

CHAPTER 7

PARTNERSHIPS IN URBAN REGENERATION: FROM 'TOP DOWN' TO 'BOTTOM UP' APPROACH

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This chapter will focus upon successful comprehensive regeneration strategies, and the process of implementation, within the framework of a partnership approach. The partnership model will be analysed with some reference to examples of public private partnerships in London, Brighton, Manchester and Leeds.

PUBLIC PRIVATE PARTNERSHIPS

Public Private Partnerships (PPP) are recognised as the quintessential vehicle to implement and deliver urban regeneration (Beatty, 2000; Berry *et al.*, 1993; Wilson and Charlton, 1997). The concept of partnerships has a long history and incorporates different types of alliances among institutions from the public, private and voluntary sector. The popularity of public-private partnerships developed out of several factors, the most influential being the budgetary restraints faced by local authorities and the public sector. Further, the impetus for collaboration was driven by changes in urban policy and government ideology, but also by pragmatic efforts to respond to the complex nature of regeneration problems.

Various examples of partnerships in urban regeneration were illustrated through the

analysis of different projects and strategies for change in London, Manchester and Brighton. The diversity of partnership arrangements offers significant benefits for the management and implementation of the regeneration process (Stainback, 1997). Specifically PPPs could deliver the following benefits:

- Ensure more efficient mobilization of resources;
- Leverage additional support based on the strengths of different partners;
- Address the nexus of urban problems in a more comprehensive manner;
- Ensure more equitable representation of different interests and stakeholders;
- Achieve coordination of different fragmented programs/projects.

While PPPs are recognized as an important instrument for strategic and more holistic approaches to urban regeneration, they have a number of disadvantages:

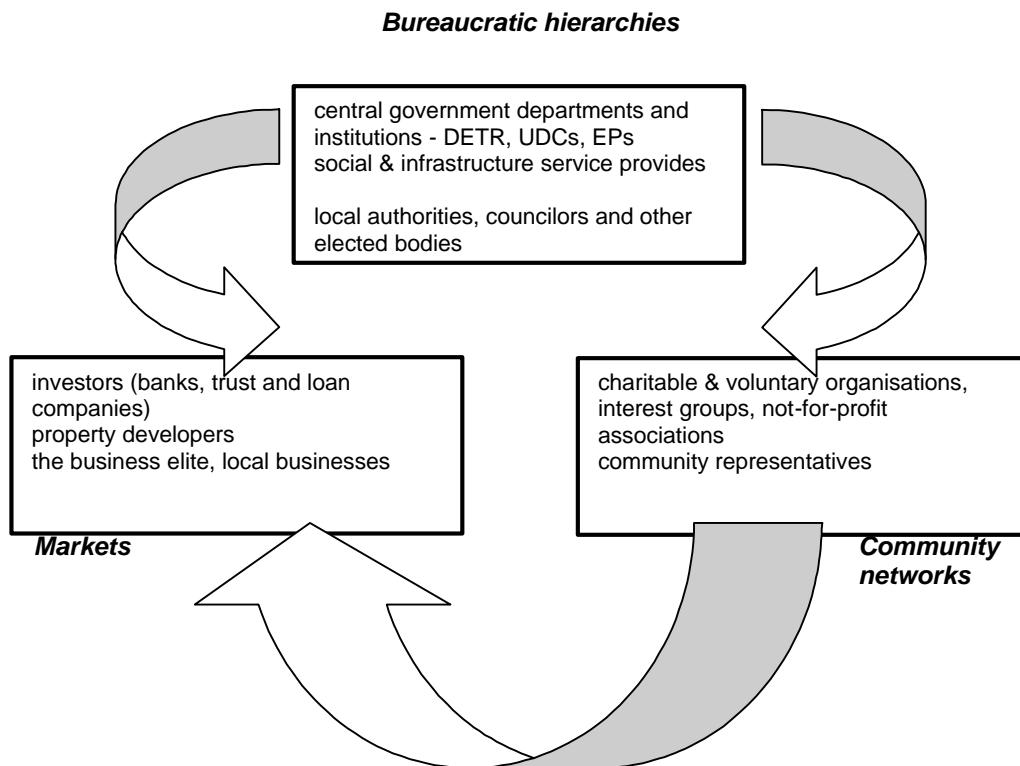
- The diversity of partnerships makes them difficult to manage and coordinate;
- The power and the capacity of different partners can be uneven;
- The legitimacy of partnerships is often challenged by lack of adequate representation of community groups;
- The multiplicity of interests can lead to divergent objectives and priorities for action.

Institutional Framework

The type of partnership and its institutional framework utilised in the regeneration process depends upon the characteristics of the area, partnership objectives, activities and relationships between partners (Armstrong, 2000). Despite the shifting balance and diversity of partnership arrangements, three major institutional clusters can be discerned:

- Public sector institutions
- Private sector institutions
- Community-based institutions.

