derive both tourism and inward investment besides enriching the unique cultural qualities of the city and improve its image. Despite globalisation is generally accompanied with mass culture which tends to homogenise global culture, Kearns and Paddison (2000) argued that globalisation is also can bring simultaneous attempts to develop a city's local, distinctive cultural qualities. Akin to the ECoC was the award of the title of WHS which although the city was less active in exploiting its potentials (Interview with Former NWDA senior official, 2013), it has proven to be decisive in challenging and assuring the quality of the waterfront developments. Therefore, it can be argued that globalisation do not always result in homogenising places and dislodging cities' distinctiveness as indicated by Madanipour (2006), it however, with the right measures in place, can stimulate places identity, provide them with a sustainable means to flourish both physically and economically. Indeed, building on the unique cultural and physical qualities of a place can be advantageous for both achieving distinctiveness and improving competitiveness.

Waterfront regeneration in Liverpool was, in fact, a platform that shows the city's endeavour to achieve distinctiveness and enhance competitiveness. The waterfront developments were quite unique and interesting. The first waterfront attempt of this period was the Fourth Grace project which was considered as an iconic building and it was designed by what is known globally as star architect, the aim of the city was to replicate the so called 'Bilbao Effect'. However, although the project has failed to materialise, it has, on the other hand, drawn a significant attention and public interest to the area. Several interviewees argued that such an iconic building may add to the waterfront composition, yet, they questioned its importance.

Contemporary architecture such as the Museum of Liverpool, Mann Island, and ACC Liverpool has significantly contributed to the transformation of the waterfront. Gospodini (2004) pointed out that contemporary architecture may result in landmarks and promote tourism and economic development, that might generate new social solidarities among inhabitants grounded

on 'civic pride' and economic prospects. Nonetheless, the issue of building in a historical setting is very debatable. Contemporary architecture needs to respond to and integrate with its context in order to impact positively. Urban design may provide good elements to inform and analyse the contextual integration of contemporary architecture.

Lastly yet more importantly, Liverpool has strongly embraced the agenda of urban design. The role of urban design in the significant transformation of Liverpool cannot be underestimated. The PSDA clearly has shown how urban design can manage to insert successfully a gigantic project into the heart of the city centre, enhancing not only its physical dimension but also its economic and social aspects. The PSDA project is indeed a model development. Although Sklair (2010) linked the between the shopping destination and consumerism arguing that it is the most obvious manifestation of the globalization, Liverpool has succeeded to manipulate and challenge the global concept of shopping malls turning it into an opportunity which helps to restore the city's built heritage and create new contemporary interventions. Thus, globalization is not a rival of urban identity rather than an opportunity which needs to be understood appropriately, urban design proved to have the capacity to work as a medium in the urban global-local nexuses.

Chapter 7\ Liverpool Waterfront Regeneration (post-2012)

7.1 Introduction

This chapter speculates upon the influence of the future of Liverpool waterfront regeneration on the process of transformation of the city. A recent initiative of a great importance is Liverpool new Strategic Investment Framework SIF which was published in 2012 to guide the development of the next 15 years will be examined along with other issues that started to take an increasing role such as cultural economy and place marketing and branding. The chapter also focuses on the future of the north docks of Liverpool where a new skyscrapers scheme 'Liverpool Waters' is proposed. The analysis will try to raise and answer some questions such as: What is the future role of urban design and cultural heritage? And how the city is responding to the new challenges and opportunities of future regeneration?

7.2 The Context for Potential Future Regeneration

"My priorities are creating jobs and attracting investment into this great city. That is the key to securing a prosperous future for our communities"

Joe Anderson 'the Mayor of Liverpool' (Liverpool Vision, 2013)

The above quote captures the essence of the key issues for the future regeneration of Liverpool. Unlike the previous era of regeneration where the city was primarily aspiring to improve its unique physical and cultural qualities besides achieving competitiveness, the future of regeneration is by large driven by economic agenda. The subject matter of this section is to discuss the context for potential future regeneration. By reviewing the data collected from documents and interviews, it reveals that three initiatives and instruments will be of significance. These are the Strategic Investment Framework 2012, the Cultural and visitor economy, and place marketing and branding. The following sections will discuss these issues in detail.

7.2.1 Renewing the Vision; the Strategic Investment Framework (2012)

The Strategic Investment Framework 'SIF' (2012) was produced by Liverpool Vision and aimed to build on the success of the previous SRF (2000) which has defined a series of key projects to guide the future development at that time. The success of the SRF (2000) in producing a considerable investment into the city centre and waterfront through a focus upon a limited set of key projects prioritised by Liverpool Vision had encouraged the city to establish new targets for the city future regeneration. Four major strategies have been identified in the SIF (2012) that need to be expanded and developed which are financial, professional, and business services, life sciences, creative and digital, and culture and visitor economy.

The SIF (2012) indicated that whilst some of the projects that will facilitate the transformation of Liverpool in the next 15 years are focused on non-physical investments through supporting business, culture, creative and visitor economy, yet, the SIF (2012) strongly argued that the fundamental foundation of the city growth will require considerable investment in the built environment and the city's physical infrastructure. In order to achieve that, the SIF (2012) identified major transformational projects that focus on sectors and places where Liverpool has already strength, reasoning that, the city should try to continue gaining more competitive advantage over other competitor cities (Liverpool Vision, 2012b, p. 32). The major transformational projects were located within number of distinctive quarters within the city in order to strengthen their emergent urban identity. The areas are the Waterfront, St. Georges, Central Liverpool, Knowledge Quarter, Commercial District, and the great streets of Liverpool 'The Strand, Hope Street, Water Street ...etc.' (Figure 7.1).



Figure 7. 1 Liverpool City Centre Distinctive Neighbourhoods as defined by SIF (2012) **Source** adopted from (LiverpoolVision, 2012b, p. 14)

The focus of this section will be on the Waterfront and the Strand which is the major road that physically separate the waterfront from the rest of the city. The SIF (2012) identified a number of weaknesses such as the unclear connections along the north-south axis of the waterfront and the lack of consistent active ground floor uses which are major problems for the current waterfront they need to be addressed. The SIF (2012) also pointed out that the diversity of the waterfront is an important element that needs to be enhanced through further defining Liverpool waterfront as a key destination for visitor-related investment. The SIF (2012) suggested different major transformation projects to drive forward the economic growth of the city, strengthen its identity and transform the waterfront into a world-class destination (Liverpool Vision, 2012b).

Future projects proposed the Liverpool's Waterfront have been classified into three major categories; projects to fill the gaps to deliver more critical mass of visitors, residents and business into the waterfront; projects to connects in order to link the waterfront all together and enhance the connection with the city and achieve a higher degree of integration; and

projects to enliven with the aim of enhancing the uniqueness of the waterfront experience. The table (7.1) and figure (7.2) give more details about those projects.

The SIF (2012) considers Liverpool Waters as one of the major transformational projects that will be critical to expand the city's Central Business District and secure the future economy of the city. The project has raised a huge controversy over the national and local media and amongst professionals about its impact on the city's WHS. This project will be discussed in the coming section as a major strategic project that the city is determined to achieve (See section 7.3).

The Strand, the great street that separates the waterfront from the city, is arguably the most significant within the city. Liverpool Vision (2012b) describes how the street 'binds' along its length both the modern and the historic city to the city's iconic waterfront. Expert planning commentators have acknowledged this point:

"The previous regeneration of the former docklands was not sufficiently planned or designed, so a lot of opportunities were missed particularly the access to the waterfront. It is difficult in some places, and the Strand always was a barrier. The plans of the 1960s proposed a series of pedestrian bridges but it was removed, the strategies of Liverpool Vision in the last decades is to create crossings at the ground level with more traffic lights, I think that works for the Albert Dock but for the Pier Head in Princess Dock it worked quite badly and it is difficult to get to the Princess Dock" (Interview with Couch, 2012).

As such, the SIF (2012) prioritises pedestrian movement and improving connections via generous ground level public spaces.

Interestingly, the SIF (2012) started to develop the idea of the distinctive neighbourhoods in order to focus on the different qualities that different parts of the city centre exhibit. The document has categorised the city centre into different distinctive neighbourhoods as shown in figure 7.1. This was seen by some as an important factor in order to market the city to different segments and to recognise the strengths of each and further improve them (Interview with Douglas, 2013) (see 7.2.2).

The SIF (2012) is a key document which sets out the vision of the city for the next 15 years, it seems very clearly in this document that the city is more determined to build on the success of the previous years through focusing on physically regenerating particular parts of the city and enhancing certain sectors of the economy. Max Steinberg (2012) 'Chief Executive, Liverpool Vision' stated "The regeneration of Liverpool City Centre has succeeded because the partners responsible for its delivery focussed upon a limited set of key projects. We prioritised". Moreover, Jenny Douglas (Interview, 2013) 'Head of Area Investment in Liverpool Vision' said

that the Liverpool understood the worst of recession better than other cities and it is very much focussed on promoting and working on its distinctiveness. This can be traced in the SIF (2012) where a considerable emphasis was put on the physical and non-physical aspects of the city such as the visitor economy and the waterfront. Hence, the SIF (2012) can be considered as a crucial element in invigorating the transformation of the city.

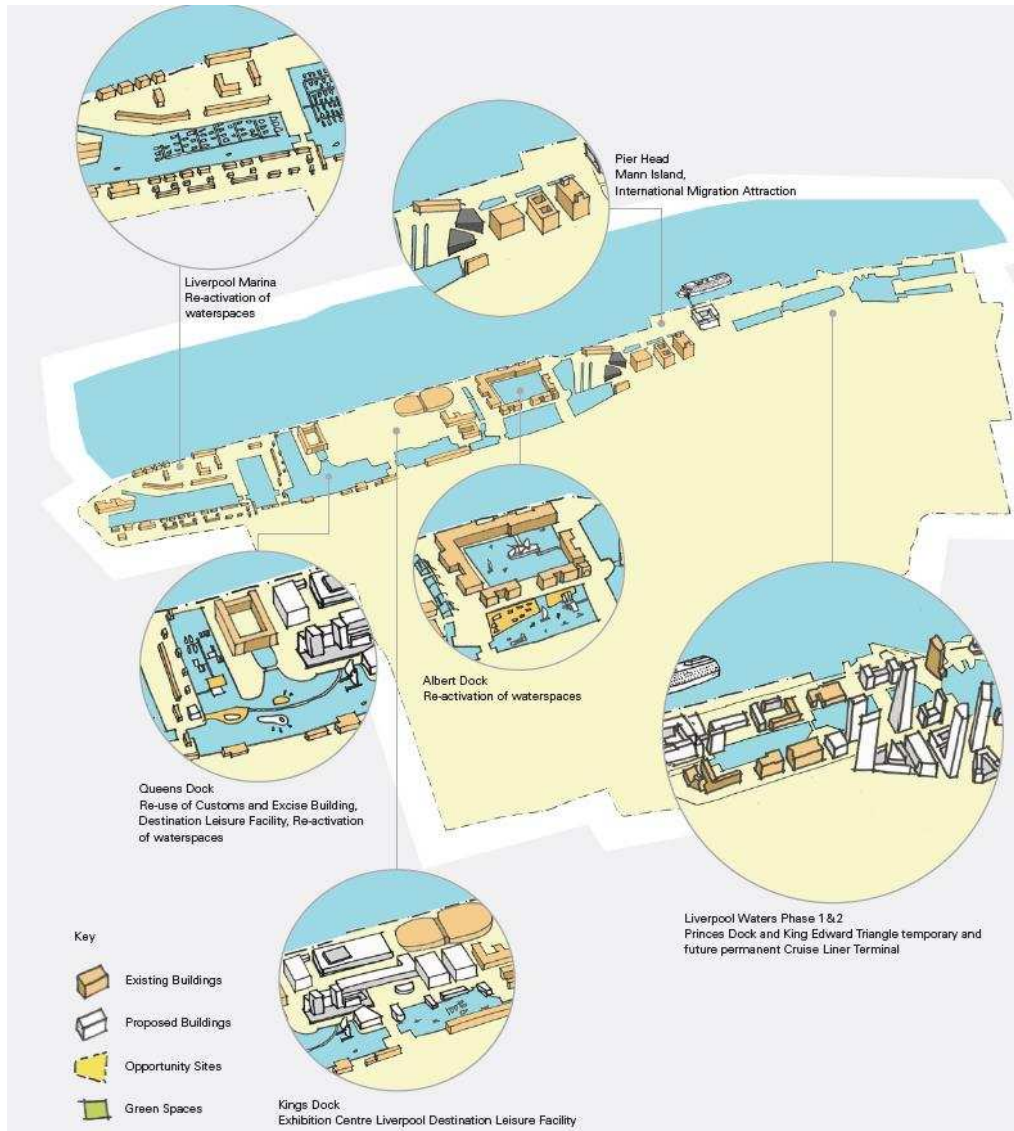


Figure 7. 2 SIF (2012), the major future transformational projects in Liverpool city centre waterfront **Source** adopted from Liverpool Vision (2012b, p. 37)

Projects to fill the Gap	Projects to Connect	Projects to Enliven
Liverpool Waters – Completion of Princes Dock and realisation of King Edward districts.	Link into Liverpool Waters	River animation – Through activities such as water taxis and boat tours
Kings Dock – Construction of the Exhibition Centre and hotel	Canning Dry Dock bridge	Lighting up the Central Axis – As part of the overall ‘Lighting the City’

		initiative
Liverpool Cruise Terminal – Situated within Princes Dock	Link between the ACC Liverpool and the Museum of Liverpool – These currently disconnected assets need a high quality connection for walking and cycling	Promotion of a Waterfront festival – The Mersey River Festival
Destination Leisure – An opportunity to place an ‘extreme sports visitor destination’ or similar, on the Waterfront.	Waterfront connections – Connecting the Waterfront to the City Centre in conjunction with the ‘Great Streets’	Enlivening the Waterspace
HM Revenue & Customs building redevelopment – An opportunity to redevelop this significant building situated on Queens Dock, opening up this section of the Waterfront and improving north-south connections.	Enhanced signage – As the Waterfront develops further, additional signage is required particularly at the Pier Head	

Table 7. 1 SIF (2012), the future waterfront projects in Liverpool **Source** adopted from Liverpool Vision (2012b, p. 36-38)

7.2.2 The Role of Culture in Liverpool’s Future Regeneration

Five strategic sectors have been stressed in the SIF (2012) as fundamental for securing the city future development. The sectors are culture and visitor economy, financial, professional and business, life science, and digital and creativity. This section will focus on examining the role of culture for the future regeneration as the current waterfront of Liverpool is predominantly about culture and visitor economy. SIF (2012) pointed out that culture and visitor sector has become increasingly prominent over the past years with the delivery of the most successful European Capital of Culture year ever staged. It also emphasises the role of the waterfront for strengthen the future of culture and visitor economy. The opportunity of creating a world class visitor attraction through focussing on the inherent strengths of waterfront landscape such as the dock and canal link was highlighted by the SIF. Moreover, SIF (2012) stresses on the importance the Cruise Liner Terminal to reinforce the uniqueness of Liverpool proposition, as a world port city able to attract visitors from across the globe. Yet, to what degree culture can sustain the future development of the city?

The role of culture as an instrument for the future waterfront regeneration has been discussed by the research interviewees. The culture is identified as Liverpool’s unique selling point and the city’s strongest competitive advantage. Dominic Wilkinson (Interview, 2013) ‘chair of Liverpool Architectural Society’ said that “we do not physically make things in this city, but we do have a strong culture which not only important for the image of the city but also in economic terms, thus, cultural regeneration is a reality in Liverpool and it is successful and it needs to be strengthen”. A former senior official in NWDA (Interview, 2013) acknowledged the role played

by culture and art museums in reimagining the city and physically investing in the city but he argued that it was mainly played by the central government through the National Museums of Liverpool and the local government has never take it seriously and still does not. With regards to cultural events, A former senior official in NWDA (Interview, 2013) pointed out, that cultural events in order to have a real impact on the city needs to be engineered as a stream of events which is quite difficult to do.

Michael Parkinson (Interview, 2013) argued that the culture of Liverpool is very distinctive and it has a great role to play in the future of the city but culture should not be considered as a final product of regeneration rather than kind of stepping stone in the process of change, reinvention, and modernisation. However, the overriding issue about culture is that it depends on public funding which is going to be very difficult to obtain in the future and with the current recession the city will have to pull out from culture, a former senior official in NWDA (Interview, 2013) said. Sue Grindrod (Interview, 2013), 'senior staff in TATE Liverpool and director of Liverpool Waterfront Business Partnership WBP' argued that to sustain the role of culture in the transformation of the city, cultural institutions have to be a public-private partnership and change its approach to entrepreneurial approach, she indicated that the TATE is a good example of that, it has generated almost 50% of its income through entrepreneurial approach.

However, these varied views on the contribution of cultural activities as part of urban regeneration show that despite the key role that culture has been playing in the regeneration of the city; there is a great uncertainty about its role for the future regeneration of the city. As the city aspires to attract substantial investment to regenerate large parts of its derelict docks predominantly in the North, the city, in fact, is moving beyond culture as a prime regeneration tool towards other sectors, in particular, business and professionals in order to expand the city business district and attract more high skilled and highly paid jobs. This is evident in granting a planning permission for the proposed skyscraper scheme of Liverpool Waters (see section 7.3) and the different tactics employed by the city to attract international investment such as the opening of an embassy in London to promote Liverpool and participating in Shanghai Expo 2010.

7.2.3 Place Marketing and Branding in Liverpool

Place marketing and branding has taken an increasing role in the recent transformation of Liverpool in response to the extreme global intercity competition besides challenging the outdated images of the city. The marketing of Liverpool is very much focussed on developing of Liverpool brand to represent the diverse yet complementary assets of the city (Vision, 2013). The regeneration of the previous period was tremendously important to develop and build the

Liverpool brand in order to market the city globally. Jenny Douglas (Interview, 2013) 'Head of Area Investment in Liverpool Vision' affirmed this saying "Liverpool brand with its waterfront and WHS is very strong internationally today, it is a very distinct element about Liverpool and we got to play with our international brand which can make a phenomenal difference".

The early efforts of marketing the city were started simultaneously with first era of the waterfront regeneration. These efforts were quite successful in their own right, but, they were fragmented, disjointed and not a part of a wider vision. Liverpool International Garden Festival and Albert Dock were exceptionally successful in bringing tourism to the derelict docklands. The efforts of marketing Liverpool continued throughout the successive period of regeneration with a great focus on marketing the city cultural offer such as ECoC 2008 or the city heritage distinctiveness such as WHS. Whilst those efforts were also very important in changing the city's unfavourable images of dereliction and social instability, yet, there was room for improvement through adopting a larger and more coherent long term marketing strategy not only to attract tourism but also attract business and further investment in other sectors. This, however, resulted in the first marketing policy of the city in 2012 called 'Marketing Liverpool' (Vision, 2013).

Within the recent initiative of Marketing Liverpool, the city has established a new branding scheme under the slogan of 'It's Liverpool' (Figure 7.3). The branding of Liverpool aims to build the city's external reputation through collaborative efforts of public and private sectors. It also aims to destroy the negative image and stereotypes of the decades of decline (Vision, 2013). Max Steinberg (2011) 'chief executive, Liverpool Vision' said "we are taking a very exciting and unique approach which involves the pooling of skills, resources and energy in order to achieve a common goal. Importantly, this initiative has been facilitated by the public sector, but created to allow the private sector and the people of Liverpool more space to lead and shape the reputation and future of our city. No other city is doing this, and whilst the campaign is certainly not a panacea for Liverpool, it marks a very important next step in Liverpool's continuing renewal" (The Drum, 2011). This sentiment shows the increasing role of branding in the future transformation of the city.

The importance of branding has been also highlighted by Liverpool Echo (2012), it indicated that the rebranding Liverpool is significant in order to secure the future prosperity of the city; it also reported that "the Liverpool Plan reflects the real desire in Liverpool to continue the momentum of regeneration and economic development of recent years. A lot still needs to be done, especially in changing perceptions many people hold about the city, which is no longer locked in its past but fiercely ambitious about its future and ensuring its growing prosperity".

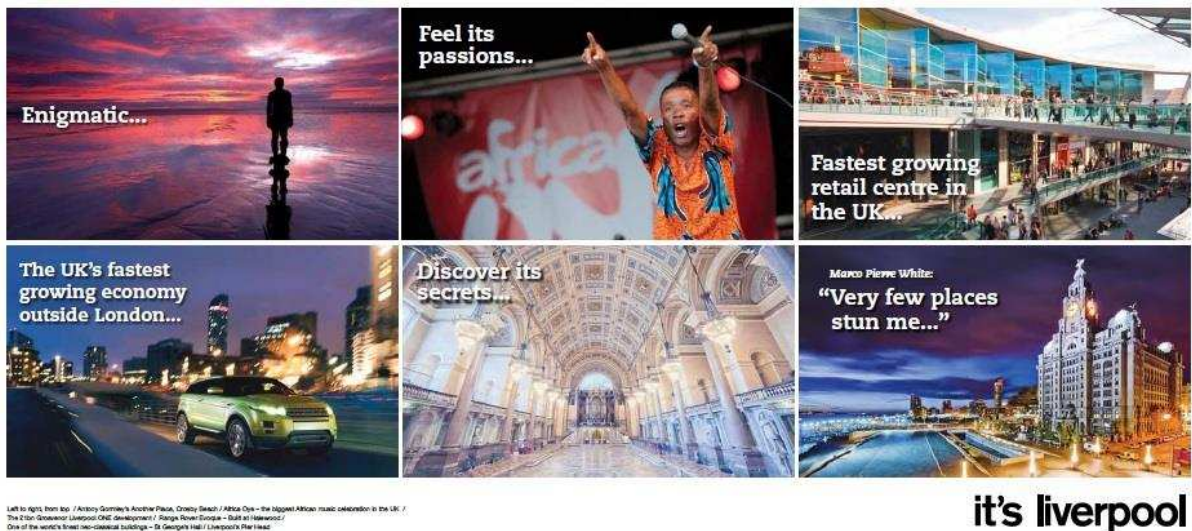


Figure 7. 3 It's Liverpool branding campaign, aims to attract further investment into the city by destroying the negative perception and image **Source** It's Liverpool website <http://www.itsliverpool.com/> [accessed 15th June 2014]

The city also has recognised that to increase its growth, the city should increase its market share of visitors, students, businesses, and residents and therefore, the city needs to present its distinctive qualities and opportunities consistently and compellingly (LEP, 2012). In urban terms, this marketing approach has been reflected in the idea of distinctive neighbourhoods in the SIF (2012) where the future development of the city aimed to build on the distinctive qualities of different parts of the city centre. Jenny Douglas (Interview, 2013) pointed out that the idea of the distinctive neighbourhoods is an area that the city is developing at the moment in order to market the sectors in which we have strength.

