



Improving the quality of life in Large Urban Distressed Areas

LUDA E-compendium: Handbook E2

Understanding Large Urban Distressed Areas



LUDA is a research project of Key Action 4 City of Tomorrow & Cultural Heritage from the programme Energy, Environment and Sustainable Development within the Fifth Framework Programme of the European Union. <http://www.luda-project.net>



Introduction

This handbook introduces the phenomenon of Large Urban Distressed Areas (LUDAs). Using theoretical analysis as well as real-life experiences, the handbook tries to answer the following questions:

- What is a LUDA?
- How and why do LUDAs emerge?
- Where are LUDAs located and how are they distributed across Europe?
- What are the key problems and potentials of LUDAs?

An analysis of regeneration approaches across Europe shows that there are both success factors and bottlenecks which affect the process of tackling urban distress. Furthermore the current context of improving quality of life in large urban distressed areas is highlighted. On this basis key elements of the LUDA approach to solve the problems of large urban distressed areas are outlined: For example:

- Creating a holistic vision towards the improvement of quality of life
- Building partnerships to regenerate LUDA
- Developing a common proactive vision of good quality of life.

The purpose of this handbook is to help you understand what LUDAs are, why they exist, where they are found and how to recognise them. The handbook also sets out the key elements of an approach being developed for cities to improve quality of life in LUDAs.

The e-compendium is designed to be used online. The text includes interactive links which allow you to move around the document, to link to other handbooks, or to open websites. Links are shown as **coloured text**. You can also find the links by looking for icons in the page margins, as shown here.



If you prefer to read this handbook like a normal book, then you can print it out. Please note that all of the handbooks are designed for double-sided printing.

Acknowledgements

The e-compendium has been compiled by the School of the Built Environment (SBE), Napier University, Edinburgh, as part of the LUDA project coordinated by the Institute of Ecological and Regional Development (IOER), Dresden. This handbook has been compiled by IOER with assistance from SBE and is based on material by the Technical University of Dresden: Faculty of Regional Development, IOER and SBE.

Photographs were supplied by IOER. The cover photograph shows examples of LUDAs in Craigmillar (Edinburgh); Weißeritz (Dresden); Craigmillar (Edinburgh); Anzin-Beuvrages (Valenciennes)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

| | Page |
|--|-----------|
| 1. The challenge of large urban distressed areas | 5 |
| 2. What is a large urban distressed area? | 6 |
| 2.1 Understanding urban distress | 8 |
| 2.2 What causes LUDAs? | 10 |
| 2.3 Where can LUDAs be found? | 17 |
| 3. How to recognise a LUDA | 20 |
| 3.1 What problems do LUDAs have? | 20 |
| 3.2 What potential do LUDAs have? | 23 |
| 3.3. How do LUDAs differ in their characteristics? | 25 |
| 3.4 Setting LUDA boundaries | 26 |
| 4. What has been done to tackle urban distress in the past? | 28 |
| 4.1 Sectoral urban programmes | 28 |
| 4.2 Integrative urban programmes | 31 |
| 4.3 What lessons can be learnt from programmes tackling urban distress? | 39 |
| 5. The current context for improving quality of life in LUDAs | 40 |
| 5.1 Sustainable development | 40 |
| 5.2 Sustainable urban development | 41 |
| 5.3 Urban regeneration | 43 |
| 5.4 The new agenda for sustainable urban regeneration | 43 |
| 5.5 URBAN II as an approach to sustainable urban regeneration | 44 |
| 6. How can the LUDA approach contribute to improving quality of life in large urban distressed areas? | 47 |
| 6.1 Holistic vision of improving the quality of life: the Diamond of Quality of Life | 48 |
| 6.2 Building partnerships to regenerate LUDAs | 52 |
| 6.3 Developing a common vision of quality of life | 53 |
| 7. Conclusion: contribution of the LUDA approach to improv- | 54 |
| 8. Further links & information | 56 |

1. The challenge of large urban distressed areas (LUDAs)

European countries experience urban problems such as poverty, social exclusion as well as economic decline that have emerged in well-defined and recognised sectors of the cities. Poverty is the single most widely used indicator of urban distress, but there is a general agreement that the lack of income alone is insufficient to capture the sense of social and physical collapse that define those communities. They suffer from an interlocking mix of social, economic, urban structural and environmental problems, exacerbated by a low community and institutional capacity that discourages investment and encourages exclusion. Problems of distressed areas are multiple, complex and interrelated (Conway & Konvitz, 2000; OECD, 1998).

The typical portrait of urban distress, where central cities decline and suburbs continually prosper, become nowadays too simple as an explanation. Earlier these troubles were restricted to small neighbourhoods located in the oldest part of the cities with the lowest housing quality. Since the 1980s distressed areas have also emerged in newer social housing estates outside the centre of the cities. In some European countries urban decline occurs in peripheral locations, generally associated with large multi-family social housing units (Carley 1990; Randolph & Judd, 1999). These sectors have been also designed to re-house low income families displaced by housing redevelopment projects. As a result, many of these areas are poorly served by public transportation and lacking amenities such as day care centres, schools or leisure facilities (Carter & Polevychok, 2003). This city pattern is typical for France, Belgium, and Portugal. Similar examples can be found in Germany and the Netherlands (Kamal-Chaoui, 2001).

Countries in Central and Eastern Europe have undergone striking economic and social changes in the past ten years. Simultaneously, city administrations are adjusting to fiscal and political decentralisation, while many attempts have been done to improve their local economies through privatisation initiatives. Currently complex circumstances such as unemployment, environmental hazards, run-down housing and poor facilities affect whole urban regions rather than being localised in particular zones of the city (OECD 1998). Therefore urban distress is a relatively new phenomenon in Eastern European countries and it is not much recognised in the literature yet (Müller et al, 2004).