The institutional clusters interact and collaborate at different scales to address a range of issues – economic, social, environmental (see Figure 7.1). As a result, the repertoire of strategies for urban policy in general and regeneration in particular includes

Figure 7.1 Institutional Clusters in the Regeneration Process

markets, hierarchies and networks. These strategies are typically associated with the operation of the private sector, the public sector and civil society (UNCHS, 2001). Markets use price competition as a central coordinating mechanism and are perceived as an effect way to provide goods and services. Hierarchies rely on rule setting, norms and institutional cooperation to coordinate decisions. Bureaucratic hierarchies are familiar 'top down' approach to balance competing values of efficiency and equity. Community networks use informal coalitions, trust and mutual adjustment to coordinate decisions; these are principles embedded in civil society. The challenge of PPP is certainly associated with its unique ability to utilize the potential of this repertoire in the most efficient and effective manner.

Public sector institutions encompass central government departments and institutions, such as the Department of the Environment, Transport and the Regions, the Home Office, UDCs, and English Partnerships. Service

providers include, but are not limited to, health, education, and social service agencies. At the local government level, important public institutions representing local interests are local authorities, councilors and other elected bodies. The public sector provides critical financial support – subsidies, grants and tax incentives – to enable the involvement of private institutions. It contributes to PPPs through its knowledge and expertise in urban planning and the provision of social services and infrastructure. Public institutions at the central and local level are expected to take the lead in urban regeneration, coordinate and steer the process as well as maintain a dialogue with other partners.

Private sector institutions include investors (banks, trust and loan companies), property developers, and businesses. Each cluster adds value to the PPP depending on its expertise. While private institutions are no doubt profit-motivated, they have an invaluable instinct and knowledge about the market, which is beneficial for the regeneration process. Their

ability to assume risk in property development and to mobilize funds surpasses that of the public sector. Private institutions also generate employment opportunities for local residents and capital funding for community amenities and job training facilities.

Community-based institutions are extensive in composition and activity; they include charitable and voluntary organisations, interest groups, not-for-profit associations and agencies that provide services and/or funds. Voluntary organizations in Britain have a long-standing tradition and deal with a wide range of economic, social and environmental tasks. In urban regeneration efforts, these institutions add value to the PPP through their extensive knowledge of the area, and established relationships of trust with the local community. They also provide services, which the government is no longer willing or able to provide – e.g. temporary housing, employment retraining, health services to special needs groups. Due to the nature of voluntary groups, they need to be allowed to operate independently from the bureaucratic system and to act as advocates.

Organisational Structure

Beswick (2000a) defined the organizational structure of PPPs for urban regeneration with respect to three variables: scope of activity, representation of stakeholders and level of intervention. According to the *scope of the regeneration activity*, four types of intervention – physical, environmental, economic, and social -- were identified.¹ More holistic regeneration would be inclusive of all four types of intervention. Correspondingly, the regeneration approach could include both physical and economic components, or incorporate social regeneration at a later stage. The *number of partners/actors* that compose the partnership is dependent on the scope of regeneration efforts and can range from less inclusive to more broadly defined. At that end of the spectrum the partnership is composed of stakeholders from all four sectors -- public, private, voluntary and community. More

¹ For example, early regeneration partnerships centered on physical change, with the hope of attracting economic development through the provision of infrastructure. The number of partners initially was limited to central government agencies and private sector investors.

inclusive partnerships can be an attribute to national and/or regional urban regeneration initiatives, while locally based projects often have a more limited outreach.

With the apparent risk to oversimplify a wide diversity of partnership arrangements, the following sections will review three broad categories of PPPs: i) *property development coalitions*, ii) *strategic alliances with local authorities*, and iii) *community-based partnerships*.

PROPERTY DEVELOPMENT COALITIONS

Urban Development Corporations (UDCs) are an important experiment in British urban regeneration policy. They were designed to encourage private sector initiative and investment in the regeneration process, but were also an instrument to increase central financial and political control over the local state. The commitment to a 'market-led' policy emerged in the context of steady decline in inner city areas, rising unemployment and physical decay. The solution resulted from pressures for privileged status for the declining areas and special policies for tackling the economic and social problems.²

UDCs can be presented as public private partnerships organized as property development coalitions. To assess the positive and negative impact of their policies, one needs to consider several key issues: i) the effectiveness of implementation strategies to achieve overall objectives, and ii) the impact of adopted strategies and programmes in economic and social terms.