From an urban design point of view, can the marketing of the distinctive neighbourhoods influence the future physical identity of the place? Dominic Wilkinson (Interview, 2013) 'Chair of Liverpool Architectural Society' said that the marketing of the distinctive neighbourhoods are the products of the physical and functional character rather than the other way around. It is really taking and trying to put an identifying label on something was already there, the waterfront, the business district, the Ropewalk, and the Knowledge Quarter were always there. Wilkinson (Interview, 2013) argued that the distinctive neighbourhoods do oversimplify things by put red lines and labels, they do not have any long term significance on the physical nature of the area, the buildings typology, or the functional distribution of things which will happened anyway, the marketing is a way of helping to channel interest into those areas. He concluded that marketing of the distinctive neighbourhoods does not hinder but does not really make any ultimately long term difference to the physical identity of those places.

7.3 Future Proposed Development on Liverpool Waterfront; Liverpool Waters Scheme

“Never mind the height – check the quality and character”

Merseyside Civic Society MCS message to UNESCO/ICOMOS with regards to building tall buildings in the Liverpool WHS

7.3.1 The Evolution of Liverpool Waters Scheme

Liverpool Waters is a major regeneration and development scheme proposed for the derelict north docks of Liverpool at an estimating cost of around £5.5bn. The developer of the project is the giant of the North-West Peel Group. The company has previously developed large significant projects in Manchester and Liverpool such as Trafford Centre, Media City in Salford, and it is a major investor in Liverpool John Lennon Airport. Peel is not a single company; it is a consortium of individually registered companies. The Peel Group describes itself as “a leading real estate, transport and infrastructure investment company in the UK with assets under management approaching approximately £5 billion. The Peel Group holds significant investments in a number of growing businesses, including Ports, Airports, Media, Energy, Land, Developments, Investment Property, Environmental Assets, Hotels, Utilities and Advertising, as well as a portfolio of investments in quoted and unquoted companies” (Peel, 2013). The ExUrbe (2013) report pointed that the brand of Peel means different things to different audiences and critics reasonably argue that the organisation is effectively a “jack of all trades and master of none”.

The original Liverpool Waters scheme was unveiled in 2007, it contained iconic sky scrapers many over 50 storeys; self-sufficient buildings generating power through wind turbines incorporated into the design of the buildings; a new promenade and bridges across the water; a creation of a new marina. The original idea revolved around a centrepiece ‘Shanghai Tower’, a 60-storey building (Figure 7.4).

The project is completely located within the WHS and its buffer zone. 42% of the project land is within the World Heritage Site, and makes up about 22% of the whole inscribed Site. Peel (2012) claimed that the project intends to draw on the distinctive identity of the site and the city to define character areas, delivering a high density and easy accessible waterfront that is both economically and environmentally sustainable, and which will significantly reinforce Liverpool’s strong identity. However, the project since it has been announced has raised a lot of

concerns about its effect on the historical area of the WHS. However, Peel (2012) maintained that the aspects of the outstanding universal value of the site that are embodied in the site will be protected, enhanced and presented to the public on agreed criteria in conjunction with Liverpool City Council.

Subsequently Liverpool Waters has become popular is the media attention for generally two reasons; its ambitious vision and its challenge to aspects of heritage conservation. Carter (2007) in *The Guardian* reported that Liverpool Waters represents the largest investment in the north-west for more than 100 years and would create homes for up to 50,000 residents, as well as hotels, bars, restaurants and a marina. A monorail would link the city centre with its airport. But she also doubted the ability of the city to deliver such an ambitious project arguing that “the city has a history of not delivering on landmark waterfront buildings, such as Will Alsop's Cloud, but developer Peel Holdings' vision is more spectacular than any other plans mooted”. Carter (2007) also pointed out that a cluster of tall buildings will be constructed next to the abandoned six-faced Jessy Hartley clock at the gateway of the city. She quoted Lindsey Ashworth ‘the director of investment for Peel’ saying that “the development will be a pastiche of the Albert Dock development, which was conceived in the early 1980s as a driver for the regeneration in Liverpool. The emphasis now was on cluster of tall buildings” (cited from (Carter, 2007)). This in fact is a major shift in the approach to the regeneration of the built heritage. This shift will now be explored in detail.



Figure 7.4 \ the initial proposal of Liverpool Waters **Source** \ Liverpool Water website,
<http://www.liverpoolwaters.co.uk/content/home.php>
<http://www.liverpoolwaters.co.uk/content/home.php>
 [Accessed 17th June 2014]

After three years of developing the Liverpool Waters proposal since its announcement in 2007, a modified scheme was submitted in 2010 to acquire planning permission. During the same time Peel succeeded in securing the other developments in Wirral Waters⁶ while also engaging in discussion with different parties and agencies in the city about its plans such as the English Heritage, and CABE.

Peel responded after the consultation with these different agencies by removing a number of skyscrapers and agreeing that no buildings directly on the Mersey waterfront, north of Princes Dock, would be higher than 15 storeys (Liverpool Daily Post, 2011a). The new modified scheme covered a site of 60ha starting from the north of Liverpool's Pier Head waterfront, covering the Princes Dock in the South to Bramley Moore Dock at the northernmost extent of the site (Figure 7.5). The scheme brings forward proposals for 9,152 residential units, 69,735 m² of hotel and conference space, 305,499 m² of Business space, and in addition to, retail, leisure and community facilities. The master-plan includes a series of public spaces and a cruise ship

⁶ Wirral Waters is the sister of Liverpool Waters, the two halves of Peels Waters opposite to each other on the two sides of the River Mersey. Wirral Waters is proposed by the Peel Group for Birkenhead, on the Wirral Peninsula, England. It is a large scale £4.5billion development.

terminal. The modified scheme is a high density development that incorporates two clusters of tall buildings, with towers up to 195 metres in height, the majority of the scheme is a medium rise blocks along the Mersey River front. The Liverpool Waters site lies entirely within Liverpool WHS and its Buffer Zone (Bond, 2011).

Lindsey Ashworth, director of investment for Peel was reported in local media stating that Peel is not prepared to make any more changes after already significantly reduced the size of the development, Bartlett (2011c). Responses from others suggest the concessions offered by Peel are not yet meeting critics concerns. English Heritage despite it has supported the principle of a major scheme regenerating the docks has commented on the Liverpool Waters Scheme saying that “the information of the planning application does not allow the effect of the development on historic buildings to be assessed accurately” (Liverpool Daily Post, 2011a). English Heritage further stated that they are willing to work closely with Peel and the City Council to resolve the heritage concerns.

Similarly, CABE (2011) criticised the proposal for its lack of information and ambiguity, it has stated that “the current Liverpool Waters planning application does not fully articulate the nature of what is being applied for in the material submitted and, in its current form, does not provide the confidence that a high quality scheme will emerge”.





Figure 7.5 Liverpool Waters, the new modified scheme **Source** \ Liverpool Waters website
<http://www.liverpoolwaters.co.uk/media/images> [Accessed 17th June 2014]

Peel initially collaborated with English Heritage and CABE in order to reach to a compromised solution that would allay their heritage and design concerns. Gradually, however, Peel became impatient, and refused to bow anymore to pressure from heritage groups. Consequently, English Heritage warned Peel that it would fight Liverpool Waters Scheme unless Peel agreed to make further changes in the scheme. English Heritage also stated that Peel has a significant way to go to convince English Heritage to back the scheme and that the new development would not damage the City's WHS (Bartlett, 2011c).

If the project secured planning permission and English Heritage lodges an objection, the scheme will automatically be referred to the Communities Secretary for a costly and lengthy public inquiry, said (Bartlett, 2011c) in the Liverpool Daily Post. English Heritage also commissioned an independent agency to assess the impact of Liverpool Waters on the outstanding universal value of the WHS. The assessment covered (Bond, 2011, p. 3):

- Direct and indirect impacts on 33 heritage assets previously identified as WHS attributes of OUV;
- The impact on key views to and the setting of 15 strategic heritage assets within the wider WHS and its Buffer Zone;
- The impact on 31 key views of the Central Docks identified during pre-application consultations;
- The impact on the 6 constituent WHS character areas;

- The degree to which the proposals comply or vary from relevant local, national and international policy;
- The degree to which the proposals comply with or vary from the guidance provided in the Liverpool WHS SPD;
- The application's delivery of 'innovation', being one intangible attribute of OUV that has consistently been identified as being of considerable importance to the WHS;
- The cumulative impact of the application on the WHS and its OUV.

The findings of the report stated that *“despite delivery of some positive impacts including the safeguarding of the future of the principal individual heritage assets on the site through repair and reuse, the application will have a significantly damaging negative impact on the Liverpool Maritime Mercantile World Heritage Site and its OUV. The application will result in an array of negative impacts on OUV (a number of which will be of major magnitude), whilst harming aspects of the integrity and authenticity of the Stanley Dock Character Area and its intimate setting”* (Bond, 2011, p. 5).

Based upon the recommendations of this report, English Heritage issued an official objection to the Liverpool Waters scheme. Henry Owen-John, the North West region head of English Heritage pointed out “We are not in a position to judge what the balance is between heritage, which we know about, and economic development, which we know less about” (Bartlett, 2012b). English Heritage in its official objection said that the plans will cause a substantial harm to the outstanding universal value of the WHS; it also opposed the secondary cluster of tall building around the Clarence Dock, saying it would overwhelm the historic horizontal character of the docklands. Furthermore, English Heritage also argued that the project would “detract from the historic primacy of the Three Graces and will harm the setting of the Stanley Dock warehouses by obscuring key views” reported by Bartlett (2012b) in Liverpool Daily Post. A key concern for English Heritage was the construction on the docks which, as they argued, would harm the appearance and the exceptional quality of the masonry work and the overall integrity of the heritage assets.

UNESCO in 2011 was also very concerned about the impact of Liverpool Waters on the WHS. It has warned the city that it could strip off the WHS status if the proposal is granted planning permission (Bartlett, 2011a). UNESCO decided to send a reactive monitoring mission to Liverpool to assess the city's WHS, meanwhile, Bartlett (2011a) reported that Liverpool has delayed making a decision on Liverpool Waters until after the visit of UNESCO inspectors. He also reported that the city set up a campaign committee to convince UNESCO not to strip the WHS status from Liverpool.

The warning of the UNESCO to strip WHS accolade had increased significantly the worries amongst the officials of Liverpool. Bartlett (2011b) in the Liverpool Daily Post quoted Chris Grayling ‘The Minister of Liverpool for Employment’ saying “it is a great shame that the UNSECO is taking that view, there are plenty of places around the world where sensitive modern development sites alongside historic sites”, Mr Grayling further said “when it is something as important as the WHS, I would like to see both sides of debate sitting down and working out solution”. Liverpool Daily Post (2011) also reported that Cllr Richard Kemp ‘deputy leader of the Liberal Democrat opposition on Liverpool Council’, pointed “losing our WHS status would be a real tragedy”, he further argued that “the Peel development is hugely optimistic proposal set to last for many years and with an unproven market while the UNSECO status is bringing tourism and therefore, jobs. *Liverpool must remain distinctive if it is to be successful and the WHS is more important than skyscrapers in that regards*” (Bartlett, 2011b). These two statements from two of the Liverpool public figures show the controversy within the city itself about what is more appropriate. Whilst the first statement by Mr Grayling reflects the sense of blame for the UNESCO for its warning to punish the city, the second sentiment of Cllr Kemp places the responsibility on the city if the UNESCO warning took place and arguing that the city should work on protecting its distinctiveness and therefore, valuing the WHS over the Peel’s project.

The expected UNESCO monitoring mission to Liverpool had become a hot topic in the media. Different agencies and community groups had been involved in the discussion. The central view that majority tended to advocate is that the city of Liverpool needs both, the WHS status is important as well as the Liverpool Waters project and the city needs to convince the UNESCO and Peel to find a compromised solution. Damian Waters ‘North West Director of Confederation of British Industry’ said “Out of the World Heritage sites in the UK Liverpool is one of the most important because it marks Britain’s business and commercial heritage. This site is not a monument, it is at the beating heart of Liverpool’s commercial district, and in that sense it is fundamentally different to tourist sites such as the Stonehenge or Durham Cathedral. Its prime purpose today remains commercial and it does need to move with the times, UNESCO must understand that Liverpool faces formidable economic challenges”, he also pointed out “Liverpool businesses are enormously proud of their heritage and would not support plans which would undermine the city’s magnificent architecture which is after all one of the city’s greatest assets and selling points” (Cited in Liverpool Echo, 2011a). Similar to this is the statement made by the Mayor of Liverpool Cllr Joe Anderson who supported the project considerably “*We believe it is perfectly possible to retain the outstanding universal value of the World Heritage Site (WHS), while at the same time reflecting the growing needs of a thriving and developing city. At the moment, the area is a derelict eyesore which no-one can access; it seems to*

me perverse that this is deemed acceptable. Peel Holdings have come up with a hugely exciting scheme which maintains its heritage and brings it back into use for people to enjoy". What can be understood from these sentiments that the city is preparing to fight for both, it does not want neither to lose its heritage status nor to discard the scheme.

The UNESCO monitoring mission visited Liverpool in November 2011 to consider whether Liverpool should lose its WHS status or not. The monitoring mission report calls for the Liverpool City Council, English Heritage, and the developer Peel Holdings to work out a compromise on Liverpool Waters scheme, yet surprisingly, the report did not state what will happen if there is no change are made to the project, Bartlett (2012c) reported in Liverpool Echo. However, the monitoring mission report was very critical of Liverpool Waters. The report concluded that *"if the proposed Liverpool Waters scheme as outlined during the mission would be implemented, the World Heritage property would be irreversibly damaged, due to a serious deterioration of its architectural and town-planning coherence, a serious loss of historical authenticity, and an important loss of cultural significance"* (UNESCO, 2011, p. 4). The mission also supported the comprehensive Heritage Impact Assessment, commissioned by English Heritage which expressed the deep concern about the negative impact on the outstanding universal value of Liverpool's WHS. The report was also critical of the Heritage Impact Assessment produced by Peel Holdings in collaboration Liverpool City Council, which as stated by the mission *"not surprisingly comes to almost diametrical conclusions – i.e. the visual and physical impacts on heritage assets are negligible, alongside the very positive socio-economic impacts generated by the scheme in terms of revenue and employment generation"* (UNESCO, 2011, p. 4).

The UNESCO monitoring mission (2011) was very critical about the changes that the proposed project will result in the city's skyline. It argued that the two clusters of tall buildings will shift the profile of the city to north by introducing a cluster of tall building three times higher than the Three Graces, which will relegate the Three Graces to play second violin and therefore, losing a significant visual and historical reference to the city's glorious past (Figure 7.6). Furthermore, the mission criticised the way the project was designed as it will fragment and isolate different dock areas, instead of integrating them, besides it would alter the relationship of the different areas of the World Heritage property, thus seriously affecting its integrity.



Figure 7.6 \ Liverpool Waters Axonometric masterplan seen from the north, it shows the two clusters of tall buildings which UNESCO is very critical about. **Source** \ UNESCO (2011, p. 17)

With respect to the Liverpool Maritime Mercantile City World Heritage Site Supplementary Planning Document (SPD)⁷ which was adopted in October 2009 by Liverpool City Council, the UNESCO, however, stated it does not agree with its content in regards with the suggestion relating to opportunities for two secondary clusters of high-rise buildings both of which are in the buffer zone, away from major cluster of the Central Business District which are in away close to Peel is proposing (Figure 7.7). UNESCO (2011) regarded this suggestion as inconsistent with the recommendations of the 2006 mission. This, in fact, has further worsened the relationship between the city council and the UNESCO (Interview with former NWDA senior official, 2013).

The media coverage for the UNESCO monitoring mission reflected the ongoing fears that what the UNESCO presented to the city as international recognition with one hand could be easily taken away by the other hand. Liverpool Echo (2012) wrote an article titled “Don’t punish the city of Liverpool, Unesco”, it stated “...The last thing this city wants to do is destroy its heritage, and we have no intention of allowing that to happen. We also have no intention of missing out on an exciting and ambitious scheme which aims to revive and regenerate the depressed northern docklands – providing new hope, new opportunities and new jobs Trust us to carry on combining the new and the old – and allow us to retain the status you gave us, while

⁷ The WHS SPD was prepared by the City Council and English Heritage as one of the recommendations of the World Heritage Centre/ICOMOS joint mission to Liverpool in 2006. The SPD deals with the management of the WHS and provides a detailed guidance for new development, regeneration and conservation.

continuing to look to the future". This statement reveals the huge sense of fear and distress expressed by the city with regards to stripping the WHS accolade.

Different scenarios of what will happen were discussed in the media during this period, and these reveal the opposing views of the two sides. Joe Anderson, the Council Leader, reported saying he wants both the Liverpool Waters scheme and WHS accolade, he declared "whatever happens in 2012, let me be absolutely clear about one thing: we will back Liverpool Waters" (Bartlett, 2012a). Bartlett (2012a) said that if compromise cannot be reached, which is more likely, he expected that the city council might impose conditions on the scheme in an attempt to curtail it to satisfy English Heritage and UNSECO. However, Peel, has previously threatened to walk away if they do not get their way. Bartlett (2012d) pointed out that it is inconceivable that city will not approve the plans which promise to create 20,000 jobs badly needed in Liverpool and regeneration of the derelict docklands, but, he argued the future of the project is uncertain, the city would risk its WHS and also threat of public inquiry is probable. He further explains if the scheme approved, the planning application will be referred to Communities Secretary Eric Pickles to see if he asks for public inquiry, because of the objection of the UNESCO and English Heritage, and also due to the size of retail element outside the core city centre. It might also be referred to the Culture Secretary because of the risk to the WHS status.

Liverpool Waters, however, was granted planning permission in February 2012 which meant a major implications for the future of the city's WHS status. Few months later, the UNESCO World Heritage Committee decided to place Liverpool Maritime Mercantile City on the *List of World Heritage in Danger*, with the possibility of deletion of the property from the World Heritage List if the current project be implemented (UNESCO, 2012). However, Liverpool Daily Post acknowledged the threat posed by heritage agencies but it argued that the scale of Liverpool Waters is such that "we can not ignore its potential bonanza for our economic fortune" (Post, 2012).

The city's determination to pursue regenerating the north docklands through Liverpool Waters has been clearly indicated in the SIF (2012). It stated "... The ambition and vision of the SIF is most readily articulated by the plans for Liverpool Waters... Liverpool Waters has the potential to add to the city's existing waterfront offer in the same way as has been seen in Hamburg, Chicago, Toronto and Barcelona, in terms of the scale and diversity of its waterfront offer and associated economy. By 2027, the City Centre, and in particular its Commercial District, must be ready to expand into Liverpool Waters' northern waterfront".

In March 2013, with regards to sending Liverpool Waters to public enquiry because of the objection of English Heritage, Eric Pickles the Communities Secretary indicated that he would

not ask for a public inquiry over Peel's project. He said the decision over the Liverpool Waters plans is to be taken by the city's councillors. Bartlett (2013) argued this can be considered as the government green light for the project to go ahead. He also said, this decision meant the city's heritage will be protected, Joe Anderson 'Liverpool Mayor' pointed. He also said "this announcement marks the start of a new era for Liverpool, paving the way to us delivering a world-class development which will transform a part of the city in desperate need of investment for decades. We can now look forward to the plans moving forward on this once-in-a-lifetime scheme which will bring huge, lasting benefits to future generations in this city" (cited in Bartlett (2013)). This, however, read by critics as an indication of the general inclination of the national government towards prioritising the betterment of cities' economy over other matters.

Nevertheless, Bartlett (2013) reported in Liverpool Echo that English Heritage declared in response to the government green light for the project that "We have always felt it would have been possible to develop a scheme which delivered jobs and growth and which enhanced, rather than harmed, Liverpool's outstanding heritage, we are therefore very disappointed that Peel failed to take this opportunity and insisted that the current scheme was the one on which a decision must be taken". However, hitherto since all the legal issues regarding the project had been resolved, yet, nothing in the ground started to take place. Lindsey Ashworth 'development director of Peel' stated "we are in the recession time, and we need a better market conditions to start working" (Bartlett, 2013).