According to the OECD (1998), the issue of distressed urban areas is one of the most intractable in developed countries, and it has become more aggravated in the 1990s. Thus, no country is immune to the emergence or spread of distressed urban areas; and none can be confident that such problems can be contained.

In fact, many European governments have launched strategies and programmes with area based initiatives to struggle urban deprivation. But the literature shows many disagreements on the effects of these programmes. One of the main issues is that there have been discrepancies between the purpose of the urban strategies and the problems they try to solve: physical renovation, housing services, marketing to counteract bad press and bad reputation, efforts against

crime, support for socially weak groups, migrants' integration, education, job training, etc. (Skifter Andersen, 2001). Regarding OECD (1998) traditional policies have not succeeded in halting the downward spiral that affects these areas because they were unable to address the complex and area-based nature of the problem at the local level.

Although substantial evidence exists of the coincidence of certain problems of urban distress in European cities, there has been little done to show how these problems interact (Carter & Polevychok, 2003). Therefore the problems facing declining communities raise many open questions that need to be addressed:

- Is urban decline the result of a combination of factors (e.g. the loss of traditional industries and the changing nature of employment)?
- How do the characteristics of distressed areas influence the choice of people to refuse to live or invest in them?
- What criteria should be used for identifying these areas?
- Is it practical and effective for city planners to designate distressed impact areas?

Improving the quality of life in distressed areas has become a challenge of growing significance for political decision-making and planning practice in Europe. Nowadays the challenge is to face urban decline through a holistic vision that highlights the dialectic relation between physical decline and social distress. However this vision must have a strong connection with a clear urban comprehensive strategy at the different administrative levels implicated. The challenge of sustainable rehabilitation of large urban distressed areas is outlined in the following texts of the handbook as well as the key elements of the LUDA approach to tackle this challenge.

2. What is a large urban distressed area (LUDA)?

While the main stream European research on deprived areas (especially neighbourhoods), perceives them as 'pockets of poverty', i.e. spatial concentration of poor and excluded people (Skifter Andersen 2001), the LUDA perspective on urban distress follows a different approach.

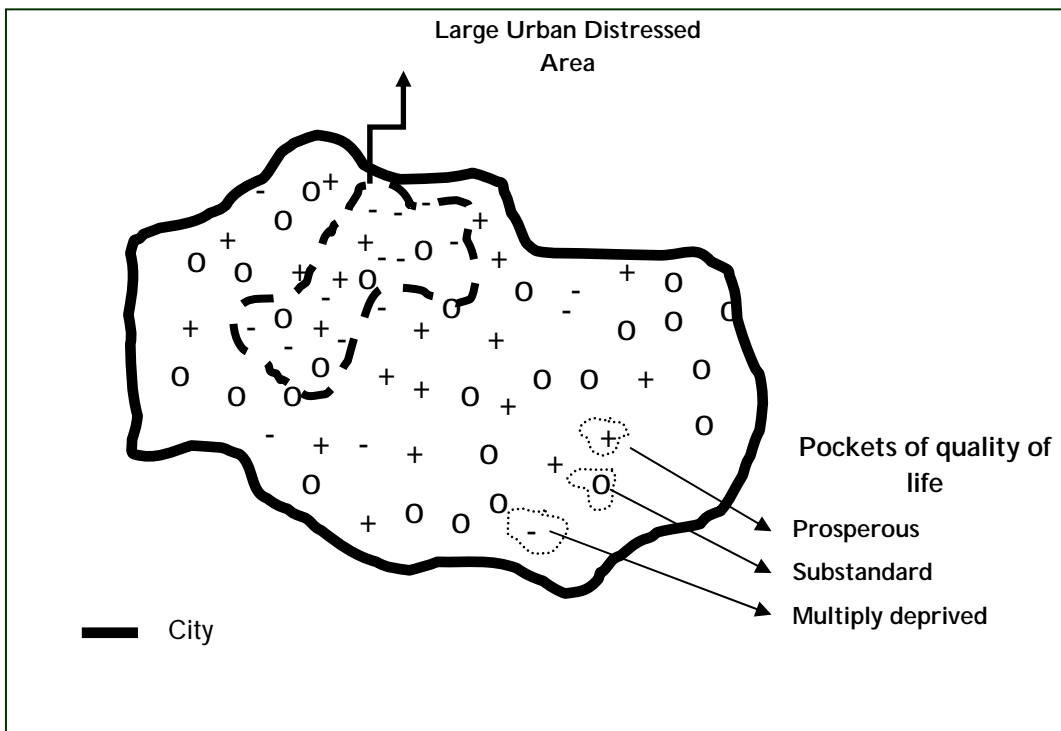
Box 1: Definition of large urban distressed areas (LUDAs)

Large urban distressed areas (LUDAs) are understood as parts of cities with complex problems regarding quality of life, e.g. economic, social, environmental conditions, urban structure and institutional capacity. They are usually not homogeneous but comprise both, sub-standard areas with multiple deprivations and more prosperous and rather intact areas at the same time which may be functionally interlinked with each other.

The LUDA perspective does not understand distressed areas as spatially concentrated 'pockets' of physical and social decline. LUDAs can be understood as large part of cities, larger than a single neighbourhood, which are characterised by 'pockets' with problems and 'pockets' with

potentials at the same time. They face a complex struggle regarding central aspects of quality of life such as socio-cultural conditions, economic conditions, urban structure, environmental conditions as well as community and institutional capacity. Distressed 'pockets' are embedded in a dynamic and heterogeneous spatial structure showing problems as well as potentials (see figure 1). This corresponds to the reality within most European cities as urban distress is not always expressed in a large 'spatial homogeneous continuum' (see box 2).