² The Local Government Planning and Land Act 1980, as amended by the Housing and Planning Act 1986, provides the legislative framework for the UDCs. They were created under statute by the central government and their power is derived from Parliament. The UDCs policy is formulated and determined by their board which is centrally appointed and responsible only to Parliament. The first two UDCs were set in 1981 in London and Liverpool. During the first half of 1987 the Government created five more: Trafford Park, Black Country, Teesside and Tyne and Wear Development Corporations in England, and Cardiff Bay Development Corporation in Wales. A third generation of UDCs was established in 1988 in Bristol, Central Manchester, Leeds and Sheffield. In addition the existing Black Country and Merseyside UDCs were extended (DoE, 1988).

Effectiveness of Implementation Strategies

Reflecting the three dimensions in the 1980 *Local Government and Land Act* (land and buildings, the economy and the people), the goal of the UDCs is: "To secure the lasting physical, economic and social regeneration of the Urban Development Area" (DETR, 1998a). Further, the aim is to generate market confidence in the area, to enable and stimulate private property investment through the provision of infrastructure and cost efficient strategies for redevelopment of derelict land. The encouragement of industries and commercial activities, and the provision of housing and social facilities, are considered of major importance for the revitalisation of the economic and social life. Therefore the focus of UDCs is primarily physical and economic development (see Figure 7.2). The leading agent in the partnership model represents central government interests; it works closely with property developers, banks and other businesses to deliver regeneration results.

Figure 7.2 Regeneration Challenges in Butlers Warf, London



Source: Tsenkova, 2001

This closely knit coalition brings relatively homogeneous interests together and the distribution of power among partners could be perceived as equal. The development strategy could be described as one based on physical regeneration and leverage of private sector investment.³ Major differences in the initial start of the UDCs referring to size, location, population and economic context in the designated area, determined a variety of approaches. In London Docklands, proximity to the City made the area a special case, while Manchester and Leeds attracted less mobile investment. LDDC also received the lion's share of the public money allocated for industrial promotion, land acquisition and infrastructure development. Further, Enterprise Zones on the Isle of Dogs (London) and Safford Quays (Manchester) with a special package of financial concessions and other benefits were particularly successful in encouraging industrial and commercial development (Figure 7.3). This notable success was produced by public sector investment rather than reblooming entrepreneurial spirit.⁴

Economic and Social Impact

In the process of evaluation of the partnership model, it is important to assess whether UDCs contributed to the property redevelopment of the area, the provision of social infrastructure and the solution to environmental problems. The examples of property redevelopment presented in chapters 3, 4 and 5 of this report are really impressive. Obviously a number of flagship projects were built in London,

³ LDDC strategy comprised three aims: improving access, developing the new city, encouraging investment and development. The first strategic aim - to improve road and rail access into the area - was crucial to maintaining the speed of the regeneration. It included a variety of transport infrastructure programmes managed and funded by the Corporation. The second strategic aim focused on adequate provision of environmental, economic and social infrastructure to sustain the New City of Docklands. The third set of programmes was related to the strategic aim – to maximize investment (LDDC, 1989).

⁴ Most of the private commercial and industrial development in London Docklands took place in the EZ, where 40 million sq ft were constructed by 1991. The special status, providing tax advantages and 100 % tax allowances on buildings under construction by April 1992, explains the developers' apparent preference (Cox, 1995).

Manchester and Leeds, providing high quality urban environment. Considerable public investment led to infrastructure and environmental improvements and significant private resources were committed to physical development of housing, social, commercial and industrial space. UDCs managed to act as a catalyst enabling private and public investment to contribute to different regeneration schemes. These 'market facilitators' operated with substantial grants to carry out their strategic 'pump-prime' strategies in a manner sensitive to economic circumstances and property market fluctuations.

Figure 7.3 Enterprise Zone at Safford Quays



Source: Tsenkova, 2001

Economic costs and benefits. Assessment of the cost-efficiency of UDCs requires analysis of the net cost of different incentives on the basis of precise and complete information about the levels of public/private investment and subsequent monitoring of the experiment. The other issue to be considered is who has benefited from the development in the areas in terms of return on investment, efficient use of newly built infrastructure and jobs.

Financially the zones were areas of privilege, offering the advantages of experimental urban policy initiatives. Private sector development required substantial incentives and encouragement; the 'free market' response was financially motivated. Basically greater volume of development occurred in the areas with more tempting economic benefits. It is

argued that property developers -- certain private commercial interests -- have gained legally massive advantages in the market place through the political means of state patronage (Brownill, 1990; Church, 1988). What is good for big property companies might be 'good for Britain', but then again it might be not (Colenutt, 1989; Berry et al., 1993). Further, a property-led regeneration strategy is particularly sensitive to development risk. For example, private investment in the early 1990s, committed against a background of uncertainty, resulted in overproduction and high vacancy rates, which was not an efficient use of public or private money.⁵ While property markets have recovered later, both private and public sector institutions have taken a much more cautious approach to risk management in urban regeneration (Colquhoun, 1995).