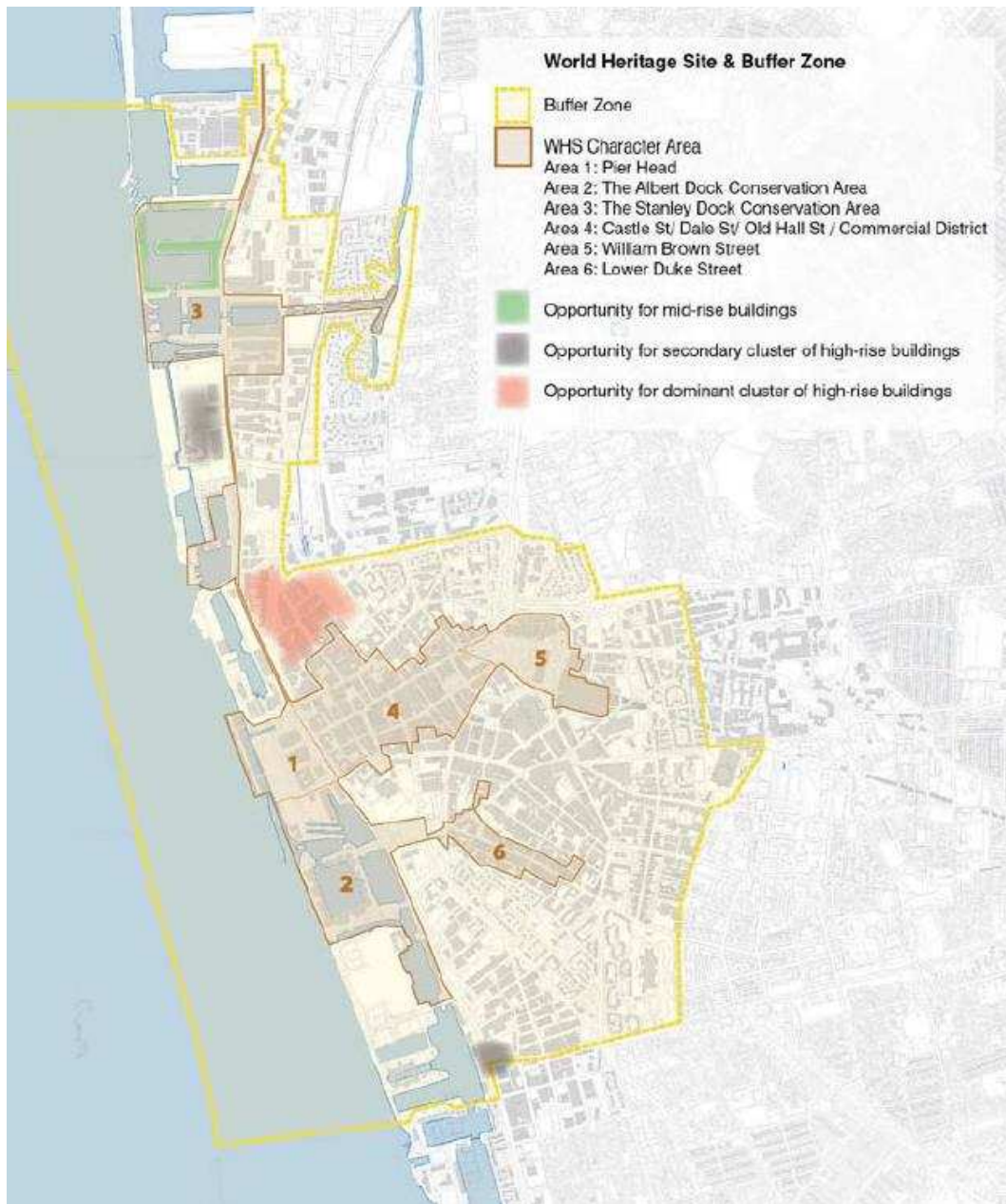


Figure 7.7 SPD, locations of the opportunities for high-rise building in the WHS Buffer Zone **Source**\ Liverpool City Council (2009, p. 59)

7.3.2 Liverpool Waters from the stakeholders' points of view

“What is essential is a good and widely-respected conservation strategy, alongside a first-class development masterplan. At the moment, I don't feel that English Heritage are competent to lecture Liverpool on the best way forward, and I feel that UNESCO have been ill-advised. At the end, I regard having a correct strategy as more important than having the WHS title”.

Trevor Skempton (Interview, 2013) 'a former urban design consultant advisor for Liverpool City Council'

This section analyses the Liverpool Waters scheme from stakeholders' points of view. Although the tension between Liverpool Waters and Heritage conservation agencies dominated the discussion in the news articles, it is also reflected widely on the stakeholders' debate about what is more appropriate and how to secure the future growth of the city without compromising its uniqueness. The analysis outcomes have been categorized into three major themes in order to achieve better discussion. The first theme concerns with the developer Peel and its ability to deliver such a project. The second theme reflects the tension between conservation and development. The last moves to scrutinise the impact of WHS status on Liverpool and question its future viability.

7.3.2.1 Liverpool Waters and Peel Holding

Liverpool Waters although it is widely criticised for different issues, yet, the principles of regenerating the north docklands is generally accepted. Liverpool Waters is considered as an important project to secure the future growth of the city particularly with the current global recession and the massive competition with other cities. Dominic Wilkinson (Interview, 2013) 'chair of Liverpool Architectural Society' believes that given the time scale of the project 20-40 years the project will match the scale of growth of the city, and it is a good opportunity for the city that there is a developer want to develop with this long term view. Nonetheless, Wilkinson (Interview, 2013) has some concerns about the quality of the project because as he argues that Peel employs second tier architects, nevertheless, he believes that the quality masterplan is improving.

Although there are some worries raised about the developer such as the quality of their work as highlighted by Wilkinson (Interview, 2013) above, in fact, the developer of the project Peel Holdings was considered by many interviewees also as a source of confidence. Several

stakeholders argued that the size of the company and its ability to deliver huge projects such as Trafford Centre, Media City in Salford, besides owning Liverpool Port and Liverpool John Lennon Airport gave the confidence that Peel has the ability to deliver such ambitious projects. Jenny Douglas (Interview, 2013) 'head of area investment in Liverpool Vision' affirmed this saying that "Peel has a good record of delivering projects and despite how ambitious is Liverpool Waters I do not see a reason why it cannot happen, Liverpool experience with Peel is they do what they say, they are not going to go and spend money unless they are sure they will benefit from it, she argued, I think the question is over what period of time they are going to deliver it? And to what degree is it going to be achieved because it is hugely ambitious scheme which presupposes an economic growth for the city in the next 40 years". She also argued if the city can sustain that level of development we will be transformed to a completely different city.

This project makes a great sense if it to be seen as a part of the Peel's vision of the Atlantic Gateway as a major private sector investment in the North West region for the next 50 years ⁸, Peter Brown (Interview, 2013) '*chair of Merseyside Civic Society MCS*⁹' pointed out. He further explains Peel's vision for the North West is based on very much sustainable set of principles, part of that aims to re-establish Liverpool Key role as a major import and export port and at least they are making that commitment for the city. He also indicated that what Peel is seeing also crucial which is the involvement of the Chinese investment especially in Liverpool and Wirral Waters as a bridging point to Europe, Peel secured part of the fund for these projects from China and this was amongst the benefit of Liverpool being the only city in the UK alongside London being represented in Shanghai Expo 2010 which was a really good move, obviously held by Peel recognising that opportunity.

Sue Grindrod (Interview, 2013), 'senior staff in TATE Liverpool and director of Liverpool Waterfront Business Partnership WBP' stated that Peel Holding are really important to Liverpool and Waterfront in terms of future development, Peel now is part of the WBP and they are making sure the WBP group and the waterfront development is very strong and robust because that provide a platform for their development in Liverpool Waters, so they are contributing positively to the waterfront and in terms of their commitment, it is very strong. Michael Parkinson (Interview, 2013) 'Director of European Institute of Urban Affairs EIUA' emphasised the importance of Peel's scheme for the city saying that Peel is a serious investor and it is important to remember that the city suffered over the years from number of investors

⁸ Atlantic Gateway is a significant project in the North West aims to attract investment and accelerate growth, it focuses in five key themes: growth, connectivity, infrastructure, sustainability and talent.

⁹ MCS is a civic society founded in 1938 to engage the people of Liverpool city region, to help to preserve and maintain key elements of the area's past, such as the Albert Dock and the Lyceum, as well as encouraging and supporting excellence in design.

who say they are going to do things but they do not. However, Parkinson (Interview, 2013) said that “despite their importance for the city I do have reservations about their scheme, I would like to see more human development and they do have to make it pay for them financially”, he also prefers that “it is better to have the development even it was not exactly the way we wanted rather than not have it”. This, however, shows the desperate need of the city to secure its future growth even if it was at the expense of the quality of the actual urban design or architecture and Peels’ scheme seems to be significant for that.

Nonetheless, although Peel has quite good records of delivering ambitious projects, yet, many have questioned Liverpool Waters viability. Guy Butler (Interview, 2013) ‘Liverpool One director, Grosvenor’ said “I think Peel’s proposal for the North Docks is very good and exciting but will it be ever happen? I really doubt it, I love to see it happen but I am a developer and I do not dream, so I cannot see it happen, if it is going to attract the Chinese why here not London instead. Also the amount of space they are proposing is just something else and there is no demand”. Similarly, Chris Couch (Interview, 2012) ‘Professor of urban planning in the University of Liverpool’ argued that “I am sceptical of Liverpool Waters, I would be very surprised if that happened in the way it portrayed”, he furthermore criticised the project arguing that it is not the way to go about planning and regeneration in that area, he thinks the Liverpool economy is not that strong and this project will end up with competition with the city centre which in his opinion could be very detrimental for the city centre.

A number of critics compared the development of Peel’s Liverpool Waters with Grosvenor’s Liverpool One. Rob Burns (Interview, 2013) ‘urban design and heritage manager in Liverpool City Council’ elucidated that “they are entirely different schemes; Grosvenor responded to a brief and it was limited by time scale, yet with Peel the time scale is different, the project is part of Peel’s vision for the North West economy”. Jenny Douglas (Interview, 2013) further explain that “Peel chose to buy a huge area of redundant dockland which was at that time the Mersey Dock and Harbour Company so Peel arrived on the scene without any request from the city, then they have developed their own proposal and they needed a planning permission from the local authority for their proposal but the process is being a lot less collaborative, with Grosvenor the process was completely the opposite and it was a partnership project”. Dominic Wilkinson (Interview, 2013) argued that the difference in quality between Grosvenor and Peel, he stated that “the main difference is Grosvenor understand the quality and they do only projects that is a good quality business, Peel also understand quality but they are much more commercial and ruthless”.

A major concern about Peel is the quality of their work which has been criticised heavily. Parkinson (Interview, 2013) pointed that “I do have a great reservation about the kind of development they want to do because they do the kind of development that you see in Salford and Trafford Centre which is really monotonous, confirmative, and really is Midwestern”. He argued that the trick for place like Liverpool is to get investor but not any investor, the investors which probably they are going to invest in Liverpool for the next 20 years, they are very few, and most have pulled out and they will continue to pull out as the recession continues and Liverpool will find it very difficult to find any significant investment, therefore, the trick is to work with people who want to invest and develop but also try to get your quality in that.

In general, what can be seen from the previous discussion that there is an agreement amongst stakeholders on the role of private investors for securing the future development of the city. Interestingly, the key issue of concern for the stakeholders was how to maximise the quality of the development and how the new development will result in better places for people. In short, the core concern revolved around urban design issues rather than merely heritage conservation.

7.3.2.2 The Conservation of Built Heritage and the Development of Liverpool Waters

The tension between the heritage agencies and Peel over the development in the Northern docks of Liverpool instigated a substantial discussion about the future transformation of Liverpool waterfront.

English Heritage view about Liverpool Waters was clearly summarised in their formal advice to Liverpool City Council, it asserted that “English Heritage fully supports the principle of developing the site. However, we believe that the impact from the current proposals on the historic character of Liverpool as a whole, on the Outstanding Universal Value of the World Heritage Site, on the significance and setting of many designated heritage assets, and on important archaeological remains, is very serious. There are some heritage benefits that will flow from the development in time, if they are properly secured, but these are significantly outweighed by the harm that will be done” (Ives, 2012, p. 31). Akin to this is the UNESCO response to Liverpool Waters which concluded that the redevelopment scheme of Liverpool Waters would ignore the current consensus on the role and meaning of the buffer zone, not take into consideration the concept of the Historic Urban Landscape, and damage of the Outstanding Universal Value of the property beyond repair. Also UNESCO pointed that they are fully supportive of the regeneration efforts undertaken by the Liverpool City Council, putting heritage at the heart of the spatial development process, it will not support the Liverpool

Waters scheme in its current outline, as it will be developed at the expense of the city's heritage and its Outstanding Universal Value (UNESCO, 2011).

Graeme Ives (Interview, 2013) 'English Heritage Historic Area Advisor in the North West' explained the English Heritage objection in more detail saying that "English Heritage is agreeing on the principles of regenerating the north docks and there is no question about that, it is a huge site vacant incredible waste, the question is about how it should be done not about not whether or not should be done. The main issue of English Heritage is the cluster of tall buildings in the Central Docks and there are two clusters of tall buildings, the first one we agreed with in principles which is the first cluster of tall buildings just north the Pier Head in the central business district because the topography slightly higher so you could use the topography to emphasize the slight change in topography". Graeme Ives (Interview, 2013) continued indicating that "from a historic development point of view, this is the commercial heart of Liverpool and where the development of these days and part of how they do that is through tall buildings and making the commercial part more legible and we accepted that in principles but the quality of buildings have to be good enough as planning application did not include a sufficient details, so we were very concerned to take such a big decision with that poor level of information. The second cluster of tall buildings further north in the absolutely flat docks landscape we felt that problematic as it would separate quit important areas of WHS from each other and it would divorce them, and there are quite key views across the WHS and in the WHS these views will be obscured by this second cluster of tall buildings". In actual fact, what can be noticed from English Heritage explanation in their rejection that it was hugely influenced by employing some urban design criteria such as legibility.

Another point that was emphasised by English Heritage was the horizontal identity of the waterfront which is going to be challenged by the new waterfront scheme. Graeme Ives (Interview, 2013) indicated that "if you look at Liverpool waterfront from the other side of the river you will see very clearly the Pier Head waterfront which is really dramatic statement about how important Liverpool was before 100 years ago as one of the most important trading cities in the world and it is still stands out, then the tall buildings just to the north of the Pier Head which also helps to emphasis the commercial district, then we 'English Heritage' want to see the either sides of the docks' landscape maintained as something looks like the docks' landscape in simplistic terms, thus, we did not think that Liverpool Waters would allow that to be achieved".

However, despite this explanation from English Heritage about their rejection for the proposal, some considered their justifications were unsatisfactory. Peter Brown (2013, Interview) said "it

is very difficult to pin down what exactly they are concerned about, they have their point of view about the project and they are voicing their concerns about the lack of sensitivity of Liverpool Waters but what is very difficult is to get a clear indication what is the sticking point they keen to press other than the fact they are saying they are docks and they propose not to put a tall buildings on it, thus, English Heritage failed to give us a satisfactory response". Trevor Skempton (Interview, 2013) 'former urban design consultant advisor for Liverpool City Council' commented that "*I do not feel that English Heritage are competent to lecture Liverpool on the best way forward*". This, in fact, shows the level of how much officials in Liverpool were unsatisfied by English Heritage and UNESCO rejection.

Several arguments also came to light regarding the objection of UNESCO and English Heritage to Peel's proposal. Peter Brown (2013, Interview) on behalf of MCS argued that the intrinsic value is not going to be threatened by what is been proposed but what is there has to work in the today's commercial world, it cannot be kept to be very modest in scale if you are trying to attract international head office hires and you cannot say it is WHS so it has to be so small. Brown further elucidated that the MCS argument is being partly based on the idea that the port was always subject to change; there were lots of large structures, large ships so you cannot say you must not spoil what is derelict site by putting large objects on it because it was always full of large objects before. He stated "*its character is not what is now, its character was the bustling busy space, and its future should be about restoring some of that bustle and activities through what is Peel doing, so you have to see the future and you cannot just keep the sort of museum of the past*". Peter Brown (2013, Interview) also indicated "*because of our support to Liverpool Waters we heard a criticism that we as a civic society we supposed to be on the heritage side, however, we argue that we can preserve and retain what can be preserved but also it is important to remember that they are not going to have a future without some means of paying for their renewal and maintenance and that is have to be done on commercial grounds*".

Rob Burns (Interview, 2013) has almost similar argument to Brown. He stated that the central entity about the WHS is the qualities of the Outstanding Universal Value OUV, the OUV of Liverpool WHS is about the physical fabric, the warehouses, the commercial buildings, but, he argues, "*if you dig a little deeper you will find that Liverpool is an innovative city, it is a cultural city, it is an edgy city and all that it is not part of the OUV, so there is a temptation by the heritage agencies to concentrate on the fabric and the physical attribute but it is more than that of what made Liverpool a good place*". Burns (Interview, 2013) continued "*Liverpool invented many things; the first skyscraper technology, the world first public park, the first tram system in Europe and all these things about inventiveness, so the heart of Liverpool is not physical, we cannot see it but it is there and ignoring that is ignoring the thing that made Liverpool a WHS,*

the history of the city is about inventiveness, purposefulness, commerce and dynamism and the buildings will only tell part of that story". Burn correspondingly defended Liverpool Waters indicating that the design of the scheme could be better and this can be done through negotiation rather than objection.

English Heritage Historic Area Advisor in the North West, Graeme Ives (Interview, 2013) argued back saying the physical fabric and the intangible aspects of the OUV cannot be separated, but the fact is the reasons for inscribing the WHS is set out in the statement of in the OUV and one of the reasons which is very clearly about dock management and dock system and whole mercantile culture. It is also about the innovation itself, the document spoke about a world port city which obviously a lot more than just the docks so it does embrace a lot of things in terms of the innovation of the buildings and it also talks about the cultural side, a world identity, about of what is going on about the British empire, the impact of colonial trading system and the impact of the slavery. Ives (Interview, 2013) pointed "I think that Liverpool Waters and the side of this been over played by the people who are promoting it, again going back to Liverpool Waters planning application what is innovative about it, not a great deal maybe".

The view of English Heritage towards the development in Liverpool was considered as a narrow interpretation of their role, "they preserve their own position and not terribly flexible and they do not easily negotiate with other bodies", Interview with anonymous 'former senior official in North West Development Agency NWDA' (2013). Anonymous (2013) further argued that "English Heritage is a very single minded organisation, we have a lot of work with English Heritage during the years but they are very focussed on protecting historic fabric and I think this is also the case with UNESCO. In my particular view about the report commissioned by English Heritage to assess the impact on the OUV of WHS by Peels' proposal, the English Heritage consultant exaggerated the impact and I suspect that English Heritage wanted their consultant to produce a rather exhausted view of the WHS, one of the ways in which the impact was exaggerated was the fact the consultant tended to conflate to bring together the WHS itself and the buffer zone around the WHS, in fact, most of Peels' proposal is not in the WHS but in the buffer zone, however, this report mixed up these two entities of WHS and the buffer zone in a way that I think it is a little bit unprofessional".

In responding to a question that English Heritage are more open minded now and they accepting the change in the historical landscape and they are supporting the principles of development in the north dockland of Liverpool, anonymous (2013) answered "I see a little evidence of that, I see a great evidence of English Heritage sticking to their guns and even though the economic position is very difficult and the government clearly want to do everything

they can to encourage development, it is an interesting question why English Heritage want to stick to their guns. I suspect they got very influential people in their board, they see themselves as the custodians of the national heritage especially in the National Trust which is a very powerful charity and probably also members of the traditional ruling class in England, the aristocracy and the Lords of the House of Lords who probably place a great value on heritage and less quite concern about the normal working class people". Moreover, Trevor Skempton (Interview, 2013) argued that "English Heritage has not performed well in Liverpool in recent years – and is often seen as a meddling outsider, without a good understanding of the City. English Heritage played a frustrating and uncertain role in the delivery of Liverpool ONE. For example, it insisted on reducing the height of tall buildings such as One Park West, but produced no argument that the resulting building would be better proportioned as a result. It was probably responsible for killing off tall buildings proposed for Lime Street and Brunswick Dock. My perception is that it is woefully under-resourced, with officers making judgements way beyond their competence or qualification".

Rob Burns (Interview, 2013) has partially rejected the previous view about English Heritage arguing that it is absolutely right that English Heritage in some areas has been criticised as been anti-development but this was not the case in Liverpool, in fact, English Heritage was very supportive of Mann Island, Liverpool One, Echo Arena and the New Museum of Liverpool and it was criticised as been giving away the heritage. English Heritage did not object to anything major in the past but now they have objected to Liverpool Waters and the city is looking now how to resolve that at the moment. Rob Burns (Interview, 2013) stressed that it is a prejudices to say that English Heritage do not accept the change, the facts are the English Heritage are fully supportive. Moreover, Graeme Ives (Interview, 2013) elucidated that "in English Heritage North West we do have a very good working relationship with a large number of consultants and authorities, we got consulted between 12 to 15 hundreds a year, in general we support the vast majorities of these consultations but in a very rare cases we find a resist from developers obviously because they spent time and money in their proposals and they are not happy about changes", thence, he affirmed "*we are not here to stop things from happening, we are here to make sure a sensitive, appropriate and sufficient quality demanded by the location exists*".