Figure 1: Large urban distressed areas within the city context (theoretical model)



Source: TUD, 2005

Box 2: Heterogeneity and internal differentiation of the LUDA Weißeritz

In Dresden Weißeritz, the internal differentiation focuses on pockets of problems and potentials. Some residential areas in Weißeritz are characterised by non-renovated housing, in state of despair e.g. Friedrichstadt. The pockets of problems also identify industrial areas, characterised by vacant lands, derelict sites, under used commercial facilities, as distressed areas. Distress also concerns the infrastructures which create physical barriers within the area, as well as the isolated residential buildings having the form of residential islands. The urban renewal areas of Löbtau and Plauen are seen as potential areas for attracting population in the LUDA. Potentials, besides the renovated residential areas, are represented by the inner city part of the LUDA and by the landscape recreation area. The dominant element of the LUDA, the Weißeritz river, is perceived both as a potential and as a problem. The river is the main asset for the development of a green corridor linking the different parts of the LUDA, but it is also an element subjected to flooding.

The emergence of LUDAs is not only explained as a result of patterns of segregation and deprivation. The residential distribution is the product of both social differentiation and the fact that cities are a mosaic of places with different physical qualities and amenities (housing stock, architecture, accessibility, etc). This social and physical structure is continuously changed by eco-

conomic investments and disinvestments as a consequence that people and services are redistributed in space and their explanation goes further than segregation and deprivation.

Within this frame, improving quality of life in LUDAs is a complex task. On the one hand, goals of people living in such areas are based on individual expectations and perceptions. On the other, objectives of programmes addressing this issue are dependent on political priorities and preferences of society (LUDA Team 2005).

Therefore, the main strength of the LUDA approach is to consider the ability of these small pockets with significant social, economic, physical, environmental and institutional needs on one hand and significant potentials on the other, to regroup them and assemble resources to fight urban decline and to initiate an effective process of urban revitalisation. This is particularly important to be successful in halting the downward spiral of decline because the analysis concentrates not only on physical and social distress but also on the social, economic, environmental and institutional fabric and interrelation of the different LUDA pockets (for the key elements of the LUDA approach see also [section 6](#)).



2.1. Why is it necessary to understand the nature of urban distress?

Understanding the dynamics of urban decline is not only relevant for planners and policy makers, but also for residents, property owners and investors. Understanding the nature of urban distress as well as reasons for the emergence of LUDA can be seen as the basic pre-condition to improve quality of life within these areas.



Since 1992, the [Joseph Rowntree Foundation](#) (JRF) in the UK has been trying to discover what works in the regeneration of deprived neighbourhoods. The results show that each area is different, within its own distinct problems and opportunities.

Spatial forms, physical locations and internal characteristics of distressed areas vary from country to country, from city to city and even within them. Despite a great range of varieties, each distressed area possesses a number of attributes (table 1). For instance, a distressed area in the periphery or in the city centre may be well established or relatively new. It might be large or small in terms of space or inhabitants. It can be distinguished for its socio-cultural problems (unemployment), environmental stress (noise, pollution), urban structural problems (isolation), or external image (bad perception). Each of these characteristics will endow the area with certain features that reinforce its strengths and its weaknesses, and may increase or decrease the potential to benefit from particular forms of upgrading.

The number of characteristics, used in combination, serves to identify issues related to social and physical vulnerability and economic assets with the potential to improve quality of life. Ad-

ministrative structures indicate the level of and incentives for community organisation and representation.

Table 1: Attributes of distressed urban areas

| Attribute | Category |
|-------------------------|--|
| Age | Historic city centre Consolidated Recent |
| Location | Central Scattered (Island) Peripheral |
| Size and Population | City Large (addition of distress neighbourhoods or districts) Medium (neighbourhoods) Small (districts) |
| Administrative Location | Municipality Part of a municipality Different municipalities |

Source: Adapted from [UN-Habitat 2003](#)

web link



Due to the heterogeneity of urban distress, local initiatives must be allowed to find their own ways of responding to local needs and priorities. It is crucial to understand how the regeneration potential of the area is affected by its history, the problems it faces, the views of the inhabitants and the local assets and wider resources which are available to tackle urban regeneration (see box 3).

Box 3: Attributes of the Brozzi-Peretola LUDA (Florence)

The Brozzi-Peretola LUDA is located at the edge of the city of Florence. It is an example of peripheral distress (OECD, 1998), characterised by the location of unwanted uses at the outskirts of cities (infrastructures, illegal settlements and/or social housing). The area is large in term of both its population and area, with 19,000 inhabitants in an area of 6.2 km². The dominant land use is residential, with historical residential cores and more recent social housing areas. The LUDA area falls under the jurisdiction of the *Quartiere 5*, one of the 5 districts in Florence functioning with their own council, elected president, and administration (consultative power). The city of Florence, capital of the Tuscany Region, is organised according to the following: a mayor, a city council, with 1 president and 2 vice-presidents, and 46 members (elected officials). The city has also a city government, represented by *assessore* or councillors, each with specific responsibilities and competences e.g. urban planning, public health, environment, etc.

2.2 What causes LUDAs?

Despite its importance, the emergence of urban distress has rarely been the subject of systematic research and monitoring (LUDA Team, 2005). However, as already mentioned above, improvement of quality of life in deprived areas is not possible without fully understanding their nature.

Theories on the evolution of urban distress can help us to better identify key drivers that need to be changed to turn around the process of urban decline. The theoretical discussion on the emergence of urban distress differentiates factors from outside (associated with 'structural factors') and inside (nature of the state) (see table 2).