Social benefits for the local people – lose of gain? In allocating UDC to certain localities it happened that some lost more than gained. In quantitative terms there was a shift in state expenditure away from the local population towards businesses and property interests in particular (Brownill, 1990; Kearns and Turok, 2000). Certainly local people benefited from the improved quality of the environment, new community facilities, better public transport and new housing. An important question to answer is how many of the local people could afford to have access to this better lifestyle. In terms of fairness, the alternative was probably rooted in finding an opportunity to spread the economic benefits wider through the 'trickling down' process to the local community.⁶ Examples of

⁵ Clearly without the UDCs assistance and financial incentives most of the industrial and commercial development would not have taken place. The optimism of developers led to overproduction of offices and housing. A great number of the speculatively built housing was empty in the early 1990s due to the 'quietness' of the housing market.

⁶ Particularly for the local people the early redevelopment in London Docklands brought marginal employment possibilities (Brownill, 1990; Cox, 1995). Few were employed in the new businesses; a significant number of the existing businesses, as a result of higher property values and increasing rents, were squeezed out of the area. Most of the local population was poor with 30-40% belonging to ethnic minority groups. Certainly the prices of the newly built houses (£151,000 average in 1990) were beyond the reach of the very few local first time buyers. In the early days the LDDC did not really see the provision of social housing as their objective.

community gains fall broadly in three areas: economic (local economic development, employment training schemes), social and cultural, and environmental. The question is whether community gains were the adequate answer to the severe local employment and housing problems. The uncertainties of the market could jeopardise any gain; if the property market did not continue to be buoyant the gains failed to materialise.

STRATEGIC ALLIANCES WITH LOCAL AUTHORITIES

The institutional framework and the operating principles of UDCs provide a basis for further development of the PPP framework. Considering the aggravated economic and social problems in the regeneration areas, the establishment of the UDCs responded to the need to co-ordinate different interests and to control the whole process.

The creation of the UDCs is no reflection on, nor criticism of the efficiency or ability of the local authorities. It is rather recognition of the importance of these areas and the need to bring central government resources to bear in a speedy and single-minded approach the solving of their problems. (The Local Government Minister, quoted in King, 1991, p.35).

Improving the Model

UDCs were an innovative managerial experiment set up to cope with urban regeneration challenges. They were supposed to provide a complementary stimulus rather than a threat to local authorities. A single focus authority was to bridge the gap between the different institutions and parties involved, but it could also erode local democracy (Lawless, 1988; Thornley 1991). These new institutions could bypass the elected local councils and through central government funding could control the development process.

The early experience of UDCs identified the need for change and strategic alliance with local authorities. Despite initial opposition the local authorities welcomed the activities of UDCs in Manchester and Leeds, where there were no major conflicts in the aims and strategies. In London, however, this did not work. Local authority plans emphasised industry and public housing, while the LDDC promoted offices, retail and private housing developments, a strategy with a radical impact

over the economic and social profile of the area. Still there was a way to improve the model, to 'get it right'.

English Partnerships (EP) were established with a mandate to facilitate urban regeneration and to develop efficient partnerships rather than a history of defeats of local authorities and community groups (English Partnerships, 2000; Yelling, 1999). EP capitalized on the legacy of UDCs and the critical mass of property-led regeneration created over the years. The agency successfully manages the regeneration of the Royal Docks in London, Europe's largest development site (Figure 7.4).⁷ Similar objectives, although at a much more moderate scale, are pursued in Manchester. Manchester City Center, devastated by the recent IRA bombing, is striving to become the cultural, educational and financial hub of North Western England. In their new role of 'enablers', EP focused on building bridges among local authorities, developers, local communities and other central government institutions.

Figure 7.4 New Housing, Royal Docks London



Source: Tsenkova, 2001

The New Planning Regime

In the new policy environment local authorities have gained their planning powers for urban regeneration areas. A market - led planning strategy required simplified planning to protect an 'upmarket image' and attract private investment. In the past, UDCs had the right to override local authority plans if they did not conform to market preferences. Under the new planning regime, local authority planners

⁷ In this development scheme EP in cooperation with local authorities managed to negotiate a 25% share for social housing to be provided by the property developers.

coordinate major developments and the provision of physical infrastructure in line with community objectives (Black, 2000). A return back to strategic planning appears to have eliminated previous *ad hoc* arrangements with respect to community gains, but market volatility and risk management continue to be a major challenge (Shostak, 2000).

This new approach to PPPs for urban regeneration in the 1990s has placed local authorities in a leading position. The central

government has rolled back the 'intervention frontier' setting up new funding initiatives such as City Challenge and the Single Regeneration Budget (SRB). Local authorities could bid for funding, provided that they work in partnerships with the private sector and local communities (DETR, 2001). While in some cases this might have created *funding coalitions* with the objective of budget enlargement, there have been positive examples of strategic alliances and genuine partnerships.