With respect to the perception that English Heritage only concerns about heritage and has no concern about the working class people. Graeme Ives (Interview, 2013) disagree arguing that "English Heritage absolutely do care, but we are not here to make balance between heritage and growth, it is for other people to do that, we are here experts in heritage". However, he explains, the national planning system now accepts in principles the potential to cause harm to heritage assists if it could be justified in principles. In general, despite there are some concerns about the

role played by English Heritage in the regeneration of the city, it can be argued they are key in challenging and slowing down the process of change and ensuring the quality of the new developments.

UNESCO was also considerably involved in the conflict of the developments in the city and it has been criticised severely for its rigid views. The conflict between UNESCO and Liverpool was described by Rob Burns (Interview, 2013) as a serious threat to the city because UNESCO already included Liverpool WHS on the danger list. The UNESCO objection and advice for the city was considered as ill-advised by Trevor Skempton (Interview, 2013). Rob Burns (Interview, 2013) indicated that UNESCO has instructed the city not to include any tall buildings in the buffer zone and they ask the city to introduce a very strict design guidance with regards to the buildings heights, which is as Burns argue is completely nonsense and not the way cities evolve. Rob Burns (Interview, 2013) argued that how can one organisation's vision determine how the city works? There is a great danger of having a too strict planning guideline and we already regulated too much, cities usually do not evolve using a set of guidelines which can stop creativity.

Rob Burns (Interview, 2013) further argued that while English Heritage accepts the principles of development in the northern docklands, yet, I am not sure if UNESCO even accepts the principles. He also stated "UNESCO does not understand that cities are about people, they do not understand what makes the OUV of the city, and their interpretation of heritage is quite limited. Moreover, they are not sophisticated enough, they come with very fixed ideas and they are 20 years behind the time". Jenny Douglas (2013, Interview) clarified that "the elements of the proposals that UNESCO objecting to is phase 3 and 4 which they are a long way of being delivered may 20 or 30 years, therefore, I do not see how Liverpool can lose its WHS title if there is nothing happened". She said, "UNESCO gave us the yellow card but I do not think they will give us a red card if we done anything yet and we have around 20 years of negotiation with UNESCO until the development reaches to that phase but we have to watch out". However, Graeme Ives (Interview, 2013) disagree with Douglas interpretation of that saying if we assumed that we assumed something that the UNESCO did not say, the world heritage committee decision in 2012 when Liverpool was put on the WHS endanger list does not actually give a timeframe for that, so assuming the UNESCO will be content until the 2nd cluster of tall building will be built is not necessarily the case, UNESCO has not definitely said so. Therefore, Ives continues, we have to wait over the next years to see what will happen and how the developer and the City Council will respond.

The previous discussion demonstrates that WHS presents a particular challenge for the city. In this section it is argued that the core of the challenge revolves around the divergent perspectives for the concept of authenticity and its subsequent management in urban areas. UNESCO as an international conservation body holds a very closed and strict understanding of WHS in which the OUV of places are objectified. On the other hand, local governments are involved in much more complex interaction between often different local interests. This often leads to conflict in the process of management of WHS. The discussion shows the complexity of articulating what the authenticity of Liverpool's WHS is and how it should be sustained particularly with the absence of a clear, internationally agreed set of conservation principles of how such heritage sites within urban context can be managed.

In general, although the seriousness of the tension between the heritage agencies and Liverpool City Council over Liverpool Waters, yet, international and national heritage bodies had have a significant role in challenging the process of the transformation of Liverpool waterfront. They were a key in maintaining pressure over the city to assure the quality of the city's heritage landscape will be maintained and preserved. The example of Liverpool's WHS shows that the level of complexity and difficulty in interpreting the authenticity of place and making meaningful decisions about conservation, management and development will continue to result in frictions between the national and international bodies and local government.

7.3.2.3 The Impact of WHS on Liverpool

The contestation over the different interpretation of the concept of authenticity of urban places and its subsequent management promotes questions over the role of WHS on Liverpool. This area of discussion was very controversial as there are no quantifiable answers for the impact of WHS on Liverpool. There are two sides of analysing the impact of WHS title on Liverpool, first; as a devise for additional conservation control, and second; as tool for changing the image of the city (Interview with a former senior NWDA official, 2013). It is also important to note that the area inscribed as a WHS is already a designated conservation area and a lot of buildings there are listed, WHS does not bring any extra planning control, yet, UNESCO has influenced the local authorities of Liverpool to produce Liverpool WHS Supplementary Planning Document as a specific development guidance to guide the new development within both WHS and its buffer zone.

After almost a decade since WHS title was awarded to the city in 2004, the responses about its impact were very contentious. Sue Grindrod (Interview, 2013) regarded the WHS as obstacle for the future development of the city, she argued that "the restriction imposed by the WHS is blighting Liverpool opportunities and potential to develop, Liverpool has an incredible heritage

but does we need WHS to maintain that?" Alike to this is Trevor Skempton (Interview, 2013), he believes that WHS made a little difference to Liverpool, apart from publicity, which has been mainly positive, and may brought in more visitors, however, he indicated the city has been well-aware of its conservation duties for the last twenty years and it has taken the issue of conservation seriously.

These somewhat negative views about the WHS impact brought a question that was the WHS title a blessing or an obstacle for the development of Liverpool? A former senior official in NWDA (Interview, 2013) responded "it is more complicated than that, it is not a blessing yet because the city did not take advantage of the designation and it is not an obstacle yet because there are vast amount of new developments and in and around the WHS and the WHS has not got in the way of those developments. With regards to Peel's development, WHS has not also got in the way of that proposal because the Secretary of the State has effectively said he does not want to intervene and this development should go, therefore, WHS could be a blessing and it has not been an obstacle yet, but at the end of the day there probably is a case to say that Liverpool's architectural heritage is incredibly important and it does deserve to be a WHS and to be protected from the worst excesses of development". He further indicated whether Liverpool Waters is an example of worst excess, it is debatable.

The argument that the WHS is blighting Liverpool opportunities to develop was rejected by Guy Butler (Interview, 2013) 'Liverpool One project director in Grosvenor'. He said that "I do not think that WHS would make a difference, as a developer it would not stop me, I will go and have a discussion with anyone who stop me to see how far we get, so it would not stop me just because it is a WHS, in fact, I will use the WHS as a promotion for the development". Similarly, Dominic Wilkinson (Interview, 2013) believes that WHS will not stop developers, because he argues as a profit could be made developers will come and they will fight for it, he stated "I think it might push unnecessary development in some places and may hinder some particular sites from being developed but on the large scale it will not stop development". Wilkinson also said "the battle between Peel and UNESCO over the WHS is good for the city, and I think the WHS is significant for the city to force Peel to be more careful with what they do because I do not think Peel are particularly careful the way Grosvenor is, thus, I think it will force them to be more careful, and to improve the quality and the masterplan. Certainly the masterplan improved significantly from the previous manifestation and I am sure there is improvement, would it happened without the WHS stick to beat them with? I am not sure, but that said if they go ahead the UNESCO said we will remove the WHS I would say so take it away it does not really matter. So, ultimately it is a useful devise to improve the developers and what they want to put in, but the development is more important than the title".

The significance of authenticity of place and changed was critical for Parkinson (Interview, 2013). He argued that the crucial aspect about Liverpool built heritage is the authenticity of the place but that does not mean the place to be like a museum, thus, it can be authentic and changed and cities are trying to balance lots of things all at the time and they are certainly trying to balance economic growth and authenticity against cultural value and heritage landscape and whole sets of things. He further pointed out that “all the stuff about the WHS is nonsense, I do not think that anybody come to Liverpool because of it, no developers invest here because of it, the people do not live here because of it, it is something nice to have and I am glad to have, it is for the newspapers to speak about it but it is pretty irrelevant”. Parkinson (Interview, 2013) stressed the question is about how to get the best of both, heritage and developments.

Although WHS title is an external validation for the city, Richard Meegan (Interview, 2012) ‘Planning Expert and Professor of Urban Economics in EIU’ believes that it was significant for the city’s residents more than as a tourist site, he stated “I am not convince that the tourists do come to Liverpool because of that, tourists come to Liverpool because of its cultural offer rather than as a city with WHS, nonetheless, WHS is kind of external validation for the city and the city made a great effort to get it, it is now on the marketing materials of the city”. However, Meegan argued, “today the situation is different, it has become more complicated, how to measure the significance of that? I do not know, today the city has the sense there are things to market but before it was very difficult”. Dominic Wilkinson (Interview, 2013) shares Meegan’s view, he said that “it is nice to have such a label, it is a kind of international recognition for the city but I think economically it is questionable whether it has much impact at all”.

The consequence of losing the WHS title was highlighted by Chris Couch (Interview, 2012) ‘Professor of Urban Planning in University of Liverpool’. He said that losing the WHS title will send a very bad negative message about the city that we are not interested in our heritage, we are not interested in sustainable development and we are only interested in money, he stated “the city might argue it will create jobs, help people and so forth, but I do not buy that argument and I do not accept that logic”. Parallel to this, Graeme Ives (Interview, 2013) indicated that if Liverpool lost the WHS title, the city will face the embarrassment of being the first UK city to be removed from the list and the second city in the whole of Europe after Dresden in Germany.

The previous discussion shows, in the one hand, that the economic benefits of the WHS title has been doubted despite there are some prominent academics such as Pendlebury et al. (2009) argued that the key motivation of the national and local governments from achieving such status is linked to economic benefits. In the other hand, WHS was praised in terms of image creation and changing the perception of the place particularly for locals.

The contestation over the management of Liverpool's WHS developed to the point that many stakeholders started to question its value for the city. For the majority the benefits of economic development outweigh the marketing and place image of WHS status. This, in fact, might also expose a larger question about the viability of inscribing urban WHS as the two concepts of dynamic urban (local government) and fixed heritage (UNESCO), for many, might be incompatible. In Liverpool case, the perceived economic opportunities of WHS have quickly changed to be perceived as a threat as WHS status threatens to interrupt regeneration ambition. In general, the nature of urban WHS, the issues that determining its authenticity and the discussion over how much a site's OUV has been compromised can be contentious and problematic. This section argues that the perspective of UNESCO for urban WHS is inherently problematic and might be detrimental for the quality of dynamic urban areas.

7.4 Conclusion

This chapter aimed to speculate on the future transformation of the city. It shows that Liverpool is continuing its transformation through focussing on major waterfront projects. Parallel to the SRF (2002) which aimed to set the vision for the previous period, the SIF (2012) is a central to the future regeneration of the city.

On a wider scale, it can be noticeable that there is a major shift in the way transformation is taking place in Liverpool. Unlike the previous period, less emphasis is retained on the importance of design excellence, heritage and urban design, while a major focus is placed on increasing the city's market share and economic growth. This can be attributed to the significant intensification of the intercity competition due to the current global recession, which has forced cities in general to be more flexible in accepting market conditions. Consequently, this was manifested in accentuating the role of place marketing and branding.

The development of the north docks of Liverpool through Liverpool Waters scheme manifests this latest regeneration approach, which is chiefly led by private sector. The scheme epitomises the tensions between different factors that are involved in the transformation process. It also showed the change in priorities from heritage leading the regeneration as in the Albert Dock to the heritage being considered as a hindrance for the regeneration. WHS proved to be problematic in urban areas, in the sense that stakeholders involved in the process of managing the development are of different interests and priorities. Also there is a significant room for manoeuvre when it comes to interpret what actually the authenticity of a particular urban place means which leaves the door open for completely divergent interpretations. This is evident from the on-going debate and discussion between pro-development and local authority in

Liverpool and UNESCO and ICOMOS as international conservation heritage bodies over the questions of the most appropriate way for development. However, this debate might reach to a point where the whole WHS value is questioned; particularly with the current global economic situation and the extreme inter-urban competition.

Although heritage and culture are still an important part of the mix in the transformation of the city, however, the evolution of Liverpool Waters indicates that the future of regeneration in Liverpool will be largely driven by the interests of private sector. Trevor Skempton (Interview, 2013) indicates that whilst the private sector is the engine of development, and will remain for the foreseeable future, however, only the public sector which is democratically accountable, can ensure a strong public realm and an appropriate and effective urban design and transport planning.

The tension in Liverpool Waters between heritage conservation and development is a healthy tension. This tension is representing the complexity of transformation of the waterfront. It can be argued that this tension is necessary to acquire genuine and imaginative outcomes that can represent the different elements involved and result in what can be called 'a creative transformation'. However, this not always the case, sometimes some ideas will win and some will lose and this is something inherent in the nature of cities' transformation (Interview with Rob Burns, 2013). What is important that cities are in need to evolve and transform over the time, they need to balance between understanding their past and adapting to the terms and the conditions of the present. This conclusion did not aim to judge what is right or what is wrong for the city, rather giving a better appreciation to the complexity of the issues the transformation of the waterfront and how the different stakeholders involved in the process of urban regeneration interact.

Chapter 8\ Conclusions; Urban Regeneration and the Transformation of Liverpool Waterfront

8.1 Introduction

Liverpool waterfront has transformed significantly over the past three decades from a derelict eyesore that lost its economic fortune to a great cultural and business destination with significant heritage value. The research was interested in understanding the process by which this transformation has taken place. Hence, the research question was aiming to explore *how did urban regeneration transform Liverpool's Waterfront?* The analysis of Liverpool revealed three major eras of waterfront regeneration. The first is the era of physical and environmental improvement (1980-1997), the second is the era of image creation and place making (1997-2012), and the third is the era of global competition and investment attraction (post-2012). Figure 8.1 shows the key regeneration areas that have been studied within their eras of transformation. The research also identified a number of objectives that were associated with the research question which were implicitly explored and addressed throughout the preceding three chapters. However, this chapter aims to summarise and extract key lessons and conclusions and discuss them in the light of the research theoretical framework. The chapter concludes by re-emphasising the research key arguments, stating its limitations and recommending areas for future research.

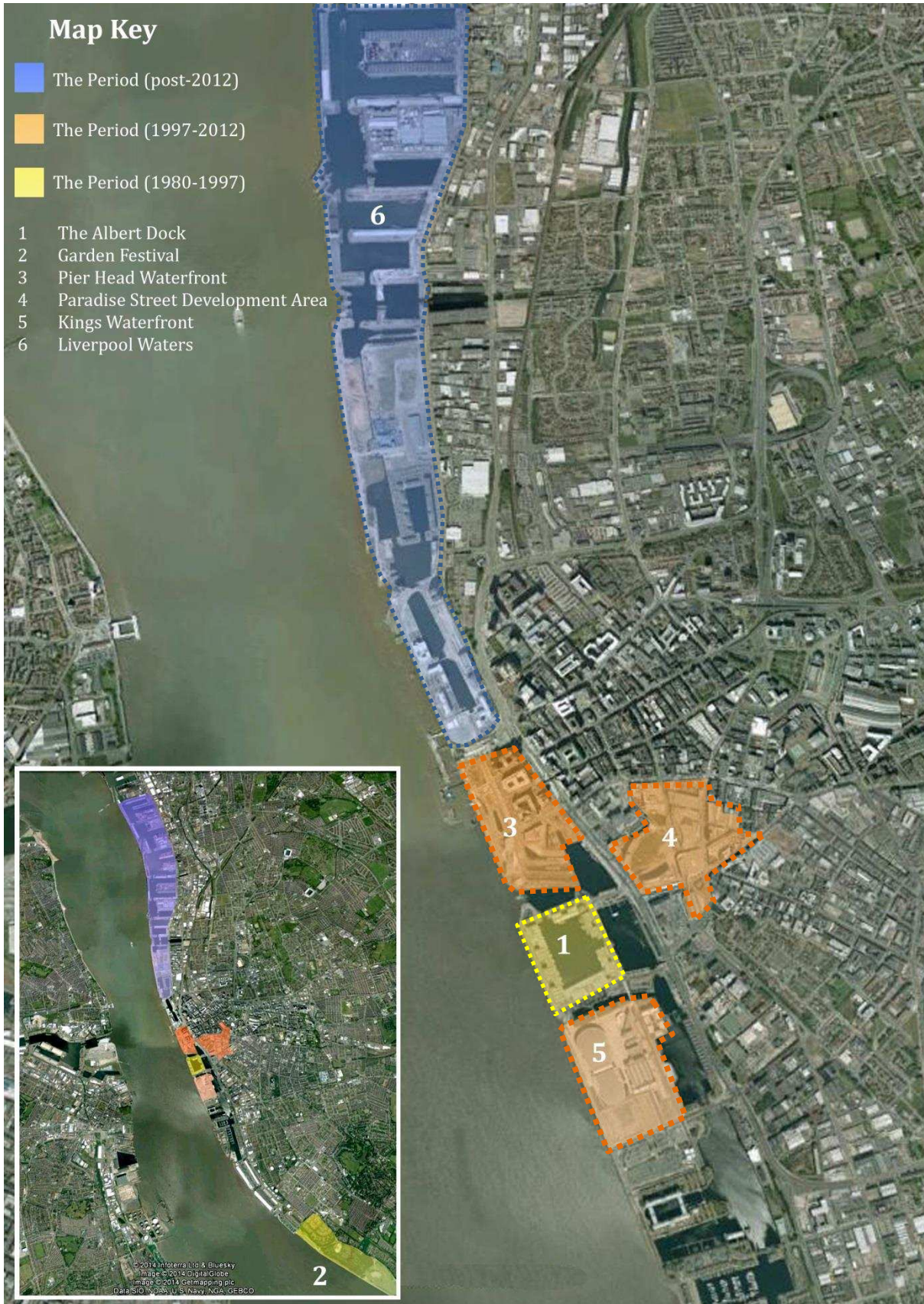


Figure 8. 1\summary of the key regeneration areas in Liverpool waterfront and the eras of transformation **Source**\ Google Earth images modified by the author (2014)

8.2 The Eras of Liverpool Waterfront Regeneration: A Chronological Perspective

8.2.1 The Era of Physical and Environmental improvement (1980-1997)

The first era of Liverpool waterfront regeneration 'the MDC period' was characterised by the massive investment in improving the physical and the environmental qualities of the waterfront. The regeneration was carried out by the MDC; a single powerful organisation that is directly funded by the central government. The central government held the belief that the amount of the dereliction in the waterfront was beyond the city council's ability to handle. The justification was that Liverpool Docklands required an agency with limited objectives operating in a closely defined area which would regenerate the area in more efficient and effective way rather than local authorities if they were given the necessary powers and resources (Parkinson, 1988). There were many critiques levelled towards this type of organisation as it is single-minded and working with full power within very well defined areas which will not have a wider benefit for the whole of the city, however, the central government argued that such organisation with limited objectives would create greater political stability and more promising environment to encourage private sector investment. Thus, a key reason for adopting such tactic was a national response to address the issues of urban competitiveness in a form of top-down mechanism. However, the role of the MDC was praised by the research interviewees. The Participants argued that it was crucial at that time to have such a powerful tool to repair the waterfront infrastructure, and restore private sector confidence in a quick and an efficient way.

This era of regeneration showed that Liverpool has realised that it would not succeed if the physical and environmental realm of the city was ignored. This shows that a key to the success of modern cities will be the quality of their urban spaces where waterfronts play a critical role for two reasons. The first is that waterfronts are the most degraded places in the cities, being the sites of earlier industrial use or port activities. The second is the central location of waterfronts for the majority of cities. However, besides the physical and environmental improvement of the waterfront regeneration during this period, the two flagship projects of the MDC were of considerable importance for the subsequent regeneration of the waterfront (see section 5.3.2 and 5.3.3). The International Garden Festival was significant in demonstrating the potential tourists advantages of the docklands. It was also crucial in changing the perception of the area from contaminated industrial land to an international cultural destination. The second MDC flagship project was the restoration of the Albert Dock. This project had signified the role of heritage in urban regeneration. The Albert Dock, in fact, was envisioned to be demolished in

the 1970s, yet, luckily this did not materialise. Now the building is the largest listed building Grade I in the UK and one of the most visited attractions in the North West (LCC, 2005).

This era of Liverpool waterfront regeneration reflects an interesting transformation with regards to the issue of built heritage. The regeneration of this period has generally followed a strict preservationist approach. The restoration of the Albert Dock and the docks landscape show that Liverpool has recognised its built heritage as a catalyst rather than a hindrance for urban regeneration. Liverpool, at that time, was aiming to preserve its heritage buildings and historic fabric with minimal change. The built heritage of the city was considered as a key to bring investment and tourism. This, however, was considered by a number of critics as a part of a global phenomenon towards the regeneration of cultural built heritage of the post-industrial cities (Marshall, 2001, Shaw, 2001, Clark et al., 2002). This research agrees with Hall (2000) that with the shift from manufacturing economy to informational economy, cultural heritage has played a vital role in regenerating derelict docks and warehouses and also a vital tool to revive urban image and making cities more competitive in attracting investment and people.

As this period of regeneration was primarily concerned about physical and environmental improvement and restoration of key historic buildings, the transformation process had faced little challenges and the outcomes were by large straightforward and less controversial. However, despite the regeneration was focussing in creating better places for people besides trying to bring those places into a viable economic use, the issue of urban design was not in the interest of the national government nor the local authority. As such, the waterfront was noticeably lacking the whole vision and even though the two regeneration schemes have succeeded considerably in their own right, these schemes were isolated and the waterfront as a whole was by large inaccessible from the rest of the city. However, this research argues although the failure to integrate these flagship waterfront developments with the existing city, the significant physical and environmental improvement made during this era outweighed its shortcomings. Additionally and more importantly, this era attracted the attention to the potential of culture and built heritage in the process of regeneration which was reflected in the successive periods of regeneration that followed.