Table 2: Reasons of emergence in distressed urban areas

| Outside | Inside |
|---|---|
| <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Global economic restructuring • Deficient welfare policies • Socio-cultural transformation • Political and ideological transformation • Sectoral governmental policies • Planning approaches and legacies • Patterns of racial discrimination | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Population change in situ • Changes of demographic and social composition • Levels of social capital • Local economic development (closure of a large local employer) • Effectiveness of services |

Source: adapted from OECD (1998), Hall (1997), Cameron & Davoudi (1998)

2.2.1 How do outside factors contribute to the emergence of LUDAs?

In relation to the outside factors a number of causes of emergence have been suggested to explain urban distress although the evidence remains inconclusive (OECD, 1998). Downs (1981) argues that the fate of any neighbourhood is determined not by neighbourhood councils or individuals actors but by economic, political and social forces outside its boundaries. Byrum (1992) supports that government policy for the development of suburbs cause the decline of inner cities areas. In the following the main structural factors are shortly described as well as exemplified in box 4 (facing).

Global economic restructuring

Numerous specialists have discussed the spatial consequences of globalisation and changes in the labour market and their connection with distressed areas (Sassen, 1994; Castells, 1997 &, 2004). Globalisation is assumed to be a main source of change in employment structure. Countries' low labour cost competition has led to the relocation of some firms to cities that promise

Box 4: Outside factors for the emergence of the Ameixoeira-Galinheiras LUDA (Lisbon)

Two main outside factors for the emergence of the Ameixoeira-Galinheiras LUDA have been identified:

- Rural-to-urban migration, with people from the rural areas migrating to Lisbon in the 1960s. Migration resulted in new population settling in some parts of the city including Ameixoeira and Galinheiras. Other reasons, such as urban development (construction of the airport and other major infrastructures) and political changes (the 1974 revolution), led people to relocate and to come to this peripheral part of the city.
- The 1993 national programme of slum clearance and re-housing PER (*Programa Especial de Realojamento*) implemented in Lisbon. This programme resulted in the relocation of around 3,300 inhabitants, bringing more problems into the area e.g. problem of safety, social cohesion.

production cost savings. At the same time technological advances have resulted in the skills of the less qualified labour force becoming obsolete due to their disadvantages on the labour market (Renner & Walthe, 2000). Consequently old industrial European areas (especially in post-socialist countries as illustrated in box 5) with a dominance of large firms, economic decline and closure companies have a high risk of urban distress. Often these suffer from high unemployment rates, out-migration, an ageing population, inadequate public budgets, poor quality natural and built environments, inadequate infrastructure and problems of image and identity (Butzin 1993) as well as from a process of invalidation of land values and a decline of investment rates.

Box 5: Economic transformation in post-socialist countries

In post-socialist countries the former economic base has been lost completely. For example, political change and the transformation of the economy is still contributing to a low level of economic dynamism in the eastern part of Germany (Hannemann, 2000). In Poland, as in other former socialist countries, the closure of many unproductive factories has led to high unemployment in some cities (e.g. Lodz).

Socio-cultural transformation

Changes of value systems, societies' organisation, ways of living and political doctrines might contribute to the emergence of distressed areas. Crucial transformations with profound effects on cities such as demographic and migratory trends – gender struggles, fertility behaviour, international migration, changes in the structure of employment – alter the relation between population and cities. Demographic patterns, for instance, vary according to different countries backgrounds (see box 6).

Box 6: Socio-cultural transformation in European countries

While north-western European countries experience social problems such as the devaluation and stigmatisation of social housing (Moulaert, 1994), within central and eastern European countries (CEEC) social polarisation is still at a lower level. Although social polarisation has been present in the CEEC, it however still lacks political acknowledgement (Skalski, 2000). In Germany some distressed cities suffer from a declining and ageing population, while in Portugal migration from rural to urban areas is still a factor connected to poverty and urban distress (LUDA Team, 2005).

Planning approaches and legacies

Distressed areas evolve over time and in some cases are the results of previous failures of public intervention. Physical problems are seen as direct product of planning and construction policies applied during the 1950s and 1960s. Hall (1997) mentions that commonly problems include: structural faults and poor housing stock, especially poor insulation and heating; alienating physical environment; lack of variety in housing types and sizes; physical isolation, including external physical barriers such as major roads and railway lines and the distance between the social housing area and the rest of the city. Also area based regeneration policies (gentrification) might result in the displacement of poor and marginalised groups into peripheral states. Planning legacies resulting from historical settlement patterns and post-war planning approaches vary from country to country (see box 7).

Box 7: Planning legacies in European countries

In north-western Europe problems often arise in the large single-use residential areas constructed in the post-war years. In central and eastern European countries like Slovakia, the period following World War II was characterised by rapid industrialisation and urbanisation. These planning legacies and approaches also differ according to the institutional and organisational structures of the countries. These structures are often characterised by the fragmentation of decision-making authorities; weak coordination and communication between institutions/agencies involved in the planning process; a lack of resources (financial and human) at different levels of government; and a need for greater commitment of political leadership and cooperation with non institutional partners.

Environmental risks and burdens

Exposure and vulnerability to environmental hazards, sources of pollution and poor environmental quality contribute to the multiple deprivations experienced in LUDA. Vulnerability to environmental hazards and disasters such as floods is a consequence of social, economic and political inequalities. As a result differential access exists to resources that can reduce hazards exposure and vulnerability (Parker, 2000). Locally unwanted land uses (LULU) such as hazardous waste facilities and uses with negative ecological effects are more often found in areas with poor and minority communities (Davy, 1996).

This relationship between environmental quality and societal status of residential areas is a clear one. Socio-spatial differentiation is therefore not only a consequence of social, infrastructural or constructional differences but also of the perceived environmental quality of an area. In areas affected by noise pollution, lack of green space and/or other environmental deficits, the socio-economic status of the inhabitants is lower. Low environmental quality is one of the main push-factors provoking inhabitants to move out of dense inner-city urban areas (Steinführer, 2004).