Figure 7.5 Hulme City Challenge



Source: Tsenkova, 2001

Examples

City Challenge demonstrates a commitment for a comprehensive approach to regeneration. Funded through the SRB, it encourages synergies between departments and reduced overlap in service delivery and programming efforts. Hulme City Challenge, for example, aims at redevelopment of a significant portion of Manchester incorporating 3,000 dwellings units, improvements to infrastructure and provisions for retail and commercial development (Figure 7.5). A PPP was set up to rebuild the entire community – to secure funds for housing, highways, the extension of the metro system and job creation initiatives. Barbara McLaughlin (2000) suggests, that regeneration in Hulme “.. is about analysing how people work, how people organise their lives and determining what ordinary facilities and actions we need to take to bring people back into society”.

Leeds Initiative. Leeds Initiative Regeneration Board through SRB has delivered significant results. The PPP includes Training and Enterprise Council, City Council, the Chambers of Commerce, the Police, the Health Authority, Leeds Partnership Charities Homes and various other voluntary organizations. The underlying philosophy of the agency is 'people based', which means an explicit emphasis on improvement of the social rather than the physical environment. Contrary to the experience of UDC that focused on the regeneration of former industrial sites in Leeds (Figure 7.6), the success of the initiative is measured by sustainability of results in the area of social advancement and inclusion (DETR, 1998a).

Figure 7.6 Rebuilding the Industrial Heritage in Leeds



Source: Tsenkova, 2001

Manchester City Centre. The regeneration is a city-led initiative that brings together various public/private partnerships, which characterise much of the Millennium schemes. With the prospect of increased funding through loans, lotteries, and other sources of private funds,

The main lessons we have learned in terms of regenerating the city centre is that Council needs to exhibit confidence and deliver what we actually said we would. This enables the private sector to buy into our vision and enables them to have confidence in us as a delivery vehicle for regeneration (Duddell, 2000).

Local Strategic Partnerships are multi-sectoral partnerships with the objective to ensure effective, efficient and equitable operation at the local level (DETR, 2000a). They act as an umbrella partnership to address locally specific regeneration issues.

The aspiration behind local strategic partnerships is that all local service providers should work with each other, the private sector and the broader local community to agree to a holistic approach to solving problems with a common vision, agreed objectives, pooled expertise and agreed priorities for the allocation of resources (DETR, 2000b, p.3).



public resources have managed to leverage significant private sector interest and community support. City Council and the planners have taken a proactive role in orchestrating these initiatives to generate city-wide benefits (see Figure 7.7).

Incentives offered by the central government are the National Regeneration Fund (NRF), which is contingent upon formulation of a local strategic partnership, particularly in areas experiencing severe decline. The government would like to ensure that partnerships are genuine, in terms of all stakeholders being involved through appropriate levels of accountability and representation.

Figure 7.7 The Historical Legacy of Manchester City

COMMUNITY BASED PARTNERSHIPS

Further along the spectrum of PPPs are the community-based partnerships that empower community members and voluntary organizations to design and implement contextually appropriate urban regeneration initiatives. The public sector – central and local government institutions – provides critical financial and institutional support, but is not taking the lead. The effectiveness of this new approach, launched in 1998, is perhaps difficult to evaluate at this time (Social Exclusion Unit, 2000; DETR, 1999). Much of the results at the community level have not materialized. It remains to be seen whether this is a new wave of government rhetoric supported by the political ideology of New Labour.

New Deal for Communities. Launched in 1998, it targets Britain's most deprived communities through neighbourhood-based regeneration. In Brighton, one of the 17 "pathfinder" areas that pioneered the program, £20 to 50 million pounds for up to ten years will be used to deal with social exclusion through access to jobs, education and health. To deal with social exclusion, a broad-based strategy was created through the Brighton and Hove Regeneration Partnership.⁸ The importance of bottom-up consultation and decision-making is emphasized in the approach to economic and social regeneration. East Brighton Partnership is facilitated by local authorities, but draws its strength from community-based organizations and voluntary institutions. Involving all members of the community to work in cooperation with the public and private sector institutions adds value to the process. Hillary Powlson, Project Officer for the programme, stressed the effectiveness of this approach, "when people are a part of the process and have gone out and talked to other local people and researched the issues, their solutions are really sensible" (Powlson, 2000).

⁸ The PPP included the following members: Education Action Zone, Employment Zone, URBAN, Enterprise Agency, Youth Offending Team, Youth Action Steering Group, Business Community Partnership, Police Consultation and Public Safety Partnership, Responsible Authorities Partnership, and the Early Years Development and Childcare Partnership (East Brighton Community Partnership, 2000).