8.2.2 The Era of Image Creation and Place Making (1997-2012)

This era of regeneration was largely driven by socio-political factors on a national level with the election of a new Labour government. The central government was inclined towards reinforcing the role of cities and adjusting people's perception of urban life which led to embracing the urban renaissance agenda (UTF, 1999). The urban renaissance agenda was primarily about

urban design and modernisation and it has established a vision for urban regeneration based on the principles of design excellence, social well-being, and environmental responsibility, through a viable economic and legislative framework. Liverpool captured the national mood very quickly and quite effectively through establishing Liverpool Vision as one of the first URCs in the UK. Liverpool Vision was a key in guiding the regeneration and bringing key public and private sector agencies to strengthen the city economy and enable it to compete more effectively in global markets than ever before. This research asserts that a number of key projects during this period would have not have materialised if Liverpool Vision did not exist. This is due to the nature of Liverpool Vision as it combines public and private sectors and, hence, mixing both the political capability with the entrepreneurial approach. Interestingly, during this period the relationship between urban growth and economic development was absolutely reversed (Cox, 1993, Gospodini, 2002) (see section 3.2.1). Liverpool realised that its economic development is very much reliant on the qualities of its urban spaces and their ability to attract wealth not the opposite. Hence, Liverpool has followed the two key strategies to secure its economic growth: (1) refashioning of the city's economic attractiveness and (2) reimaging the city through manipulation of its physical and soft infrastructure. The first strategy was clearly exemplified in the establishment of Liverpool Vision while the latter was where urban design has taken an increasing role as a tool for generating urban growth economically and physically.

The adoption of the Strategic Regeneration Framework SRF (2002) by Liverpool Vision was a key moment in the history of Liverpool waterfront regeneration. The essence of this document was about creating better places and improving the image of the city. The SRF also stressed on need of building on the success of the previous era through further enhancing the role of cultural built heritage. Cultural built heritage was considered as a mean of improving the city identity in a homogenised world. During this era, two elements have significantly shaped the regeneration of the waterfront. On the one hand, the inscription of the city to the UNESCO World Heritage Site which was a great success in achieving a global recognition. Although the city did not use the title quite effectively to reimage itself, the title, however, proved to be effective in challenging the quality of waterfront developments and orienting the public and the media attention towards unique heritage of the city. On the other hand, the winning of the European Capital of Culture 'ECoC' 2008 was also noteworthy. The ECoC 2008 was undeniably fundamental in accelerating the regeneration process and making the city as a place where people think about it in a positive way. In general, both WHS and ECoC 2008 were useful tools in facilitating the process of transforming the waterfront.

During the second period of regeneration, urban design has played a critical role at all levels. Urban governance has embodied the principles of urban design through strategies and guidance. Special agencies such as CABE and LATD were also established locally and nationally to assure the quality of the emerging landscape and to affirm that the regeneration will result in a coherent landscape and better places for people. Urban design was also embraced by all partners throughout the regeneration process. The results were extraordinary and the key three regeneration schemes of this era were of exceptional quality.

The Pier Head waterfront development is now recognized for its unique mixture of contemporary and historic architecture. Urban design has facilitated and provided the tools of how to insert those uncompromisingly pieces of contemporary architecture of today values into a historic world heritage site. The practice of urban design has also resulted in adding extra open spaces and enriching the old ones. This area of regeneration also demonstrated the importance of contextualisation of new developments into the existing urban fabric. Nowadays, the images of the Pier Head waterfront is been used extensively in the process of marketing and branding the city to enhance its urban competitiveness. To the south of the Pier Head, Kings Waterfront has been developed into a major hub for conferences and cultural events. The city is now constructing a large exhibition to further attract businesses and industry. The functionality of those buildings was very important to enliven large part of the waterfront and add extra exceptional qualities and competitive advantages. In fact, it can be argued that without the existence of a clear urban design strategy 'the SRF 2000', those projects might not be present.

The PSDA 'Liverpool One' was also quite exceptional for a number of reasons. This project revealed how urban design thinking shifted the way in which mall style developments being imported into the traditional streets of the UK's city centres. The process in which this project was completed is also very interesting. It shows the importance of having strong vision that is embraced by all parties and the significance of adhering to urban design principles.

The issue of management of change was quite important with regards to the PSDA due to its scale and pace of construction. According to Carmona et al. (2011), they emphasised that people are very much associated with their own environment which they value and draw comfort with its stability, thus, the loss of familiar surroundings can be very disturbing, particularly when it comes in a short time and on a huge scale. However, despite the large size and the short time scale of the PSDA project, the PSDA was very successful in combining the advantages of incremental small-scale growth and large-scale growth. This success was primarily due to the quality of the 'masterplan' and the urban design framework which has broken down the landownership and allowed some kind of incremental development to take place. The PSDA has

worked extremely well in connecting all the fragmented parts of the city while adding further places of remarkable quality. In general, the common feature between all these regeneration schemes is that urban design was a fundamental aspect from the wider vision of the project to the specific design details.

However, developing on Liverpool waterfront was not an easy process. The developments throughout this era were scrutinised by heritage and design agencies. This era also witnessed the shift of Liverpool waterfront regeneration from strict preservationist to more conservationist approach that accepts the change as a part of the transformation process. Although the impact of new developments on the historic areas was very difficult and hard to be measured, however, the experience of Liverpool waterfront indicates that urban design has the capacity to work as a medium to assure the significant qualities of the built heritage will not be compromised and the insertion of the new developments will result in a coherent whole. The involvement of large number of agencies and organisations shows also the complexity of waterfront regeneration of this era. The emergent landscape is not a one organisation vision, but rather a result of multiple agencies with different interests who intermingle together in the process of generation of the urban landscape.

The transformation of place identity in Liverpool is worthy of note. The regeneration during the second era is generally fuelled by the quest of the city for better economic competitiveness. Although several critics argued that such a quest leads to homogenisation of places and monotony of cities (Dovey, 2009, Carmona et al., 2011, Madanipour, 2006), however, it can be argued that the outcome of these regeneration schemes has rather further strengthen the identity of the place and led to more interesting results. This research stresses that the key factor is embracing the agenda of urban design as indicated earlier. It also argues that the negative consequences of economic globalisation can be eliminated or even turned into opportunities if the right urban design measures were in place.

8.2.3 The Era of Global Competition and Investment Attraction (post-2012)

Although the previous eras were predominantly aiming to physically build on the unique characteristics of Liverpool waterfront as the way to economic flourishing, this era by comparison seems to shift focus by prioritising economic growth at the top of the agenda. This was clearly reflected in the new Strategic Investment Framework (SIF) adopted by the city in 2012. The document argued that the fundamental foundation of the city's future growth will require considerable investment in the built environment and the city's physical infrastructure, yet the document stressed that the future transformation of Liverpool will be mostly reliant on

non-physical investments through supporting business, culture, creative and visitor economy. This slight shift from physical to non-physical illustrates what Grasland and Jensen-Butler (1997) have described earlier as the cities today in the global urban system are not positioned in strict hierarchy but, somehow, in a form of interwoven and overlapping structure according to their particular participation in certain sectors or activities along with the diameter of their influence (regional, national or global). This era, however, demonstrates that Liverpool has become more determined than ever before to compete globally for further transnational investment with the aim of increasing the city status in the hierarchy of the national and global urban system.

This determination, nevertheless, was not without its negative implications. The issues of design quality, urban design and place making have become less important nationally as well as locally in comparison with the issues of investment attraction and job creation. This was exacerbated by the dismissal of a number of design quality institutions such as CABA and LADT. Moreover, the unavailability of governmental and European public fund for cities has aggravated the situation. Intercity competition has become very extreme which led to the rise of the role of place marketing and branding. Although there were many critics who recognised the positive advantages of place marketing and branding for enhancing the distinctive qualities of the city (Kavaratzis and Ashworth, 2005, Worthington, 2011, Skinner, 2008), however, the danger lies in that the marketing and branding efforts can abuse the use of the city's qualities with the purpose of achieving economic merits through the process of 'commodification'. Another danger pointed out by Ashworth (2002) that with excessive marketing, cities might end up with 'sameness' or 'monotony' which can be detrimental for city's identity.

The transformation of this era will be principally driven by private investment. This means that the form of the future urban landscape would be predominantly determined by private sector and it will become less of a public matter. This was shown clearly in the findings of 'the process of development of Liverpool Waters' (section 7.3). In spite of this is not an ideal situation from critics' point of view, yet, Liverpool can do little to orchestrate that. Dovey (1990) explains that as urban economics now prefers large-scale development projects that result in massive one-off investments, jobs and political glory. Harvey (1989bp. 287) also indicated that the city governance needs to respond to market conditions where the volatility makes the long-term planning extremely difficult for cities to engage with, rather only designing can fit in such environment which means that *"the city either has to be highly adaptable and fast moving in response to market shifts"*. Henceforth, this research agrees with Boyle and Rogerson (2001) argument that trajectory of such approach for a city like Liverpool is that the future of the waterfront urban landscape can be formed more by the imprint of each opportunity rather than

coherent scheme. This, however, was seen by several of the research interviewees as a sign of the low commitment to the agenda of urban design and design excellence.

However, Liverpool Waters scheme is recognised as a great challenge and opportunity for the future transformation of the city. The size and timeline of the project is significant. Liverpool Waters is one scheme that consolidated in a single ownership 'Peel Holding'. Although, such approach was condemned by Carmona et al. (2011) as it can be risky and mistakes are more challenging to rectify, however, the reality of such approach is inescapable. The economic globalisation and the volatility of capital investment by transnational corporations enable them to play cities off against each other. Thus, local governments are forced into intercity competition to compete for projects on an 'all-or-nothing' basis, often overruling and undermining regulatory and design processes in order to attract the capital investment (Dovey, 1990). This was clearly apparent throughout the evolution of Liverpool Waters scheme (see 7.3.1).

The main issue that Liverpool Waters scheme has raised is the issue of heritage conservation. The scheme holds a serious threat for the city's built heritage and WHS status according to UNESCO and English Heritage. The city now is struggling to balance between development and heritage conservation. However, combining the benefits of globalisation with those aspects of local culture, identity and townscape that make the city distinctive is essential. This can be done through sticking to urban design principles and assuring the role of heritage and design agencies will not be relegated.

However, the majority of the research interviewees agreed on the need for such large-scale development on the Northern waterfront to fundamentally change the nature and the economy of the place in a way that cannot be done incrementally. Yet, they have stressed that the city needs to work harder on stressing the quality of the development and addressing the issues of place making in coherent manner through an agreed upon masterplan or urban design framework. Similar to the previous regeneration projects, Liverpool needs to be more active in assuring the project will result in enhancing the quality of the city's places and assuring that the development will not result in an isolated development by the edge of the water. However, from Liverpool experience in the previous eras of transformation, two aspects can be suggested (1) urban design has to take more central role in strategically facilitating the transformation of the waterfront and (2) the role of public sector needs to be strengthened to ensure that the regeneration will benefit wider sectors of the local community. Figure 8.2 summarises the significance of the instruments of urban regeneration throughout the eras of Liverpool waterfront regeneration.

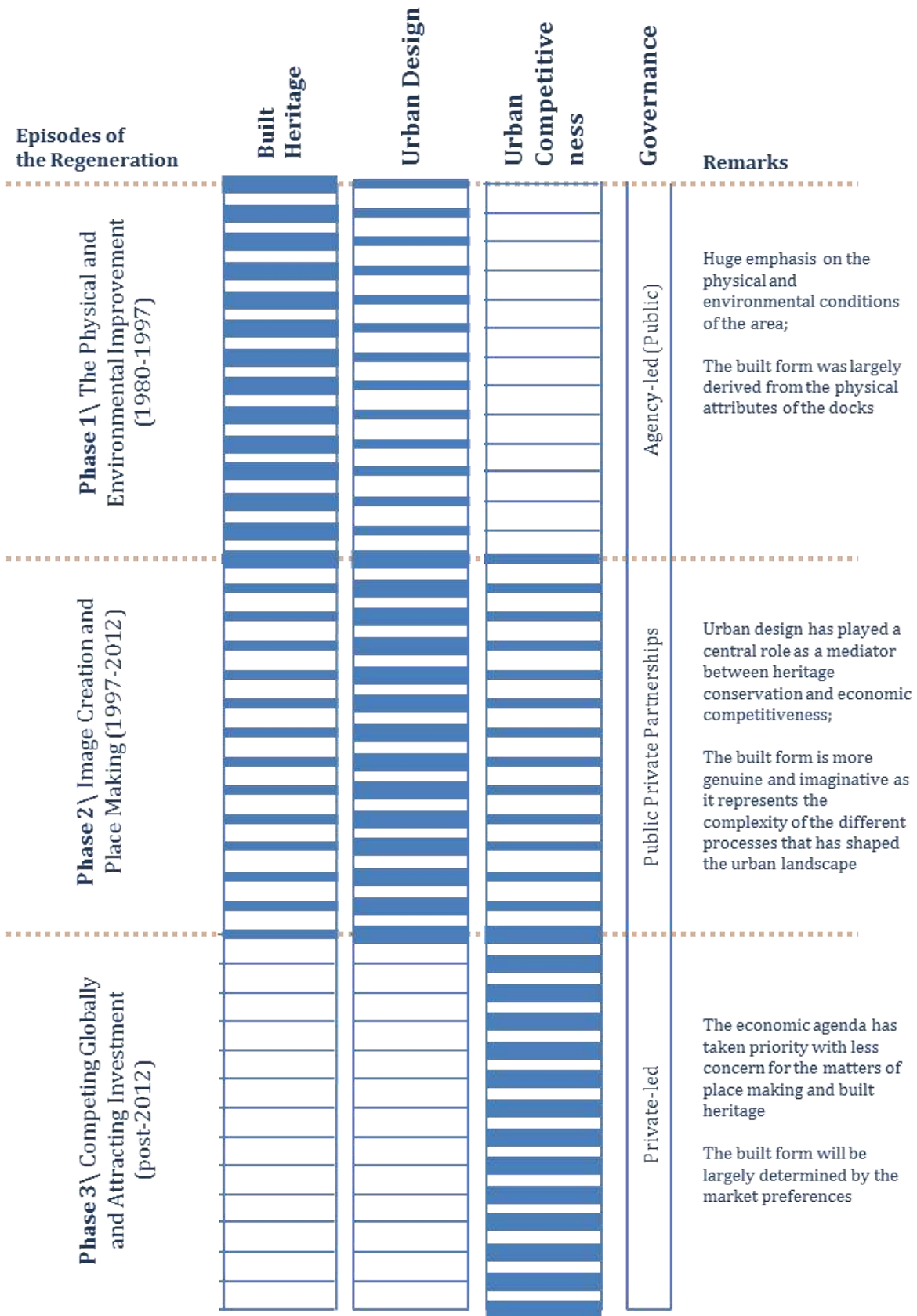


Figure 8. 2 this graph summarises the eras of transformation and the significance of the instruments of urban regeneration (note: the thickness of the lines indicates the significance) **Source** the author

8.3 Learning from Liverpool Waterfront Regeneration Experience

The previous section summarised the eras of Liverpool waterfront regeneration and stated the key features of each era besides showing the complexity of the process of waterfront regeneration. This research touched upon different urban issues that were raised throughout the regeneration process and it has studied them within their wider and local context. This section, however, aims to refocus on those key issues and states the research key arguments and contributions in the following sub-headings.

Place Identity and Globalisation

The issue of place identity has gained a significant importance in the past few decades as a resistance to the rising status of economic globalisation. As indicated in sections 3.2.1 and 3.3.2, many prominent academics believe place identity and economic globalisation are two deadly enemies. A substantial literature focuses on explaining how globalisation increases the monotony of urban landscape and dislodges the individuality of cities. Economic globalisation is also been portrayed as the key threat for uniqueness of places. However, this research found that the issue of place identity is elusive and problematic in its own right for two reasons. First, what defines the identity of a place for a certain group might be completely different to other group; second, the identity of place is not a static rather it is moving and changeable. Therefore, this research argues that there is a need to recalibrate our understanding of place identity to the current circumstances of our time. Nowadays, cities are connected, diverse and no longer positioned in a hierarchal level as in the past and so the identity of our cities needs to be. This research strongly maintains that economic globalisation is not a rival for urban identity, but, a static interpretation for place identity, indeed, is. The research also calls for better understanding of globalisation and its impact on the urban landscape. With more comprehensive and better understanding what is been regarded as a threat can be rather turned into opportunity. Hence, globalisation is a tool that can stimulate new identities which reflect our society, our culture and our time.

Contemporary and Iconic Architecture in Historic Environment

Contemporary and to less degree iconic architecture is an integral part of any regeneration effort. However, the role of contemporary and iconic architecture might be divisive particularly in historic context. With regards to contemporary architecture, the regeneration of the historic Pier Head Waterfront shows the controversy and the heritage concerns about insertion of the New Museum of Liverpool and Mann Island Development. This research maintains that those buildings were not controversial because of their designs rather than because of the historic context where they have been located. However, with that in mind, this research argues in order

to assure that the new pieces of architecture will add to the context and result in coherent whole, contemporary architecture needs to be contextualised within its ambience. Contemporary architecture needs to respond to the past, reflect our time and aspire for better future. The discussion about the contextualisation of the new Museum of Liverpool and Mann Island Development and the justification for their designs in sections 6.3.1.2 and 6.3.1.3 might provide a good example for how to tackle issues of contextual integration. Furthermore, this research highlights the role of urban design in that process. The research demonstrated that urban design proved to have the capacity to assess the qualities of the urban environment, assist the integration of new buildings, and look for ways in which those new additions contribute to the quality of place.

The case with iconic architecture on the other hand is by far more complex. Several academics believe that iconic buildings and urban design is paradoxical (see section 3.3.3). Iconic buildings generally aim to reproduce the image of the city for the purpose of enhancing cities' competitiveness and satisfying the agenda of the transnational capitalist class while urban design purposes to produce better places and improve of quality of urban environment for people. However, the example of the Fourth Grace project in Liverpool shows that iconic architecture is more complex than merely black or white. This research does not condemn or praise iconic architecture rather it argues that iconic architecture is an issue that by large is context related. As for Liverpool, the research maintains that the city should firstly try to rebuild its fractured urban fabric before engaging in costly and risky iconic projects. The research also argues that iconic architecture can be tricky and, therefore, cities should considered their urban fabric and the quality of their urban environment through urban design framework more than engaging in building their global images through iconic buildings.

Heritage Conservation, WHS and Urban Regeneration

The issue of heritage conservation was evident throughout the eras of Liverpool waterfront regeneration. As in Figure 8.2 heritage conservation in Liverpool has moved from strict preservationist approach where heritage was conceived as a driver for the regeneration to an approach that considered heritage as part of the regeneration process and to certain extent as an obstacle for regeneration. However, the role of heritage changed overtime according to the local and global context and the key stakeholders involved in the process of the regeneration. Throughout the regeneration of Liverpool waterfront, the role played by local, national and international heritage bodies cannot be underestimated. Heritage bodies, in particular, English Heritage, were essential to challenge the quality of the new developments and assure that the new developments will not detract but add to the quality of the historic environment.

However, the involvement of international heritage bodies, UNESCO and ICOMOS, through WHS status despite its many benefits for the city proved to be problematic. The elusiveness of the definition of the authenticity of place opened the door for divergent interpretation for how to manage the OUV of the WHS. The city with its strong tendency for development and regeneration inclines to understand urban heritage as a part of a dynamic and evolving system. Where, on the other hand, UNESCO and ICOMOS tend to interpret heritage as an asset that should not be compromised. With such a strong held beliefs from each side, it is unlikely that WHS status will stand against the development of the city, yet, that is also does not mean that heritage conservation will lose its place in the future regeneration of the city. In general, the key question is, does Liverpool really need the WHS status to conserve its heritage in the future? This is questionable.

Place Marketing and Branding and the Image of the City

Place marketing and branding has taken an increasing role particularly during the third era of Liverpool waterfront regeneration. The reasons are, first, the increasing pressure of globalisation and interurban competition on cities and, second, the low commitment of national government to fund regeneration projects. As such, place marketing and branding has become an integral part of the urban policy of Liverpool. Section 3.2.3 discussed the concept of place marketing and branding from a theoretical stand. Many academics claim that place marketing and branding is the way that places should be run in the future. They also argued that place branding is powerful instrument in creating and shaping place image and identity. However, this research disagrees with those claims. Place branding is not genuinely a tool for improving the image and strengthening the identity of place, rather it is primarily a tool for turning more or less public places into consumption spaces. Thus, it can be argued that excessive place branding and marketing can rather be detrimental for the qualities of those places. The research also maintains that the claims about the role of place branding in the future management of cities are fairly exaggerated. Place branding might be able to provide tools for better understanding of the qualities and characteristics of places for more effective promotion, yet, there is no evidence that place branding can shape or have a real impact on the identity of place.

Urban Design and Urban Governance

Urban design is the key feature that signifies the regeneration of Liverpool waterfront. Urban design has played a critical role, in particular, during the second era of regeneration at different levels (Figure 8.2). The agenda of Urban Renaissance was also embraced by all stakeholders. The changing form of urban governance from managerial to entrepreneurial and from public-led to public private partnership was also a key step to strengthen the role of urban design in

shaping the city's places and spaces. The best example where the role of urban design was clearly evident was the regeneration of the PSDA. The project was exceptional (Section 6.3.2). This research argues that the outstanding success of this project is attributed to the extreme commitment to the agenda of the urban design by the city as well as the developer. The clear vision of the city for the area was also an important factor besides the strong interrelationship and partnership approach. Liverpool knew that in order to repair the fractured nature and restore its competitiveness, urban design has to take the leading role. This research key argument is that the key to the success of urban waterfront regeneration is that the regeneration process has to be as complex and as inclusive as possible and urban design should be the central focus of that process.