Hazardous site in Brozzi-Peretola LUDA (Florence); Photo: IOER

However it is difficult to identify a clear connection between these outside factors and distressed areas. Signs of distress of certain places are not just explained by globalisation or socio-cultural transformation. Plenty of evidence shows that urban deprivation and exclusion even continue where the national economy grows and the social inequality decreases like in Denmark and Finland (Skifter Andersen, 2001).

2.2.2 How do inside factors contribute to the emergence of LUDAs?

There are two important models of neighbourhoods change that explain the emergence of distress: The *invasion-succession model* (see box 8) developed by the Chicago School and the *life-cycle model* (see box 9) proposed by Hoover & Vernon (1959).

Box 8: Invasion-succession model

The Chicago researchers recognised change of the composition of local population as a major mechanism by which urban areas change. Concepts like 'invasion' and 'succession' taken from ecology were used to describe the neighbourhood evolution (Park, Burgess & McKenzie 1925; Hawley 1950). From this perspective the 'invasion' of an urban area by racially or socially different individuals is met with resistance. If the integration between the old and new population is not reached, one of the two groups will withdraw. In this approach urban distress is strongly connected with social segregation. But still it is not always clear why some neighbourhoods have undergone a process of decline and others have not.

Box 9: Life cycle theory

Based on the invasion-succession model emerged the life cycle theory (Hoover & Vernon, 1959) which describes neighbourhood change as a life cycle (table 3). As the neighbourhood passes from one stage to the other many things change: the economic status; the racial and age composition of the population; the intensity of land use; population density and the quality and condition of housing. 'Some neighbourhoods would not go through the whole process; some would continue to loop through the same two or three stages and some would remain at one stage indefinitely' (Schwirian, 1983, p.92). These facts show that there is an incomplete understanding of why deprived urban areas appear.

Table 3: Life cycle theory: Stages of neighbourhood change

| Stage | Characteristics |
|----------------------|--|
| Healthy | Homogeneous housing and moderate to upper income; insurance and conventional financing available. |
| Incipient Decline | Ageing housing; decline in income and educational level; influx of middle income minorities and fear of racial transition. |
| Clearly Declining | Increasing vacancies, predominantly low income and minority tenants or elderly ethnics; high unemployment rate; fear of crime; no insurance or institutional financing available; declining public services and absentee-owned properties. |
| Accelerating Decline | Higher densities; visible urban deterioration; a decrease in high and medium income in-movers; more minority children in schools; mostly rental housing; problems in securing insurance and financing. |
| Abandoned | Severe dilapidation, poverty, and squatters, high rate of social pathologies; negative cash flow from buildings; single-family residential development of existing structures; spread of ethnic, elderly and minority districts. |

Source: Adapted from Metzger, 2000

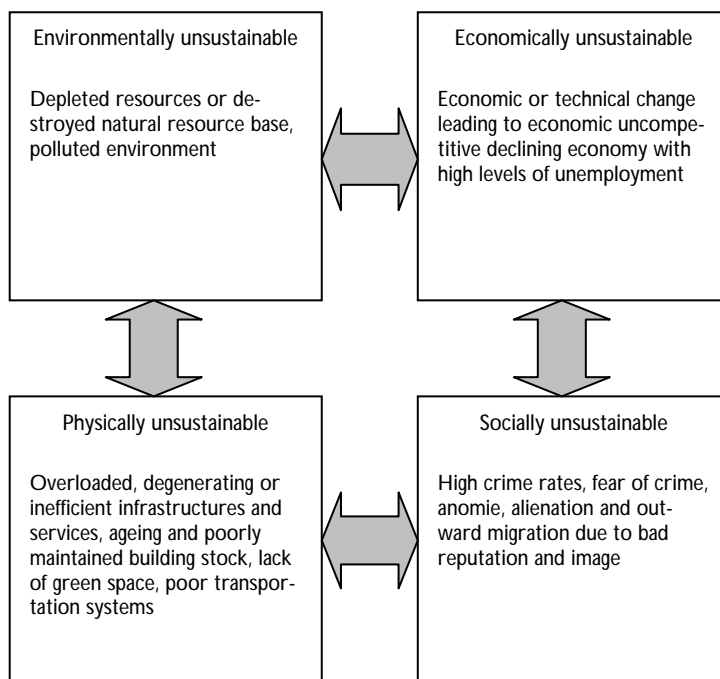
Later debates on urban rehabilitation and gentrification required a further refinement to the life cycle model, adding the possibility of either upgrading (Clay, 1979; Gale, 1979) and/or gentrification (Smith, 1986). These urban processes or interventions have stimulated debates over whether gentrification is driven by the movement of capital back to the inner city or by the movement of people, and debates over whether decline in poor neighbourhoods is precipitated by the development of poverty's culture, by economic restructuring, by lack of human capital or by inadequate services (Lupton & Power, 2004).

Metzger (2000) argues that the life-cycle paradigm is not a good explanatory theory and produces unwise and unjust policies. Many people who developed and acted on life-cycle theories consciously understood that the abandonment of many urban areas would ensue. Thus, financial institutions avoided those neighbourhoods defined as 'declining' because they constitute risky investments. Lack of capital led to a self-fulfilling spiral of decline in credit-starved places.

2.2.3 How do outside and inside factors interrelate as driving forces of neighbourhood decline?

The current discussion on urban distress is focusing on the driving forces that lead to neighbourhood decline. Vicious circle, cycle of labelling and exclusion, cumulative decline, spiral of decline, downward spiral, downward cycles are some of the statements used in the literature to refer to how different factors - inside and outside the distressed urban areas – reinforce each other in a negative direction creating increased deprivation, stigmatization and decay (Skifter Anderson, 2001; Roggenthin, 2001) (see figure 2).