Community-Based Regeneration Initiatives mark another important milestone in the evolution of PPPs. *Community-Based Regeneration Initiatives* (1999) further exemplifies the shift in government's philosophy:

Local people need to be more than consulted and involved: for regeneration to be owned by communities it must engage their hearts and minds. Ultimately, if regeneration is not owned by the community, its benefits will not endure (DETR, 1999).

The initiative reflects the belief that the 'bottom up' approach to regeneration is the key, as opposed to the earlier 'top down' approach. Programs instigated by the communities to address their social, economic, and environmental needs are considered a priority (Beswick, 2000a) Regeneration endeavors at the community level may be smaller in scale, but ultimately manageable for the residents involved, and specific to the needs of the community. Some examples are local exchange trading systems, credits unions, development trusts, mutual aid groups, training and job search support schemes, and community business development.

PARTNERSHIP MODELS

There is a significant literature discussing the way in which urban policy has promoted multi-sectoral partnerships (Blackman, 1995; Davis, 2001; Lawless, 1991). Mackintosh (1992) defined three main models of regeneration partnerships -- the *synergy model*, the *budget enlargement model*, and the *transformational model*.

- The *synergy model* is based upon the premise that the whole is greater than the sum of the parts. It advocates a collective approach to regeneration, whereby all partners combine resources, knowledge, operational cultures, and approaches in order to achieve more as a team, as opposed to their individual efforts.
- The *budget enlargement model* operates in an effort to obtain additional funding, which would otherwise be inaccessible to the individual representatives, without the formulation of a partnership.

FROM 'TOP DOWN' TO 'BOTTOM UP' APPROACH

CHARACTERISTIC FEATURES	PROPERTY DEVELOPMENT COALITIONS	STRATEGIC ALLIANCES WITH LOCAL AUTHORITIES	COMMUNITY BASED PARTNERSHIPS
Participants	Central government and property interests No interaction with local authority, except when required by law	Close relationship between central and local government, property development interests, and business elite. Other sectors might be represented	Voluntary organizations, community activists, local businesses and public sector organizations
Primary Emphasis	Property development, economic change	Economic, social, environmental aspects of regeneration; strong emphasis on physical redevelopment	Community gains: employment and social opportunities, physical regeneration
Mode of Cooperation	Budget enlargement Leverage	Synergies with formal partnership agreements Hierarchical relations with local actors	Transforming Voluntary cooperation with possible synergies through formal partnerships with the public sector
Ideology	Entrepreneurial philosophy Market-led development steered by government financial support and concessions to property developers; experimental urban management by authoritarian agencies	The enterprise culture leads local authorities to engage in partnerships with business elites and property interests	Driven by genuine concerns about local welfare and community prosperity
Financial Motivation	Regeneration partnerships are established to benefit from tax incentives and grants for property development	Grant driven: regeneration partnerships are established to bid for a range of public funds	A move from grant chasing to qualitative changes within the partnership network
Spheres of Influence	Strategy and implementation largely defined by central government Symbolic cooperation with local government	Strategy and implementation defined by competing interest; balancing competing priorities and policy arenas	Strategy and implementation defined by the community; strong interaction with local authorities and the voluntary sector
Evolving Interdependence	Limited partnerships, profit-driven	Local collaboration, partnerships generate collaborative synergies	Partnerships become embedded in local communities, generate positive synergies
Partnership Trajectory Sustainability	Growth centered Short-term	Responsive to local needs, dependent on strong local authority leadership Sustainable over a longer period	Well integrated in the social fabric of the community; potential risks of conflicts Self-sustaining

Table 7.1 Typology of Urban Regeneration Partnerships

- The *transformational model* proposes that by working together, each partner will benefit by being exposed to the different working styles, assumptions, and methods of the other partners. Such exposure would stimulate innovation during the process of change, a transformation that is considered to be the result of a successful partnership.

In most of the cases the discourse centers on factors defining PPPs and their effectiveness (Law, 1988; Lawless, 1994). Previous analysis has highlighted the evolution in urban regeneration policies in the case studies with a particular emphasis on the implications for the partnership model. The conditions under which partnerships emerged and the balance of involvement of principal institutional clusters has defined different partnership types with different goals and implementation strategies. The suggested typology avoids the 'trap' of localism by focusing on activities, mode of cooperation, ideology, influence and partnership trajectory. Any of the features summarized in Table 7.1 could be present to a greater or lesser extent in a range of partnership activities. However, these characteristics are a useful yardstick against which a particular PPP can be measured and evaluated.