8.4 Concluding Remarks

This study sought to understand the process by which Liverpool urban waterfront has been transformed. The research adopted a chronological perspective that traces different eras of regeneration over time. It was useful to think in terms of sequences of regeneration stages and examine their context and the major developments that took place over that period of time.

The research of Liverpool waterfront urban regeneration has identified three major distinctive eras of transformation as discussed earlier. As Sykes and Roberts (2000) indicated, these eras of regeneration reflect the complexity of the numerous processes that drive the physical, social and economic change of the waterfront. Although the city was able to certain degree to control the process of urban regeneration through urban governance and the adoption of a number of key strategies and policies such as the SRF and SIF, these eras of waterfront regeneration, however, were driven largely by global and national economic trends and policies that were often beyond the city's ability to control.

This study also reveals the impact of urban governance on the form of the emergent urban landscape throughout the eras of Liverpool waterfront transformation. The first era which was led by public agency 'the MDC' echoed the need to repair the area's infrastructure, conserve its built heritage and prepare it for private investment. However, in response to the conditions of economic globalisation, urban governance has changed in Liverpool during the second era of waterfront regeneration from traditional managerial form of providing collect services, to more entrepreneurial approach. This has exemplified in the establishment of Liverpool Vision. In this environment, Beriatos and Gospodini (2004) said that the main task of urban regulators is to create urban conditions that are adequately attractive to lure potential corporations, to attract investment and to improve and safeguard the city's economic prospects. In spite of this

approach was criticised by Madanipour (2006) as it results in fragmentation of authority, whereby many more actors are involved in shaping the political economy of urban region. However, this process has proven to be very effective in Liverpool in gaining private sector confidence and coping with the volatility of the market. This approach also has resulted in more adventurous urban regeneration schemes which were discussed previously in the transformation of the Pier Head Waterfront, Kings Waterfront and the PSDA.

The model of Liverpool Vision has also continued to characterise the third era of waterfront regeneration in Liverpool. Nevertheless, the impact of the extreme intercity competition and the lack of public funds on Liverpool cannot be underestimated. Liverpool has realised that it cannot sustain its future urban growth without offering more inducement for private investment. Therefore, the form of the emerging landscape in Liverpool has become more a matter of private sector than public sector. The discussion about Liverpool Waters in Section 7.3 is clearly shown that. Gospodini (2002) argued that, in the era of economic globalisation the ability of an individual city 'such as Liverpool' to control the form of its urban landscape has weakened dramatically in comparison with the past. Moreover, Marshall (2001) pointed out that that the city has become less the result of design and more expression of economic and social trends. In general, the complexity of urban regeneration issues throughout the transformation of Liverpool waterfront demonstrated that no single authority can control the form of the emergent urban landscape whereas what defines it is a mixture of bureaucracy and market forces.

Throughout these eras of transformation, Liverpool waterfront has been a platform for experimentation in urban governance, place making and architecture. It can be noticed that Liverpool was always aiming to achieve a distinctive urban identity, sometimes through drawing on *heritage* (the first era), other times through *innovation and contemporary architecture* (the second era) and both of these approaches were vital to establish the city *brand* which has taken a central role nowadays to sustain the city's future growth. A key element in achieving a distinctive identity in Liverpool, as well as other desirable qualities was the role played by urban design. Urban design as a management tool was a valuable device in mediating and facilitating the process of transformation particularly during the second era (see figure 8.2). Urban design in Liverpool also gained a large popularity as instrument of enhancing the city competitiveness and branding its urban unique qualities. Liverpool showed that the negative connotations of globalisation in dislodging local identity and homogenising places can be challenged if all stakeholders embraced the agenda of urban design.

The investigation of Liverpool waterfront regeneration reveals that the waterfront now exhibits numerous urban qualities. The eras of Liverpool waterfront transformation tells a remarkable story of how the waterfront acted as an outstanding laboratory for intervention in existing areas, presenting projects that covers a wide range of possibilities, moving from strict preservation for buildings to more radical and uncompromising pieces of contemporary architecture. The waterfront in Liverpool now, despite the controversy associated with Liverpool Waters, is indeed the leading force for the future growth of the city. The regeneration process of the waterfront landscape is in general very successful and convincing. The qualities of Liverpool waterfront are, and by large, results of the complexity of the process of the waterfront transformation. Bruttomesso (2001) specified that complexity is a quality that distinguishes the more complete, articulated urban organisms. He argued that complexity is often a product of long processes involving successive historic phases and projects implemented in these phases, thus, the complexity of a city is a result of intelligent and continuous work of construction, often over many years. Yet, complexity can also be a result of a single project, with different aspects of significance, over span of a matter of years (Bruttomesso, 2001). The process of Liverpool waterfront regeneration has ensured the involvement of a number of factors that interrelate and intermingle with each other. This research does not call for certain models of urban waterfront regeneration to be followed, rather, it strongly argues to ensure an inclusive and a complex process of urban transformation based on urban design agenda and public-private partnerships. The complexity and the inclusiveness of the process of regeneration is a key in gaining positive outcomes and securing distinctive, genuine and imaginative urban identity.

However, relating this back to Section (2.4.3) with regards to the global waves of waterfront regeneration identified by Shaw (2001), do we see a new emerging global wave? In fact, the case of Liverpool does not necessarily constitute a new generation of ideas that substantially break from the past, but rather continue an evolution that already begun in the previous generations with significant focus on the issues of globalisation and urban competitiveness. Furthermore, it would be inappropriate to generalise from a single case study to suggest a new global waterfront regeneration trend. This requires a multiple case study approach that investigates a wide range of cases worldwide. However, this research agrees with Shaw (2001, p. 171) that “the balance between cultural opportunity and quality of life will play a dominant part in shaping the successful waterfront regeneration”.

In general, Liverpool waterfront regeneration experience might be very beneficial for other cities worldwide from a wider perspective, including my hometown Khartoum. However, on a

smaller scale, it is known that places are distinctive and, thus, they face different issues and opportunities and it is expected that the regeneration processes can vary quite significantly.

Finally, the process of urban transformation is everlasting; cities are dynamic and they need to evolve and change through the time in order to secure their urban growth. According to Roberts (2000, p. 26) “nothing is immune from either the external forces that dictate the need to adapt or internal pressures that are present within urban areas and which can precipitate growth or decline”. The transformation of the urban waterfront is only one part of the story of Liverpool’s transformation. Yet, waterfront transformation represents and echoes the complexity of the numerous processes that drive physical, social, environmental and economic change. It is also important to understand that urban regeneration is not an end in itself but rather a tool for better management of urban transformation.

8.4.1 The Limitations of the Study

Any research has its limitations which need to be taken into account. This research has adopted a qualitative case study approach that allows the researcher to retain the holistic and the meaningful characteristics of the case. However, the limitations of the study are very much linked to the limitations of the methodology employed. As this research followed a single case study approach, the issue of the generalisation of the findings appears larger here than other types of research methods. The issues of Liverpool waterfront regeneration are to a large extent unique to their context and, therefore, the approaches implemented cannot be easily implemented elsewhere without taken into account the regeneration context. Nonetheless, as shown in the research much can be learnt from a particular case. Stake (2010) pointed out that readers can learn vicariously from an encounter with the case through the researcher’s narrative account. In fact, the very detailed account of the experience of Liverpool waterfront regeneration enabled a good understanding of the complexity and interrelations between the different aspects involved in the process. Such a comprehensive study would not be viable if the number of cases had increased.

This type of research is also limited by the sensitivity of the researcher as the principal instrument of data collection and analysis. This has its advantages as well as its drawbacks. The professional background of the researcher as an architect and urban designer may have some influences on the way the data has been collected and interpreted. To redress this, a huge effort was made by the researcher to remain neutral through attaining a sufficient training for how to collect and analyse qualitative data. Also a regular meeting with supervisors and indeed research interviewees helped considering different points of view. Additionally, the

methodology chapter provided a detailed description of the process of data collection and analysis for external validation.

There were also some limitations in the procedures of data collection and analysis. The process of collecting news articles was challenging in terms of the aim to collect the largest possible amount available of news articles while at the same time being consistent in the search process. Moreover, the online availability of news articles was dependant on the archival policy of the news providers. For example, the two local newspapers in Liverpool, Liverpool Echo and Liverpool Daily Post, keep their online archive record only for the last three years. This, however, limited the research in terms of the availability of news data from local sources for any project that took place before that. Another issue was that, despite there were some projects that were extremely important for the city physical and economic aspect such as the PSDA, unfortunately, they did not attract equal attention in the news articles. In interview with Parkinson (2013), he said that the media does not talk about the real matters of the city, they look for something catchy such as culture or controversial like heritage. This issue was taken into account in the analysis process and attempts were made to fill the gaps in the some areas by other data sources. Lastly, news articles are not scientifically written and, therefore, they are subjective and reliant on the writer's integrity. To address that, the researcher tried to collect for the same topic all the available news articles from different sources in order to be impartial as possible.

Undertaking interviews also have some methodological issues. Academics are generally concerned with how to eliminate, or more reasonably, to reduce human bias. An example, Parkinson (Interview, 2013) pointed to the difficulty for him to be entirely objective about Liverpool. He said *'I love this city and you cannot get objective answers from me'*. However, the bias of different interviewees was expected as an integral part of this kind of data which yields different information and insights as opposed to a quantitative measurement of data. Moreover, extra tactics were used to ensure the maximum objectivity of the interviews. For instance, the wording of the questions has to be in a neutral order, not to give an indication or hints for what the researcher is anticipating the interviewee to say, nor to make him so defensive for issues concerning his background or organisation.

8.4.2 Areas for Future Research

The regeneration of the urban waterfront is an area that is expanding rapidly whilst the complexity of the emerging issues is also deepening. Undeniably, the research that has been carried out in this area is far from being comprehensive. There are two areas where future work can be suggested; the first relates to the research methodology while the second concerns with

the issues and the questions that this research has raised. With regards to the research methodology, there are also two key approaches. The first relates to applying similar research methodology to other cities that undergone waterfront regeneration. There are many cities around the world in the process of regenerating their waterfronts. As the issues and urban regeneration are context related, hence, applying similar methodology to other cities might bring forward completely different conclusions. In doing so, the complexity of waterfront regeneration will be further explored which can help informing and refining the regeneration practice.

The second approach is by adopting other research methods, particularly, multiple case study approach with the aim of comparing between different waterfront regeneration approaches in different cities. Despite this approach can be less comprehensive or holistic, however, its analytical conclusions are often more powerful than those coming from single-case study. Therefore, by adopting such approach, global waterfront regeneration trends can be identified or speculated and, consequently, early strategies and approaches can be employed.

This research also raises some important questions and issues that are worthy of future investigation. Examples of these questions are what is the role of built heritage in shaping the future urban regeneration? How to maintain the significance of urban design as a tool of managing the future transformation of cities? How to manage the impact of economy-led regeneration or private-led regeneration on the form of future cities? All these questions and others might be the core for further investigations in the future.

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Appendices

Appendix 1 \ Ethical Approval

Ethics Committee Reviewer Decision

This form must be completed by each reviewer. Each application will be reviewed by two members of the ethics committee. Reviews may be completed electronically and sent to the Faculty ethics administrator (Dina Martin) from a University of Nottingham email address, or may be completed in paper form and delivered to the Faculty of Engineering Research Office.

Applicant full nameMohamed Hussein.....

Reviewed by:

Name Sarah Atkinson.....

Signature (paper based only)

Date

- Approval awarded - no changes required
- Approval awarded - subject to required changes (see comments below)
- Approval pending - further information & resubmission required (see comments)
- Approval declined – reasons given below

Comments:

1. On the consent form there should be a statement stating that the participant is free to withdraw at any time.....
2. The information sheet has a lot of typos which do not read well, I've marked these on the sheet.
3. The information states that the person's identity will be published, this doesn't seem appropriate, they should only be mentioned by job role/title. No names should be used.
4. Please see university data storage policy and update sheets as required.

Please note:

1. The approval only covers the participants and trials specified on the form and further approval must be requested for any repetition or extension to the investigation.
2. The approval covers the ethical requirements for the techniques and procedures described in the protocol but does not replace a safety or risk assessment.

3. Approval is not intended to convey any judgement on the quality of the research, experimental design or techniques.
4. Normally, all queries raised by reviewers should be addressed. In the case of conflicting or incomplete views, the ethics committee chair will review the comments and relay these to the applicant via email. All email correspondence related to the application must be copied to the Faculty research ethics administrator.

Any problems which arise during the course of the investigation must be reported to the Faculty Research Ethics Committee

Appendix2\ Participant Consent Form

Research Participant Consent



Title of the Study: **Waterfront Regeneration and the Transformation of the Urban Waterfront; A Case Study of Liverpool Waterfront Regeneration**

Name of the Researcher: Mohamed Hussein

Please tick the boxes as appropriate

1. I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.
2. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving any reason.
3. I could take a break at any time during the interview.
4. I understand that I have the right not to answer particular questions if I consider them to be sensitive or commercial proprietary.
5. I give my consent for the interview to be audio-recorded as described in the information sheet.
6. I give my consent for my data to be used as it has been explained in the information sheet.
7. I agree to allow my interview statements to be published and to be attributed to my organization. I also agree to being identified by name (please choose): Yes No
8. I understand that the research findings, including the comments / data I provide in the interview, may be published as a PhD thesis, academic conference papers, journal articles and other academic publication / dissemination channels.
9. I understand if the academic findings are to be published in other places, for example media articles, no specific references to individual interviewees will be made.
10. I agree to take part in the above study.

Name of the Participant

Date

Signature

Researcher

Date

Signature

- Copy for participant
- Copy for Researcher

Appendix 3\ Research Information Sheet



Research Information Sheet

Title of the Study: **Waterfront Regeneration and the Transformation of the Urban Waterfront; A Case Study of Liverpool Waterfront Regeneration**

Name of the Researcher: Mohamed Hussein

What is the purpose of the study?

The study attempts to explore the impact of waterfront transformation on the city of Liverpool besides identifying the factors that shape its present and future urban identity, the aim is to understand and suggest the best ways to achieve economic flourishing while maintaining and enhancing the distinctiveness of the urban environment.

Who will be conducting the research?

The research is going to be conducted by Mohamed Hussein, a PhD researcher at the Department of Architecture and Built Environment, University of Nottingham.

Who is sponsoring the study and what are the terms of the sponsor?

The Study is a PhD research conducted by the researcher; the sponsor of the researcher has no terms or conditions in regards to the research data. The data will be kept and protected by the researcher during the study time and will be destroyed after that.

What is the nature, purpose and duration of the study?

The participant will be asked to respond to a number of questions and issues in the form of a recorded interview, the purpose of the research is highlighted in the attached brief background about the study, and the duration of the interview will be around 1 hour.

Why have I been asked to participate in the study?

The research aims to collect data from participants who have been involved in the process of decision making that impacted directly or indirectly on shaping the urban landscape of Liverpool, the selection of the participants will try to cover all the stakeholders such as developers, planners, directors of different agencies, local community representatives, development agencies ...etc.

Do I have to take part? And what benefits (payments, expenses etc) are attached to the study?

Taking part in this study is entirely voluntary; it is up to you to decide, there is no payment or expenses associated with taking part in the research. The study is going to be described in this information sheet, and you will be asked to sign on a consent form to show you have agreed to take part; a copy of the consent form will be given to you. Also you have the freedom to withdraw from the study at any time without giving a reason.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

The information we collect may help to raise the awareness of the stakeholders in certain issues and probably shaping the future developments of the city.

What procedures will be employed to maintain confidentiality and anonymity?

The study data from the participant will be confidential and secured; the data will be stored in the researcher PC and protected by password. In regards to anonymity, in the PhD theses the participants will be informed that their name and position will be recognizable while in any other publications they have the options to be anonymous or not “their names and positions will be identifiable”.

In terms of data handling, the study data from participants (audio records and transcripts) will be stored in the researchers PCs and protected by password and that is in accordance to the “STORAGE AND ARCHIVING RESEARCH DATA” University of Nottingham, March 2010.

Contact

Mohamed Hussein, PhD Researcher

Architecture and Urbanism Research Division, Faculty of Engineering

University of Nottingham, Email: laxmh@nottingham.ac.uk

Supervisors

Dr. Katharina Borsi email lazkb@exmail.nottingham.ac.uk

Dr. Nicole Porter email ezznp@exmail.nottingham.ac.uk

Appendix 4\ Research Questions and Themes

Waterfront Regeneration and the Transformation of the Urban Waterfront; A Case Study of Liverpool Waterfront Regeneration

The research aims to understand: **How did the transformation of Liverpool urban waterfront take place?**

Background

Since the decline of waterfront in post-industrial cities the concept of Waterfront regeneration has become a widespread. The increasing pressures on land use in urban areas in the recent years led many cities to rediscover the potentials of their waterfronts, earmarking them for redevelopment. Many cities are inspired by the idea of bringing the city back to the water and creating high quality development featured with a vibrant mix of buildings and activities. The success of the first waterfront regeneration project in Baltimore Inner Harbour in the US in 1960s has become a model standard for all cities that are trying to reconnect their waterfronts with the city. Recently, waterfront regeneration has become not exclusive for just large metropolitan cities; indeed, it also has become a common interest between smaller cities and towns in their way to enrich their economy and improve their international image.

Along with the decline of waterfront in post-industrial cities, the liberation of international economy has increased the intercity competition significantly, cities are competing with one another to upgrade their international status, they are marketing themselves to identify and reinforce their assets. In general, while improving competitiveness of cities is the way to economic flourishing, it has resulted in homogenised places and dislodging local identities and the blurring individuality of place.

The waterfront regeneration has a great opportunity and challenge at the same time, it has the potential to restore the identity of the cities, reinforce the sense of place and satisfy the conditions of post modernity, while in the same time it may results in alien developments, isolated by the edge of water. Based on that, this research is trying to study the waterfront regeneration in Liverpool, a city that had passed through a major economic restructuring and urban change 'due to the decline of waterfront' and also exploring the factors that are shaping its future urban identity.

The Research Analysis Themes\

The factors that are shaping the identity of Liverpool can be categorized into the following themes (see figure 1);

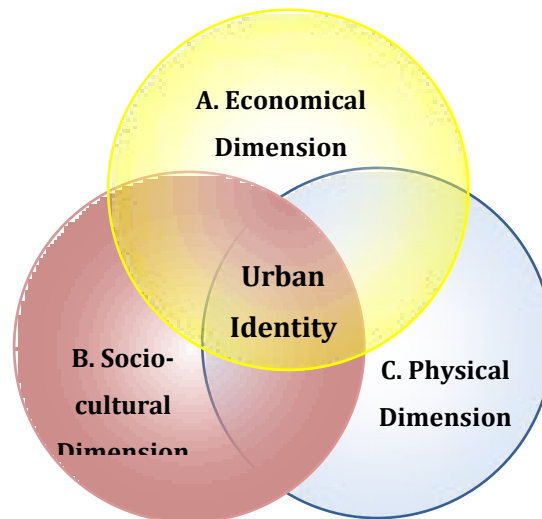


Figure 1

A. The Economical and The Managerial Dimension

1. The globalization and the restructuring of global economy have increased the **competition** between cities which has a significant impact on urban economics. How do you see the impact of **intercity competition** on Liverpool?
2. How do you see the impact of **changing role of urban governance** from traditional managerial role (MDC and LCC) to more entrepreneurial approach (Liverpool Vision) on the city of Liverpool?
3. **Liverpool Vision**: Marketing and branding the city as different zones (i.e. knowledge quarter, the Waterfront, the commercial quarter... etc.) to what degree do you see this strategy has success in enhancing the identities of those quarters?
4. What is the role played by marketing and branding in the process of the regeneration of the city and the waterfront?
5. City **Marketing** and City **Branding** (City Branding\ focusing on the unique characteristics of a city in order to achieve distinctive image and competitive advantage) are very close concept but each one has tremendous impact on urban identity and local character in different way, according to Ashworth (2002), cities that focus on marketing strategies usually ends up with sameness and monotony, while branding is a tool that could be used to reverse this tendency through focusing

on the distinctive attributes of the city. Where do you see Liverpool in respect to these two concepts marketing and branding of urban spaces?

6. How do you see the relationship between the city and the city region, is it collaborative or competitive?
7. Choosing the right developer is very essential to achieve a quality urban environment:
 - a. How and why did Liverpool Vision attract Grosvenor? Have they success? What are the reasons behind that?
 - b. What do think about Peel Holdings? How do you evaluate their vision for Liverpool? Do you think they are going to achieve in Liverpool Waters the same quality of urban design and architecture of Liverpool One?
8. What does the waterfront offers and will offer in the future to the city economy?