Figure 2: Vicious cycle of decline



Source: adapted from Elkin & Cooper, 1993

Outside factors are related with how internal changes in the area affect the relation with the rest of the city. They also incorporate national or city government decisions such as changes in land use regulations or construction policies. The *inside factors* concern the problems within the area, where socio-economic and urban structure changes reinforce each other (see for instance box 10).

For Hall (1997) the starting point of the cycle of decline is the low demand for housing within the area which is often related to physical conditions and to the lack of tenure choice. Other researches show that a high vacancy rate provokes damage to building and loss of social cohesion. Economic problems commonly associated with distressed areas include the lack of a local

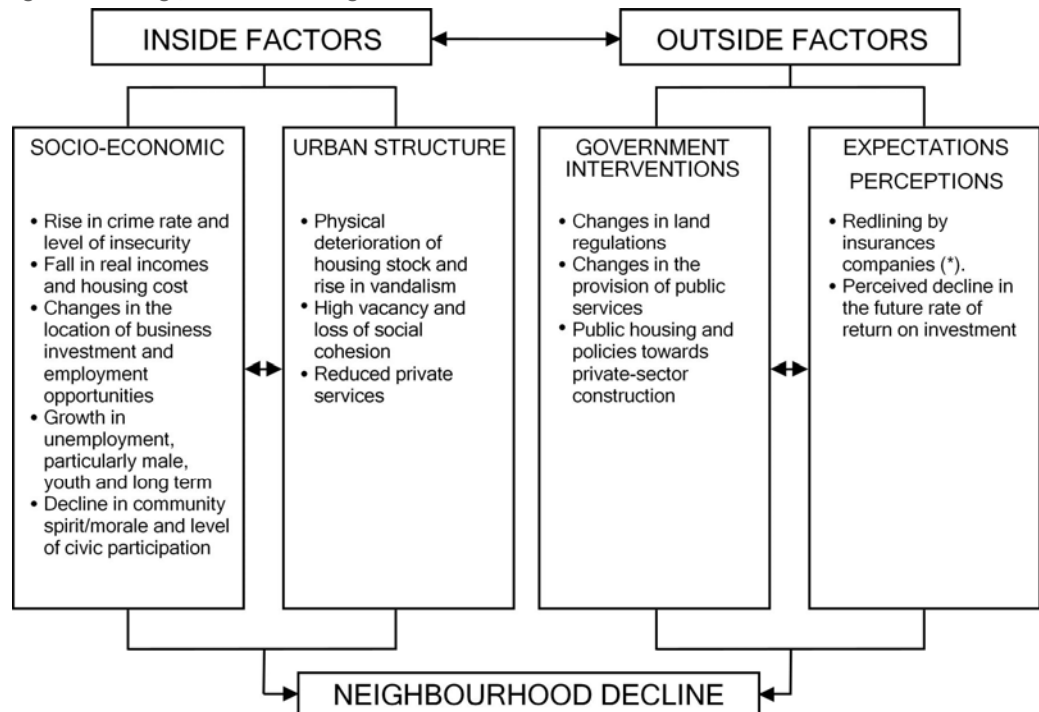
economic base and high levels of unemployment. Particularly long-term unemployment is associated with poverty and low demand for goods and services. Morrison (1999) holds that inside factors such as anti-social behaviour help to create a poor reputation and discourages investment and encourages exclusion.

Taylor (1998) is concerned about the connection between driving forces from inside and outside. He argues that an association exists between changes in the image of the area and modifications in the composition of inhabitants; increasing bad reputation leads middle-class people to move out, and poorer families to move in. Van Kempen & Özüken (1998) concluded that when residents are replaced by others with lower incomes, the demand for many services will decrease and perhaps change. As a result the supply service of facilities like shops and banks might disappear.

Box 10: Driving forces behind neighbourhood decline after OECD (1998)

An OECD study (1998) places attention to outside economic driven forces as well to social changes. Results showed a two-stage process of neighbourhood change: The first phase – from stability to transition – is characterised by an increase of unemployment due, for instance, to the decline of the dominant local industry, and a reduction in real incomes, caused by unemployment but also by initial out migration of wealthier residents. In some cases the area overcomes the economic recession, but in others a state of “structural crisis” is precipitated. In this stage, the mechanism of polarisation is more deeply-rooted and the urban distress takes on a third dimension: besides economic and spatial, the social dimension.

Figure 3: Driving forces behind neighbourhood decline



Adapted from OECD, 1998

(*) The refusal of a savings institution or other business to extend credit to, lend to, insure, or otherwise assume some financial risk involving property or a business located in a distressed area

2.2.4 What else do we need to know about the emergence of LUDAs?

Given the significance of urban decline in shaping a variety of social outcomes, many questions about the forces behind urban distress are still open:

- How has the process of decline started?
- Is there a point of no return, a critical value where an urban area begins a spiral of inevitable decline in the quality of life it offers?
- Are there indicators of quality of life that allow to measure or predict future similar situations?
- In which spatial level can distress be defined as 'transitional' or 'structural'?

Understanding urban decline is still an open challenge in urban planning and management. When an urban area begins to decline, it reaches a crucial point. Unless action is taken at this stage the process accelerates and it becomes difficult and expensive to turn things around (Blackman 2002).