CONCLUSION: KEY FACTORS FOR SUCCESS

The multiplier effects of urban regeneration should be considered in economic and social terms. Social objectives and values should be examined as closely as the cost effectiveness of regeneration strategies. Clearly it is not unreasonable to expect that successful developments might give rise to a host of secondary impacts such as additional investment or employment creation, which are positive achievements. Certainly the improvement of the 'social mix' in the areas is also a result of regeneration initiatives. The special area status for physical development was successful; however, private property development of offices, retail and housing can not be equated with the resolution of the inner city problem. The physical development may serve to displace the problem either spatially or socially. Development in the UDAs is unconvincingly equated with national interests (Colenutt, 1989). But the question is should the needs of the local people be overridden in the name of the national interest? Should market

criteria determine development at the expense of social criteria? Are these contradictions inherent or there is a way in which a reasonable balance can be achieved. Concerning the social costs and effects inside the areas, it can be argued that the property-led regeneration is particularly unsuccessful in the provision of local jobs and affordable housing (Brownhill, 1990). The local community has the right to be involved in the development of the local area; to see these rights as an integral part of the planning process should be the starting point for regeneration (DETR, 2000b).

Unlike earlier *ad hoc* attempts to develop and implement urban regeneration, recent programs and strategies for change have emphasized strategic approaches. A clear vision is fundamental to urban regeneration and is likely to continue to be a hallmark of successful regeneration scheme (Roberts and Sykes, 2000). However, the shift in ideology also implies the need for strategic long-term resource commitments, which still appears to be beyond the delivery capabilities of many public and private sector bodies. The case studies suggest that '*top down*' *urban policy measures may undermine collaborative synergy and sustainability of urban regeneration*. However, '*the bottom up*' approach is a significant challenge with respect to management of multiple stakeholders, tangled networks and complicated decision-making.

Successful regeneration seems to involve a process of balanced incremental development, in which a combination of pilot projects and flagship schemes is used to attract and establish new uses and to rebuild a community. Proactive planning concerned with economic and social, rather than just physical and/or environmental development can assist the process. Recognizing the uniqueness of each city/place, six key factors are instrumental for the success of these efforts:

- Partnerships are the modus operandi of urban regeneration and have proved to be a powerful vehicle for accelerating the process of change;
- The public sector has a key role in providing strong leadership, and needs to ensure that positive synergies arise from different strategies and programs;

- Public investment is a catalyst for change, however, regeneration should provide a ladder of opportunities for private sector involvement and community participation;
- Regenerating people, rather than places, although difficult to achieve, needs to be the primary goal of regeneration initiatives;
- Local communities need to have a strong sense of ownership of the process and the results to ensure sensitivity to local needs;
- Sustainability of results is the key (Tsenkova, 2001a).

Lessons from the British Experience

Urban regeneration has taken a back seat in the overall political agenda for change and action in Canada. Canadian cities experience similar processes of dramatic economic and social transformation, however, little is done to redirect planning and policy efforts to the problems of inner cities. Cities need a long-term approach to economic development and regeneration policy that will systematically improve economically and socially deprived areas. Urban regeneration could become a champion of sustainable cities and/or provide a comprehensive framework for the implementation of sustainable development principles. Based on the British experience, the following actions need to be considered:

- Strengthen the strategic role of municipalities in regeneration activities by empowering them to become efficient facilitators of regeneration efforts;
- Improve the coherence of urban programmes at the national and provincial level, emphasize coordination across and within government departments to achieve better results;
- Improve targeting of resources through integrated programmes of physical, economic and social measures for the benefit of people and places;
- Create more effective coalitions and strategic alliances within localities encouraging long-term, collaborative, sustainable partnerships with the private and non-government sector.

ANNEX

University of Calgary – Faculty of Environmental Design Informed Consent Agreement

Research Project Urban Regeneration in Britain
Principal investigator: Dr. Sasha Tsenkova

Background

This research project will explore urban regeneration in a comparative perspective focusing on best practices and approaches used in four cities: London, Manchester, Leeds and Brighton. The project will provide both theoretical understanding and advanced skills in urban regeneration and planning. It is financially supported by the Faculty of Environmental Design and the Learning Commons at the University of Calgary. The research involves fieldwork in these cities and in-depth interviews with presidents, senior management and/or planning staff of 15 purposefully selected organizations. The information from the interviews will validate the initial findings from the literature review and provide the basis for the completion of an assessment report on urban regeneration, as well as an educational video on the topic. All key informants will be interviewed in their professional capacity.

Participation

This consent form is only part of the process of informed consent. Please feel free to ask any questions about this process and/or indicate if you would like to receive further information not included here. Your participation would include a 20-minute presentation on your involvement in urban regeneration and a brief (15 minute) question-answer period related to the main issues highlighted in the presentation. Finally, we would like to videotape the key messages in your presentation (up to 10 minutes). These 'sound bites' will be incorporated in an educational video on urban regeneration practices in Britain. We would ask you to introduce yourself and to indicate your position in the urban regeneration organization at the start of the recorded presentation.