Planning and Management

9. The planning policies in the UK aim to achieve economic benefits and in the same time enhancing the local identity through **conservation planning** where the possibility of conflict between investors' interest and locals' desire is high. How do you evaluate the conservation planning system in Liverpool? And to what degree you think the city has succeeded in balancing between two different interests?
10. What do you think about the role played by English Heritage and CABE in protecting the built heritage and the historic environment in the regeneration of Liverpool Waterfront and city centre?
11. How do you evaluate the relationship between the public and private sectors in Liverpool? And how does that relationship impact the regeneration?
12. What do you think of the **design guidance** 'such as, the Design Guidance for Tall Buildings in Historic Landscape published jointly by CABE and English Heritage' and the design review for new proposals by CABE, are they effective tools to promote the quality of design and achieve distinctiveness? Why?
13. How do you evaluate the impact of WHS 'World Heritage Site' title on Liverpool? and what is the main differences between the regeneration before the WHS title and after?
14. Does WHS obstruct the private sector from investing in the city by placing more restrictions on the developments, or is it going to attract more international investors as it is a city with global heritage significance?
15. The conservation planning has shifted in the past decade from very strict preservationist approach to approach that accept the change as part of the natural transformation of urban landscape, the dispute usually on how much change is accepted. To what degree this is the case in Liverpool?
16. The actors which are involved in the management WHS are of different priorities and viewpoints 'LCC has the priority of economic improvements while WH Committee and English Heritage focusing on preserving the authenticity of urban character' how does

that impact the way the waterfront and WHS is been developed and managed? How is it going to impact the future of the city as a whole?

B. The Socio-cultural Dimension

1. “Liverpool has enormous advantages which could be which could be still capitalise upon. Indeed, in the view of the decline of many traditional sectors of its economy, arts and cultural industries offer one of the greatest opportunities to achieve economic success, despite some potential risks”. In this regards, how do you assess the role played by cultural heritage and cultural policy in the regeneration of Liverpool waterfront and city centre? And if something could be done better, what is it?
2. To what degree do you think that the regeneration of the waterfront and city centre has benefited from cultural events such as Liverpool European Capital of Culture in terms of physical regeneration, image and perception, cultural identity and social inclusion?
3. “culture today has played a vital role in regenerating derelict factories and warehouses, and as a tool to revive the urban image and making cities more competitive” to what degree this the case in Liverpool, and how do you evaluate the strategy of culture-led regeneration in terms of its pros and cons?
4. What is the future role of culture?

C. The Physical Dimension

1. How do you see the existing urban identity of Liverpool? Is it a city with a distinctive character and image or a city with unclear identity?
2. How do you see the contribution of the new waterfront architecture such as Echo Area, Mann Island, and Liverpool Museum to the character and the identity of urban spaces of the waterfront?
3. What is the impact of Liverpool 1 on the city centre and waterfront?
4. Do you think the new waterfront developments are on the way to transform the city identity and give it more international character? In your opinion what are the pros and cons from acquiring international character for Liverpool?
5. The failure of the Fourth Grace project, what do you think the reasons are? And does the waterfront needs iconic building like the Fourth Grace in order to enhance its distinctiveness?
6. What do you think of Liverpool Waters project?
7. How do you see the impact Liverpool Waters on the City and the urban identity of the city?
8. Besides the economic benefits that this project might achieve, many argue that this project will might also result on losing the WHS title, and create social exclusion. What do think about that?
9. Is Liverpool Waters worth risking the Outstanding Universal Value of the waterfront? Why? And what is the impact of losing the title of WHS?

10. How do you see the contradictions within the city strategies, it has three of the ten most deprived areas in the UK and in same time it tries to build 5.5 billion luxurious waterfront development. How do you see this?
 11. Liverpool Waters Stated that “Liverpool Waters will draw on the unique identity of the site and the city to define character areas, delivering a high density and accessible quarter, which is both economically and environmentally sustainable, and which will significantly *reinforce Liverpool’s strong identity*”. To what degree you agree with this statement?
 12. The future of the city and the waterfront is facing big challenges regarding its identity and landscape transformation? How do you see that future? In your opinion what is the best way to balance between the contradicting desires of the private and the public sectors and achieving a flourishing economy while maintaining strong identity?
- Any further points you want to add.

Appendix 5\ Sample E-mail for Requesting a Research Interview

Dear ,

My name is Mohamed Hussein, I am a PhD researcher in Urban Design Research Group at University of Nottingham, Department of Architecture and Built Environment. I am conducting a research about the regeneration of Liverpool waterfront and its impact on urban identity. I have looked at your extensive contribution to the theory of urban planning practice in the UK and your long professional experience in the field of urban regeneration, and I believe a contribution from you will be very significant for this research. [Note where participant has been identified through recommendation, and with consent, this will be stated, eg *'The Project Manager of xx recommended that I approach you given your involvement in / understanding of matters relating to the transformation of the Liverpool waterfront in recent decades.'*]

I would be very grateful if you could give me the opportunity to interview you for the purpose of this research; your contribution will be really appreciated. The interview would focus on exploring the different factors that have been involved in shaping the urban identity of the city of Liverpool waterfront. I am particularly interested in your opinions and evaluation of Liverpool waterfront regeneration in terms of its urban identity and built heritage, as well as any experience or views you have about how development and marketing decisions have been made in this area.

If you are interested in participating in such an interview I would be pleased to provide sample interview questions, and a more detailed synopsis of the research project for your reference. Following this, I will be in Liverpool on , and I will be very grateful if I can meet with you during these days. If these days do not suit you, can you please let me know about a suitable date and I will be willing to come from Nottingham to meet with you.

Thank you for your consideration, and I am looking forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,

Mohamed Hussein

PhD Researcher, Urban Design Research Group

Architecture and Urbanism Research Division

University of Nottingham

Appendix 6\ Sample Interview Transcript

Interview Transcript 11

Interview with\ **Rob Burns**

Head of Urban Design and Heritage, Liverpool City Council

2nd April 2013

Intercity competition

There two things nationally or international, nationally you very aware of the importance of the city competition so for example one of the reasons why we did Liverpool 1 in the retail sector the city has always be in the top 5 destination in the UK then in the 90s we realise that the city was dropped to 17 and it was still falling and this is give us a kick so we stopped and said woo we have a problem what we should do? And from that we did a feasibility study that identity the need for over 100 thousand m2 requirement for new retail space for the city and from that we did a brief and went out and that is what happen we Liverpool one.

Also we understand competition in different sectors Knowledge and education economies I think that a big issue for Liverpool and you move that for other economics issues like port and service industries, finance industries and all that sort of things and we always comparing ourselves with direct financial matters in terms of competition. There is also a second part of this Liverpool's Role this is more kind of branding and marketing Liverpool identity as international city and certainly as one of the reasons capital of Culture in 2008 and we always seen Liverpool as a diverse cosmopolitan kind of city in UK as a place where the competitor Manchester, Leeds or Nottingham and not the other core cities, but the global cities like Marseille, Barcelona these kind of cities that Liverpool thought hy we used to be in that league we used to be in that international league when Liverpool was in its heyday as a maritime city and we used to have that global status and that global status is not GPA or turnover but also that cultural distinctiveness that make Liverpool i go away and say i from Liverpool the people will say oh the Beatles or Liverpool Football club but it is not that i think there is specific culture of Liverpool that takes Liverpool stage beyond Nottingham or Manchester and puts us on that level and I think how we can recapture that distinctiveness so I think competition and perception of competition at governance level has been at the forefront for the success and the changes for the city in the last 10 years or so and it is really key issue for us.

Changes in urban governance

Again there are two things here; There is regularity role and every city has to do where are legal finance where has to be completely legal and the second thing is making sure that you attract investment and making sure that the economic benefits come from so I think it is a dual role you have spoken to Parkinson and he will tell that Liverpool vision has done a fantastic job over the last 15 years if you look at the development of the city and actually that outline of the jointention that we have since the 2000 and its impact on the city centre and these projects they wouldn't be delivered if it is just been LCC or they wouldn't be delivered if is just been Liverpool Vision I think the two working together is absolutely fundamental for the success of the city I wish that the level of investment publicly national or internationally still available but they not the city didn't stopped but it is slow because the recession of economy since 2008 and 2009 it is been a real problem for the city we still going on and we just launch a new city centre investment Framework so I think the two working together is the secret it is the regeneration company in the country and I think it moves very quickly and that is crucial combined approach because it needs political mind as well so vision can't deliver that but the city council can so I think the two working that is crucial.

Marketing and branding the city as different zones

I think the branding still needed differentiation between different cities still needed if you look to different cities, cities divided into different quarters and different views areas even without formal zoning and I think Liverpool has that different distinct characteristics for example you know Rope Walk is different to the Down town is different to the waterfront is different to Baltic triangle and so on I think we have a number of different distinct areas and I think that has been recognised in both the WHS supplementary planning document and the city centre new investment framework as distinctive character areas I don't think we make enough of it yet we are very limited in marketing Liverpool we market it as a Baltic city, we market it as cultural city we market it as sport city, and we market it as all kinds of things but we don't we sell as a concept but we don't really sub divide that concept to series of cities because it like several different cities in one place and the different character areas are very different we tend to stick to the very safe thing and we need to be more innovative in the way we market and brand the city and that is on-going and that is what will happen it is been quite slow and still more room to go for that.

Marketing and Branding and danger of losing the distinctive character of the place

I think we recognise that and I think the latest city investment framework pick up on that and it is divide the city for different distinctive areas whether this has been done for marketing and branding the city I am not sure but it certainly about the morphology of the city how the physical different pieces of mazzaque all put together it is really significant point and again it comes back to competition so I think we need to market and brand Liverpool as Liverpool not as different part of the city and not as football city and I think we need to do as an entity and I think this comes back to be more innovative and much more clever what is the essence of this place what is makes it Liverpool as oppose to what makes Manchester or Barcelona I don't think we are quite there yet we need to think more about the place and place making so well what is the unique characteristics of the city and all we think we know what they are but we not I am not entirely sure we sell them well enough and I think there is more that we can do to sell them if you looked at you didn't mention image here, images real important if you go to London or Bristol or any other city and ask them what do you think of Liverpool they will come to their mind it is a place which is poor, run down, full of criminality they don't see it a place they see as a bad concept a bad aesthetic and when people take travel to come they see very differently they see it as a place but we need to convince them to come here at the first place and the only way to do that to look at branding and marketing and make it exciting you know we have things like the biennial which comes every two years you know people do come from London because it is really good biennial which is very good, we have a major international events in the city there are not just sporting events we have Grand National and that is only local but last year we have the Giant walking down in the streets, fantastic events people needs to understand the culture of the city because we are very cultural city very exciting and dynamic city and it is not just about criminality and unemployment so image is very important.

City and City Region

We are not very good in this regional and sub-regional relation we don't have a city region authority we tried but the other authorities such as Wirral refuse why should we bothered about Liverpool we have our own identity we have our own place what is so special about Liverpool. in Manchester they do it very well they do it for a long time, they are very good at it and they can bring for image and branding the whole of Manchester we don't have a county council for the Merseyside until now we desperate areas that share a regional geography this is not the same as a regional purpose and sub-regional purpose and I think if we did everything enough excitement dynamism uniqueness about Liverpool city region out there to be able to

work them people very suspicious about the city council they think that is a bit kind of take over why should we work with Liverpool council we will lose our independence and that is a real problem for us and I think we have to be more smarter it does not help in the government saying that there is no sub region anymore there is no any region it is all about localism but I do think there much we can do I mean we share with Wirral the river why we not why the boundary is down there at the centre of the river we should be the same this is a major resource how can we make most of it and we rely very much on private sector such as peel to say you know hy guys you should be talking together we should be in that position there should be a recognition of the natural and built resource we have as a sub region for all of us not just for Liverpool not just for the Wirral but for all of us.

The developers

Grosvenor

Comes back on recognition we were fallen way behind in terms of retail for the city so we commission study and that was completed and we wrote a brief and the brief attract a number of the government partner were interested in that and interview lees than half of dozens of people what was struck the city that Grosvenor how much they share from our vision what we wanted a scheme which was not a shopping mall it is a regeneration scheme which also has crucial urban design elements right in its heart and that was about re-sticking the city together the heart of the city so that the connection with the water and the city centre work absolutely connection between the city centre and Ropewalk the city centre, the commercial quarter and the city centre so it was all about connecting and re-sticking the city the together because it has been fractured so much and Grosvenor share that vision saying that is really interesting way of looking to things and the other developers were saying you don't really want open streets what you really want is a shopping mall that what we can deliver for you we can deliver comfortable climately comfort environment for shopper, Grosvenor was saying no you don't really want that you want real streets and that what we ask for real streets and they share that vision, you know there is also kind of personal thing the Duke lives just down the way in Chester you know new Liverpool and that is was interesting for him to see new Liverpool and he brought that almost local firms some of the others were big developers work globally or internationally Grosvenor work globally but seem to be more local seems to be committed and seems to be sharing our visions and the politics behind it and that is why we decided to go with Grosvenor it is a great relationship and the whole process was absolutely wonderful process we involved in it is fantastic and would never get that chance again, it is just a wonderful process and Grosvenor

showed commitment innovation inventiveness they was just wonderful and they were really good at that stage the guy the head the project is the most professional one that I had ever met and he was so committed so at the end he stayed here, and he managed it not like a developer but like a local someone who care it is not about bottom line investment can I get away with cheapness and I want to get away with more, he was fantastic and it was a joy to work with.

Peel and Liverpool Waters

Completely different schemes in terms of their size and what they are trying to do Grosvenor responded to a brief that the city produced they knew what the job was and they share that passion and that vision there was a limited time scale to be open before the CoC year which we achieved. Peel the time scale is very different and very different economic environment and level of investment much reduced and the opportunity to do something sightseen or innovative are reduced because the people they want something safe tried and tested and they knew it works and a usual method of investment and that might work and bring a lit bit of caution as to be honest I don't think that Peel have the same kind of the vision like what does Liverpool one want to bring to Liverpool what we can add to Liverpool I think Grosvenor were looking to add something to their own portfolio but also they were looking to add some special quality to it as well because that will help them and help the city and I don't think Peel Have that kind of thinking it all about investment it is going to be interesting because they their permission now and let us wait to see what will happen and there is no sign now any development activities on their ok we know it is a difficult market it will be interesting I think Peel do recognise the names and they are committed to Liverpool I am not sure if they are committed to same level that Grosvenor has and will see it is going to be high level political conversation between the Mayer and the Chief Executive and Peel, I don't have the same level of involvement with Peel as I have with Grosvenor Project management and will see.

Waterfront offer for the city Identity and the city future

Waterfront is crucial for the city the only city centre from strategic framework of the 2000 if you looked at that and see what was the fundamental idea behind it, the fundamental idea was to reconnect the city with the water and that was it, so it was really about reconnecting the water with the city and re-establishing that idea is Liverpool is a waterfront city once the economy of Liverpool go very bad 1950s on the city we kind of turned that back on the river we don't know the river the river is the reason why Liverpool is here and that is the identity from the river

came Liverpool and that is very important to who we are coming back on branding and marketing and identity and place making all those things are about who we are because we are not on the road in the end of the road and nothing else the next stop is New York and why we still here and what we are doing and all these questions I think about the relationship with the river in my mind is the river is the life for the city like the Nile River for Egypt and Sudan and we shouldn't we turned our back for it we should embracing it is a resource for us so what happens on the waterfront is crucial to have any city evolves in the future and that is from one or two projects like museum and cruise line or it can be 65 Hectare development in the North by Peel holding it doesn't matter what the projects are as long as it trying to integrate and combine the city with the water.

Planning and Management

Did Liverpool has success in preserving it heritage

It depends on who you speak to if you speak to me I would say yes because I am the head of heritage and also work for EH when those large projects were develop and again what it is about what we think about heritage and a lot of people think that heritage means no change because if you have change it loses its heritage context and it is about simple representative of particular period and it is very simple way of thinking about that and more rigours thought will be about heritage doesn't stop cities doesn't stop and we all know this so heritage is a resource it is not an ending in itself it needs to be working not just for the past for the future as well if you see heritage as something that can be nurtured and added to create place and has a role in place making Personally I think that is much better view of the heritage.

EH as a single mind organisation

EH has been fantastic in this process I was EH for long time and the view that express heritage needs to be viewed as a resource not as ending which is very much the EH view I think you are absolutely right in some areas the EH has been criticized as been anti-development but not in Liverpool I don't know who said that but it is very interesting view because I was the one from EH for Liverpool One, Mann Island, New Museum, Kings Arena and I was criticized when I was with the EH as been the one who gave away the Heritage as the destroyed heritage because I was the one who allowing these things and not doing my job of protecting the Heritage and where there is been recent screening with Liverpool waters but I found thing of another scheme

over the past 12 years that EH has object to in major way they have objected to Liverpool waters and we looking how can we resolve that at the moment but EH fully supported Liverpool One, Kings arena, fully supported Mann Island all these things full supported it is prejudices that some people say that EH don't like development the facts are the EH are fully supported

CABE

CABE essentially is gone now I found CABE is sometime hidden miss sometimes they are absolutely right about something and sometimes they just don't get it and found them hidden miss actually I like the literature they put out it is fine but when it comes for things like design review you find them inconsistent ill-informed and not particularly useful and I think a lot of people in the city they will say the same you work on scheme, you take down to CABE, you do the design review and you think it is goes well and after 2-3 weeks you find letter from them saying we don't like this we don't like that do this and do that change this and change that is not very helpful and with people of kind offer advice with people kind of offer advice that is real and helpful rather than high level advice.

Local equivalent to CABE we used to have that but that is now finish and we are establishing a design review committee for example for Liverpool Waters and that at least have the opportunity to design review we also have Places Matters North West Design Review and also take things to them so yes there is also some design review guide we lost our design review panel, Liverpool Urban Design and Conservation Area Panel and that died but we do have Places Matters and we are going to establish these panels specifically for Liverpool Waters.

Design Guidance of EH and CABE

Ok I think as guidelines they are effective and we got our own guidelines for tall building within the WHS supplementary planning document the guide lines are ok but some people see he guide lines as a policy and some people see them as ahh ok you can have a tall buildings there I think as a city we are in real trouble with UNESCO they came and gave us advice listen your policy and guidelines you need to say these buildings will be 4 storeys no more, these buildings will be here and so on a really really strict which is NONESSENCE this is not the cities evolve do you think that one man or organisation vision will determine how the city work and that a real bad new because sure I can put guidelines tomorrow will not tomorrow but I can write a guideline and you can write a guidelines but my guidelines or Mohamed guidelines they are not a real

guidelines because maybe a developer will come and say I have a better idea than that and so if the guidelines are too strict you will say that is a good idea but you cannot do it because the guideline said it and I think we almost regulated too much and there is a danger of that, I mean the cities generally and Liverpool specifically didn't evolved by using a set of guidelines it has just ideas that is a good idea let us do that and that is a bad idea we don't want do that some of them was successful and some of them was unsuccessful but it doesn't matter if it successful or unsuccessful. The thing is the idea and some will win and some will lose I mean there is danger of saying we have to get all right it have to be done right you know it is stops creativity I am not big fan of guidelines I am not a big fan of policies if something is not right ok it is not right and that going to be solved another time let us see how it work or doesn't work I think people need to contribute for a lot thing for the evolution of the city and I think different people need to contribute different things to the city if some people are not agree ok they not agree you don't have to agree all the time I just think there is too much regulation

WHS impact

It should be positive and should be very positive I think some people they say it is negative but I think not it is positive not every city in the UK a WHS or even can start to be a WHS.

EH and Unesco and WHS

If you looking for the WHS the central thing about the WHS is the qualities of OUV and so what is the OUV of the WHS you can look to the physical fabric and say it is the docks, the commercial buildings, the warehouses all those things but you need to dig a little bit deeper what else about Liverpool comes back to the character, place making and branding what is about Liverpool it is innovative city it is a cultural city it is an edgy city it is a city with different cultures well isn't that part of the OUV well I think there temptation just to concentrate on the fabric and the physical attribute of that but it is not it is more than that it is what is make the place a place and what is made Liverpool a place and if you think we invented so many things in the city we were the first in so many things skyscraper technology here in Liverpool, the world first public park we have Europe 1st tram system and we have the first railway in the world all these things and it is about inventiveness ok we have a problem here and how we can overcome this problem and that is the heart of Liverpool it is not physical we cannot see it but it is there and if you ignore that you are ignoring a major thing which make Liverpool a world heritage site, the history of the city is about inventedness, purposefulness, commerce, edginess, dynamism and the building will only tell that part of the story, when I look for something like Liverpool Waters the design

could be better for sure but we can work on that I don't object the principles because I think it has a bad impact on the fabric one of the reasons and objections you can't built on the docks actually we were doing that for 150 years we building on the docks and that part of our history part of our OUV and one of the qualities of this place we adapt we take things and we give it a Liverpool twist and becomes that is not captured and it needs to be because that is part of who we are because comes back to regulation we can do that and we can't do that why not it is part of our history why can't we be invented why cannot be commercial stood like we were we wouldn't give it a second thought that is on the way we get rid of that and we put something else and we did it all the time and now still we can't build a tower because it is too more close to that it is going to ruin the WHS I think two things the physical the docks, warehouses, but what about the other things what about the things that made Liverpool.