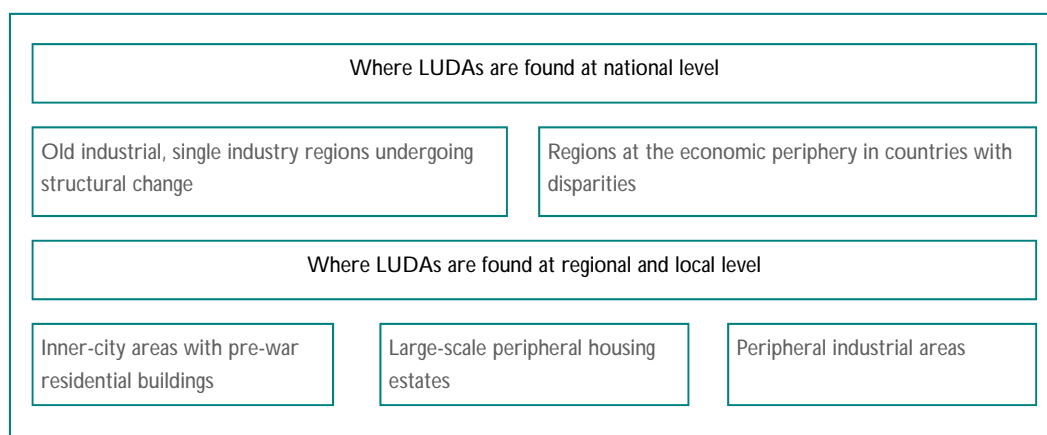
2.3. Where can LUDAs be found?

In general, the emergence of urban distressed areas is common to all European societies. This means that most European countries have LUDA. The existence and distribution of LUDA across Europe is for instance indicated by the initiatives, programmes and research projects focused on urban distress (Lintz & Schmude, 2001; Müller et al. 2004). Two key examples are: the [URBAN II](#) initiative (1994-2006) and the [FOCUS research project](#) (The future of industrialised cities and regions undergoing structural changes) carried out between 1999 and 2001.

web link



Figure 4: Distribution of LUDA (IOER 2005)



2.3.1 Distribution at the national level

At the national level LUDAs are mainly situated in old industrial and single-industry areas which have been hit by processes of economic structural change. Although efforts for redevelopment are as old as the problems, the success of restructuring measures is only a moderate one. Still, unemployment and social welfare dependency is concentrated in these areas. They also lack adequate investments in fields of new industries and service sector (for examples see box 11).

Box 11: Examples of the location of LUDAs in old industrial areas

All regions in the Czech Republic and Slovakia for example have been affected by the economic restructuring processes post 1989/90. However, LUDAs in these countries tend to be connected to the process of extensive industrialisation and urbanisation. Following the political changes, there has been significant decline in engineering, the heavy chemical industry, iron production, mining and construction. This decline has left a legacy of distress as a consequence of technological changes, reduced output, production changes and loss of businesses. The regions most affected by this are: north and northwest Bohemia (around Plzeň, Most and Teplice, Northern Moravia); north-eastern Slovakia; the central region of the River Váh and south-eastern Slovakia. Other examples for urban distressed areas in old-industrial areas are the Midlands in the UK, the Ruhr and the Saar area in Germany as well as the Nord-Pas-de-Calais in France.

Besides their location in areas of industrial decline, LUDAs are also concentrated in economically disadvantaged regions. This is applicable in countries with intense disparities between certain regions or in strongly centralised countries with disparities between urban and rural areas. These disadvantaged regions are either largely dependent on agriculture or home to older industries without headquarters or R&D facilities (for examples see box 12).

Box 12: Examples of the location of LUDAs in disadvantaged areas

In England research has highlighted small pockets of deprivation across the country, with the highest concentration of deprivation in: London (18 % of the most deprived wards) and three regions in the north and the midlands: the North East (19%), the North West (25.7%), and Yorkshire & Humberside (9%). In the UK in general, and in England in particular, a north-south divide is evident with economic prosperity and competitiveness in the south and more poverty in the north. This regional inequality is evident in income rates, which are higher in the south compared to the north, with only London and the South East exceeding the average income per head in the UK (Urban Task Force, 1999). Similar patterns of disparity can be seen in Italy, where a strong polarisation exists between the more developed north and the less developed south. Poland on the other hand has a more industrial western part and the less economically developed eastern part (Okraska, 2000; Węclawowicz, 2001). In Germany, two main disparities coexist and overlay each other: the first between the east and the west due to the separation of Germany after World War II; and the second between the economically strong south and the north where the economy is less dynamic (Klagge, 2001).

2.3.2 Distribution at the regional and local level

At a regional level, potential LUDAs are often located at the centre of urban agglomerations. Across Europe, it is possible to observe the concentration of poor and disadvantaged groups in city centres, as more affluent residents move to outlying neighbourhoods or municipalities. In some cases, entire regions characterised by old industries and one-industry companies, experience deprivation.

At the city or local level, LUDAs are found in two main locations: inner city areas close to the commercial centre, and at the edges of the city around large post-war housing estates. Furthermore LUDAs can be found in peripheral industrial areas (for an example see box 13).

Inner city LUDAs often include older building stock, which may have some historical value, particularly in southern European cities (Froessler, 1994). In central and eastern European countries, it is more likely that these areas will include prefabricated housing blocks or the pre-war residential buildings in the city centres. In all cases, these areas are traditionally working class neighbourhoods where the outward-migration of wealthier families has exacerbated social problems. Low land prices and rental costs have attracted large proportions of immigrants, ethnic minorities and the elderly. Peripheral LUDAs, based around large housing estates or industrial areas, have developed in a slightly different way. In Western Europe in particular, these areas have always included large proportions of vulnerable residents (e.g. those with few skills; the elderly; immigrants and minority ethnic groups). Although such areas in Eastern Europe were socially mixed, proportions of vulnerable residents are increasing. In both instances, these areas suffer from a lack of socio-cultural and commercial infrastructure.