Your participation is voluntary and you may withdraw from the study at any time, in which case your responses would not be used.

Consent

All responses will be considered public and may be cited in the assessment report on urban regeneration, a Master's Degree Project report and used as a basis for the production of the video. Interview protocols and videotapes will be kept for two years as is required by our Faculty ethics guidelines. After that, the materials will be destroyed.

Your signature on this form indicates that you have understood to your satisfaction the information regarding participation in the research project and agree to participate as a subject. In no way does this waive your legal rights nor release the investigators, sponsors, or involved institutions from their legal and professional responsibilities. You are free to withdraw from the study at any time. Your continued participation should be as informed as your initial consent, so feel free to ask for clarification or new information throughout your participation. If you have further questions concerning matters related to this research, please contact:

Prof. S. Tsenkova 220-2155 tsenkova@ucalgary.ca

If you have any questions or issues concerning this project that are not related to the specifics of the research, you may also contact the Research Services Office at 220-3782 and ask for Mrs. Patricia Evans.

Participant's Signature

Date

Investigator and/or Delegate's Signature

Date

Urban Regeneration: Sample Interview Protocol

Introduction: Purpose of the interview, major objectives of the research project

A. Background information :

Name, organisation, role/responsibility in their institution (ensure they understand any information they provide will be kept confidential and only aggregate findings will be reported, unless they specifically request to be quoted).

B. Questions:

1. *Commitment:* What has been their involvement in regeneration projects/activities? (e.g. design, participation in activities, political leadership, advisory, implementation support).
2. *Expectations:* What was your interest in this project? What did you hope to achieve? (e.g. new skills? new partnerships? new approaches to planning? a basis to make choices about investments?, etc. (Try to get a handle on context and priorities of the respondents)).
3. *Learning:* What activities did you participate in? (strategic planning, demonstration projects, training)? If you gained new understanding or skills, to what extent were you able to apply those in urban regeneration projects? If so how (give examples, if not why not).
4. *Results:* If the organization and/or the local authority developed an urban regeneration plan, or implemented a demonstration project, what was different about the process? What is the product/result (give evidence of results)? What difference did the plan/project make? (e.g. to tourism, physical planning, investment promotion, local community development, etc.) How do you know (please show examples/plans/figures that indicate what is different from before, etc.)
5. *Project Strengths and Weaknesses:* In your own opinion, what were the major strengths and weaknesses of this project?
6. *Obstacles:* In your opinion, what were the main constraints that hindered the achievement of results – such as sustainability of funding, implementation of strategic plans, lack of effective cooperation? (Probe for issues of political commitment, institutional capacity, management issues, etc.)
7. *Sustainability:* What are the long-term benefits to you? To your organization? To the urban regeneration process in your city? Would the partnership with other organisations be sustained in the future with or without government funding?
8. *Comments and Suggestions:* Are there other comments that you wish to make on any other aspect of the project?

C. Video recording: this will be a 15-minute session. Feel free to interrupt the session at any time.

Please state your name and position within the organization.

Based on your involvement in urban regeneration projects, please summarize the main results achieved and lessons learned.

D. Thank you very much for your time. We will be producing a report, and copies of the executive summary will be made available to the people interviewed.

Date, Location

Professionals Interviewed – April 22-May 6, 2000.

NAME	POSITION
London	
David Black	Planning Project Officer, Tower Hamlets Local Authority, London
Jo Edwards	Major Project Officer, Regeneration and Partnership Division, Royal Albert Dock, London
Graham Halliday	English Partnerships, Royal Docks Project Office, London
Jackie Sadek	Director, Urban Strategy, 12 Voughan Avenue, London
Lee A. Shostak	Director, EDAW, 33 Great Percy Street, London
Eric Sorenson	Director of the London Development Agency, London, England.
Leeds	
Nigel Armstrong	Regional Director, The Housing Corporation, Leeds
Anne Eatough	Director, West Yorkshire Regeneration Team, 2 Victoria Place, Leeds
Huw Jones	Principal Strategy and Information Officer, Department of Housing Services, Thoresby House, Leeds
Manchester	
Richard Duddell	Senior Planner, City Centre Group, Planning Division, Manchester
Barbara McLaughlin	Director, Hulme Regeneration Project, Manchester
Keith Reed	Director of Environment and Development, Environment & Development, Manchester
Dr. Gwyndaf Williams	Reader in Urban Planning and Development, Department of Planning and Landscape, Oxford Road, Manchester
Brighton	
Linda Beacon	Safe Communities, Brighton
Hillary Powlson	Project Officer, New Deal For Communities Team, Grand Avenue, Hove
Martin Randall	Principal Planner, Environmental Services, Norton Road, Hove
Jerry le Seuer	Director , New Deal For Communities Project, Grand Avenue, Hove

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