Social Cultural dimension

I think they need to play more role and coming back to the point that the river being the main source of cultural capital of the city is the reason that Liverpool here so if you are interested in Liverpool heritage if you are interested on going forward you start and finish with the river because certainly if you move that to sub-regional economic ad shared resource the river takes all the boxes and I think if you look to the economy and cultural industry we have a major success in all these resource again not just the Beatles it is more than the Beatles and we always been the cultural capital of the universe Liverpool and that is one of our major unique selling point is the cultural we are music city not Manchester we are a sport city you know there are a lot of things that Liverpool has achieved and continue to achieve and again you look at areas like Ropewalks and you look at areas like Baltic you look to things like digital media industries you know Liverpool you got three or four guys working in shed somewhere they do these games and they sell to a large companies and then another guys in another shed and another and another and before Liverpool was responsible of producing 30% of the world digital gaming but there only scattered groups we haven't see it and we think it is small it is huge it is massive and that is creative industries they are been creative with digital technologies it recognised we are not a manufacturing city we never have been but people would say what you make in Liverpool you don't make anything in Liverpool we make culture in Liverpool and that is our job and that is what we do we do culture in so many ways we make music and make digital and we don't talk about that we don't sell it some people will say it is not a job making digital economy it is a job it is massive it is huge globally has a massive market. We don't do it and that is why the knowledge economy in the city everybody is after knowledge economy we have say come to Liverpool because all of these things that we have to do, Liverpool school of tropical medicine it is huge it is been in Liverpool for a long time and needs to expand needs to do some incredible

research work globally significant work just got a large of money funding from Bilgates and that is because the quality of the research they are doing we can't pop down and saying ohh we should be having a tall building there forget that what good at and what we are doing and things like that and this is a genuine and true knowledge economy, cultural economy, student economy and this what we do in Liverpool and this is part of our branding and marketing and distinctiveness.

What do think about the movement of the city to the finance economy?

Let us see what happens with Liverpool Waters, I am not convince the investment level is there yet to do things with Liverpool element and that only one element and I think there is job to be done to be sure that the look and the feel of Liverpool Waters is distinctiving Liverpool we already done that to a degree and it is all outline there is no details planning permission on place we still working on that what we can do is to look where we are distinctive where we are Liverpool very local and it is those areas what we need to concentrate on do not worries a lot about Liverpool Waters which may or may not happen I think we got to be open of what we are good at what we can market what we can sell, dock waters we have 11 km of dock waters we don't use them so how can we use them think about how can we animate them how can we make them a resource and it is those areas in many respects much more important about Liverpool Waters utilising something that we akready have and create an environment for investment and development that we can actually use them rather than worrying about something that may not happen.

Future of the Culture,

It is central and absolutely and central for the city, I think the city politically and the Mayer recognises the some of the unique characteristics that Liverpool has and there is been so much excitement and dynamism through things like capital of culture CODDESSI and the Giant and that is brings in enormous amount of money and raises the image and dynamism and cultural qualities that the city has so the Mayer said ok it costs us 3 million and brought in 24 million and you do the Math, and that is been recognised in very senior political level that the culture and the important of the culture is very important to the success of the city so I don't think we have been ambitious enough so for example Liverpool waters for the time until it finish 30 years what is going to happen in that site between now and 30 years why can't we use it for cultural activities why can't we have expo and why can't we do this why should not be having like Shanghai expo world expo again if you look at the 65 hectar Peel also another land of the other

side of the river what happen if we put the two sites together and have international expo it going to cost us couple of billion pounds how much revenue, I was in Shanghai Expo it was 17 million visitors ok Liverpool is not china may be Liverpool going to have 4 million but if you think how much it raises the profile of the city and the image of the city I don't think we make enough of culture we can do more when I talk about expo is not about buildings it is just temporary it is about telling Liverpool story and having a theme which could be for the regeneration actually some that say something about the city we should be use him and do everything we can to support him and we defining culture is not about the music football it is lots of things with the city.

The New Development in the waterfront

Mann Island it is definitely add to the city and it is contextualise design and I think as the buildings has rationale again it is contextual design it is how you think about things well I design this building to look like this well I have reasons and I think the museum and Mann Island are very contextualised design and they are really clear why they look like they do and just because they don't like a warehouse or a classical building that is mean they are not contextual it is mean that is the most exciting in working with contemporary Architecture in Heritage environment it is add to the other and in my mind they both add the designs are very contextual they thought about where they were what is around them they thought about what they are doing and they thought about how they would add we all have issues I don't like it or I like it and that is subjective me I like it but you cannot do things that please everybody, I like them because they are contextual and they do add.

The Transformation of the city Identity

If Liverpool Waters happen that will be a major success 65 h of new developments 9000 apartments but there question further down about contradiction the success of project is not about how much area square has been built unless it is address these issues of poverty, wordlessness, health, educational quality it would fail the whole thing that many people they don't look at is set it in a context if you look at the context again you have river albert dock pier head Liverpool water then if you go east you have Liverpool north and areas of dereliction and poverty and the two football grounds they are centred around north Liverpool two things has to do it has to be centred in its own right and it has to been seen as a city centre expansion so they needs to be connectivity but more importantly it needs to bridge that divide it has to create

opportunities and that is why politicians like it not because new apartment it because opportunities to do that and that is so important unless it address that it will fail and we don't want any barrier here it has to be open and it has given opportunities and if I Peel and serious I would be looking now ok what is the industries are they going to use all this office space and what they are going to produce do they have that skills in Liverpool and I would be saying here is these courses here is some money to universities to create that skills base you need to think about it not as just piece of real state but also as expansion from the city centre and need to be seen as an opportunities for these guys so success for me is about the number of apartment and built square meters it measures in health statistics, educational, statistics, wealth statistics and the physical connection between things.

The trickledown effect is no good is not working you need to have much more positive than trickle down because you know 60-40 storey towers there and filled them with people from all countries people who have the skills you can buy in that tower it not problem and this is always been done by Liverpool but how much satisfied would be to say the skills is here you don't need to do that this is where the unemployment were this is where the bad health, bad education and so on why we don't fill those 40-60 storeys from people from this area who can work and have the right skills set it is great opportunity it is 30 years, long time and in educational term it is a long time to develop a skills whether we take the opportunities whether the politician or the Mayer or Peel take this opportunity and say no we are serious about the regeneration is not just about Peel it is about people.

Liverpool Waters worth risking the WHS

No because people collect WHS and it gives Liverpool its identity it is like if we say what if the Liverpool move to Leeds it is the same with WHS why would we want to lose it? We have no direct visiting management figures people who come to Liverpool to visit the WHS there is no information on that. And I think it is part of the parcel what is Liverpool has to offer we can do this and this and for WHS we can do that and it is like how would you through that away, but the title it is very nice thing to have, we can have both, what do you think about Unesco, unesco doesn't understand how cities work, it is have a very limited view its guidance in heritage cities is 20 years behind the time, they are not sophisticated as they need to be and way behind the EH system and there is too many people in Unesco of they think of WHS as monuments not living cities they need a better understanding and they not sophisticated and they need to think more sophisticated about what heritage means and what cities are and they need to think about understanding universal value the whole think not just parcels of it, personally I think the

Liverpool Waters has some issues but only some of them and I think we need more work to move that threat and I think we is good one the principle is safe is very Liverpool the principle will respect and enhancing the OUV some of the details not and Unesco I am not sure they accept even the principles and they forgot that cities about people and they don't really understand what makes the OUV of the city is very limited. And I don't think they are very sophisticated they come with very fixed ideas and they 20years behind time, EH has one issue which is the 2nd cluster of the tall buildings the 6 towers and Unesco have more than one issue and really limited way of thinking.

Appendix 7\ The Quantitative analysis of the News Articles

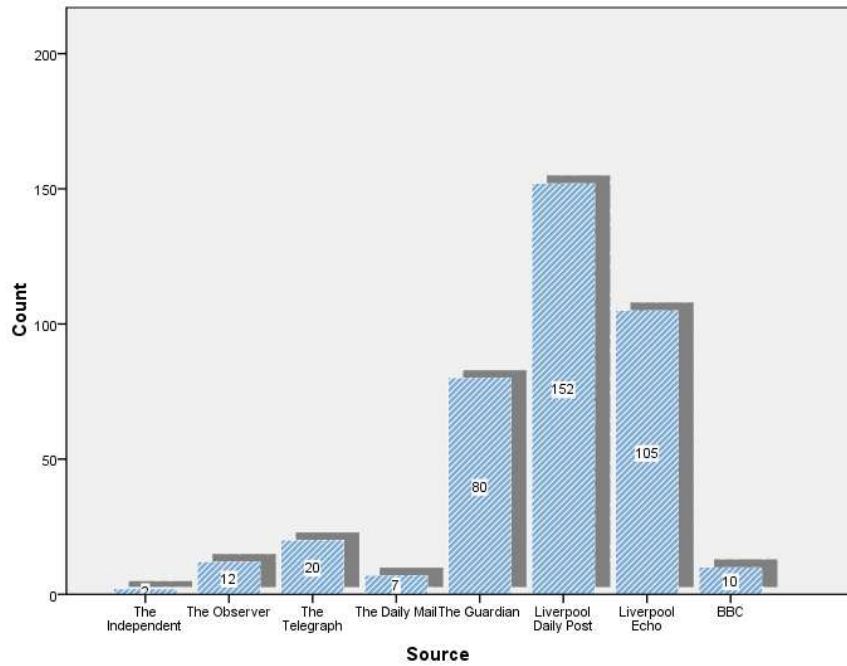


Figure 6. 36\ The sources and the frequency Source\ the author

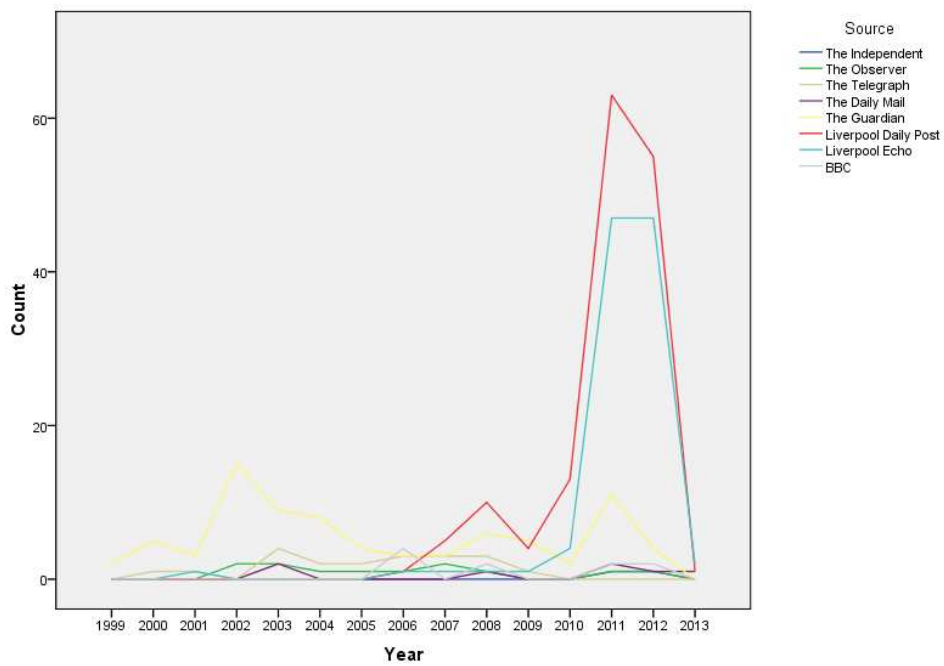


Figure 6. 37\ the news articles sources and their frequency throughout the years Source\ the author

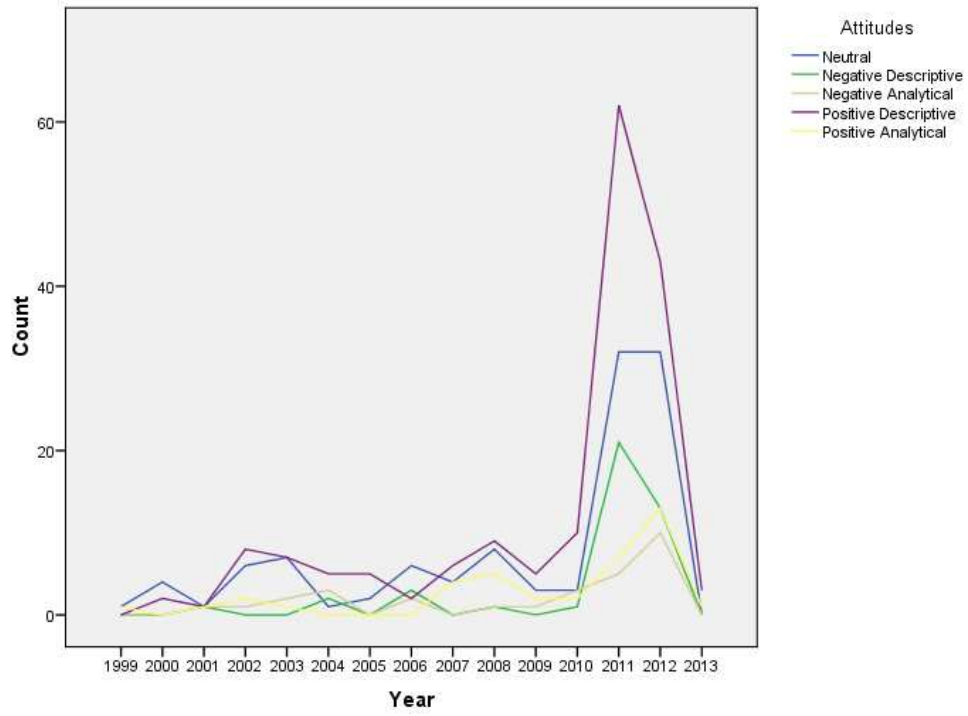


Figure 6. 38\ the change of the perception throughout the time Source\ the author

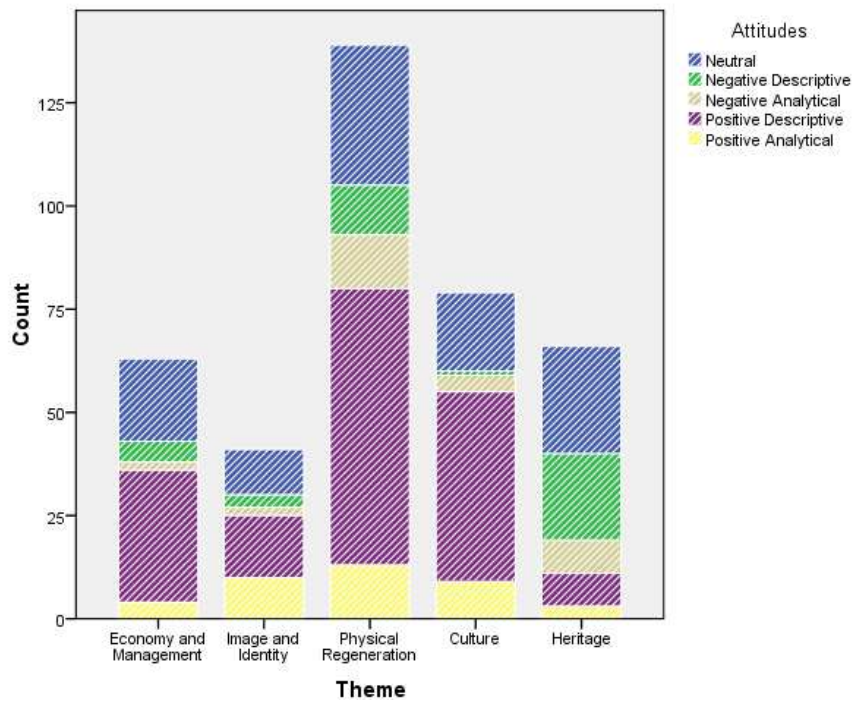


Figure 6. 39\ attitude towards the themes Source\ the author

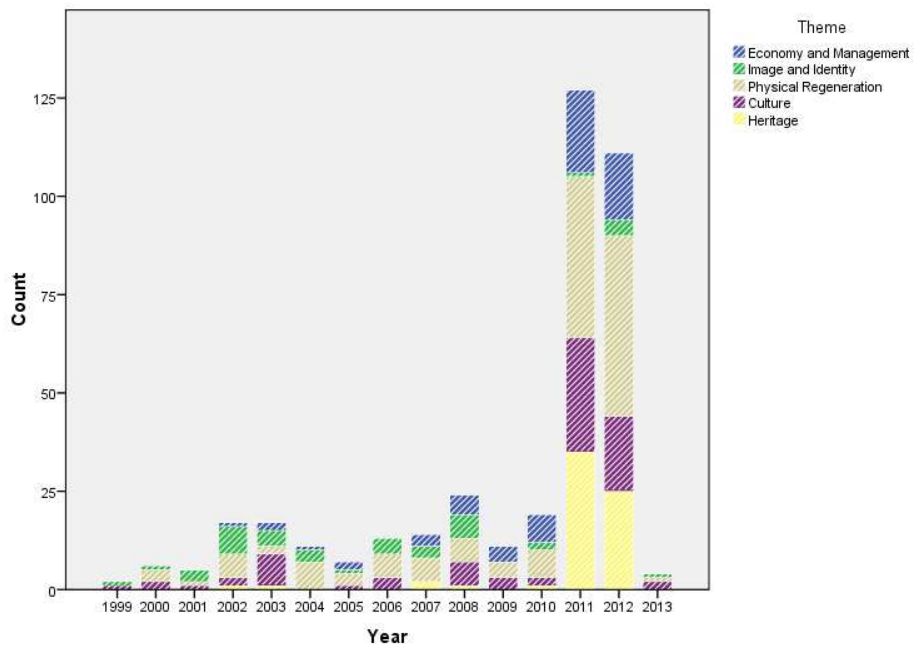


Figure 6. 40\ the frequency of themes throughout the years Source\ the author

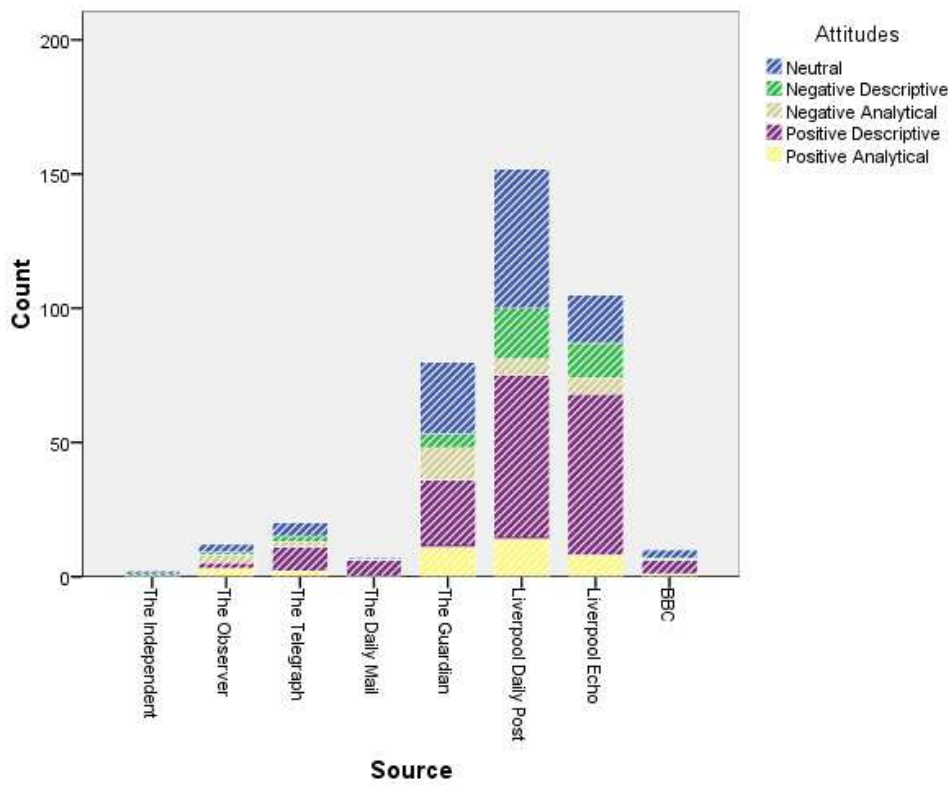


Figure 6. 41\ attitudes and the news sources Source\ the author

Appendix 8\ Published Abstract in the International Conference of Communication and the City: Voices, Spaces, and Media, University of Leeds, June 2013

'Who Speaks for Liverpool?'

Communicating Urban Identity through Place Branding

Mohamed Hussein *, Nicole Porter & Katharina Borsi

Against a backdrop of intensified urban competition, cities are under pressure to communicate positive place images more than ever. Place branding is a pervasive marketing and management tool being used in a bid to transform negative images of urban environments, becoming an integrated part of urban regeneration (Zhang and Zhao, 2009, Patteeuw, 2002, Kavatzis and Ashworth, 2005). To what extent do such marketing messages reflect the complexity of urban identity? Place branding raises questions concerning the process of image selection and communication, and how the collective city image can be identified, shared and spread (Peel and Lloyd, 2008).

This paper explores the place branding phenomenon through a case study of Liverpool, a city whose brand tagline proudly declares 'Who Speaks for Liverpool? We all Do.' Liverpool has experienced serious urban decline followed major economic restructuring greater than any other city in the UK (Couch, 2003). Today, the city has the fastest growing economy outside London and it is one of the UK's leading business destinations. However, with the establishment of Liverpool Vision in 1999, the concept of place branding has come forth. Liverpool Vision aims to strengthen the Liverpool brand world-wide in order to attract inward investment (Liverpool Vision, 1999). Focussing on the period of Liverpool Vision from 1999 to the present, this study draws on archival material and interviews with a number of stakeholders involved (including those managing the process and those critical of it), to identify the extent to which Liverpool's transformation represents a distinctively local identity or one of global homogenised change. Like all cities, Liverpool gives rise to many voices, although some may speak louder than others in the branding age.

By reflecting on the Liverpool case, this paper elucidates the relationship between place branding and urban identity, and the challenges of facilitating regeneration whilst still allowing for local distinctiveness.