Box 13: Distribution of LUDAs at the regional and local level in France

In France two different processes have influenced the regional distribution of LUDAs. First, the decline of 1960s public housing districts located at the city edge. Such districts tend to suffer from poor quality buildings and obsolescence. Second, the decline of traditional heavy industry, for example: mining (Nord), the steel industry (Lorraine & Nord Pas de Calais), and mechanical industry. When these two processes combine, the most acute urban distress is experienced, as in Seine St Denis, North Marseille and Lyon Venissieux. The regional distribution of these distressed areas is as follows: Paris region (25%), Nord Pas de Calais (12%), Provence Côte d'azur (10%) and Rhône Alpes (10%) (Chaline 2003). At the local scale three different types of distressed urban area can be seen: in city centres, in public housing districts at the urban periphery, and in peripheral industrial areas. These are addressed by different rehabilitation strategies. In city centre LUDAs, the primary focus has been on the rehabilitation of existing buildings (e.g. Chambéry and Grenoble), regeneration and new construction (e.g. Paris in the 1970s & 1990s), and the operation of a dynamic urban market in housing and offices. The rehabilitation of city centres can be time-consuming, as in Gerland, where work has been underway for 20 years. The rehabilitation of public housing districts, mainly located on the urban periphery, is dealt with via the *politique de la ville* (urban policy). The peripheral industrial areas, which generally include a residential element, are subject to the second *politique de la ville* [see also [section 4.2](#)].



tries, problems exist concerning the integration of large immigrant or ethnic minority groups, often concentrated in LUDAs. People living within LUDAs encounter multiple disadvantages due to educational under-achievement, poor schooling and lack of training opportunities. As a result, residents of LUDAs cannot access the opportunities available to residents of other urban areas. These problems impact upon social tensions, delinquency and crime. Finally, community involvement in LUDAs tends to be low.

Economic problems

LUDAs often suffer from economic marginalisation, meaning that economic activities in the area are only important locally and are not integrated into the wider city or regional economy. Where they exist, large companies located in LUDAs tend to belong to declining economic sectors, and can be described as old industrial. This leads to a high dependence on outside investment. However, those investments are difficult to source given that LUDAs are not attractive to private investors, developers and banks. The situation is further complicated should public sector bodies disregard the specific infrastructural requirements of the area. Investment can also be discouraged by institutional burdens such as uncertainty over, or fragmentation of, land ownership. All of these factors contribute to declining land values, particularly in the former socialist countries. The lack of investment into LUDAs reduces labour and job opportunities for local residents, and maintains the cycle of decline. Finally, some cities – in Portugal for example – also have to cope with problems associated with the informal economy.

Environmental problems

Although environmental standards in many European countries are considered to be relatively high, LUDAs often belong to areas with specific environmental and ecological problems. High building densities and the historical legacies of less prosperous areas often result in a lack of green and open spaces. In addition, LUDAs often have to deal with problems relating to soil contamination, and water and air pollution. This contamination is usually the result of previous industrial land uses and is often a problem on brownfield sites which are being reused for residential or commercial activities. Existing industries within LUDAs are likely to be more polluting than industries in other areas. Finally, LUDAs often experience poor air quality and noise pollution due to their proximity to infrastructure such as motorways, railways and airports.

Problems of urban structure

LUDAs often suffer from problems related to the quality of the built environment. Housing and sanitary conditions are often sub-standard, and problems can relate to safety as well as habitability. In some cases, the physical structures of buildings are not appropriate for current usage and requirements. Consequently, this leads to high vacancy rates in both residential and commercial space. From an urban development and planning point of view, LUDAs tend to have key deficiencies such as a lack of nearby recreational areas or insufficient socio-cultural facilities. In a citywide context LUDAs are often functionally isolated due to physical, natural or socio-economic barriers which disconnect them from the rest of a city. Thus the functional structure of such an area might be inappropriate in accordance with its meaning for the city organism.

As LUDAs emerge as a consequence of an interlocking mix of diverse problems, their key characteristic is the interaction of social, economic, environmental as well as urban structural problems. The examples of Dresden and Valenciennes described in boxes 15 & 16 demonstrate this interaction perfectly.



Urban structures of a low quality: Brozzi-Peretola (Florence), Ameixoeira-Galinheiras (Lisbon), Vichodné-Žabí Majer (Bratislava), Craigmillar (Edinburgh); Photos: IOER.



Isolation by traffic infrastructure in Weißeritz (Dresden) & deprived housing in Anzin-Beuvrages (Valenciennes); Photos: IOER

3.2 What potential do LUDAs have?

LUDAs are characterised not only by their problems but also by their potential for revitalisation (Frieden & Sagalyn 1989). As already outlined in the definition [see [section 2](#)] LUDAs are characterised by having 'pockets' of problems as well as 'pockets' with potential. Therefore a holistic vision of quality of life should incorporate potential and not only problems.



Potential refers to the natural, historical and cultural legacies, to the availability of land suitable for further uses or to the skills of local communities, as shown in the following boxes on Bratislava, Dresden and Valenciennes (see boxes 14, 15, 16) [see also [handbook E6](#)].



Box 14: Potentials of Východné-Žabí Majer (Bratislava)

The main potentials of the Východné-Žabí Majer LUDA can be described as follows:

- A low unemployment rate, a productive population, and a cultural and historical heritage (railway colony);
- The area benefits from the vitality of new companies, the good connection with transportation axes, the existing warehouses and manufactures, and the availability of land for development;
- The area has abundant agricultural land which will be transformed into a recreational and leisure zone, according to the Bratislava masterplan. The area also benefits from the presence of lake Kalná, bio corridors and other valuable ecological niches.



Potentials of LUDAs: Park in Weißeritz (Dresden), Railway museum in Východné-Žabí Majer (Bratislava), Square in Brozzi-Peretola (Florence); Photos: IOER

Box 15: Problems and potentials of the Weißeritz LUDA (Dresden)

The local economy of the Weißeritz area is not very dynamic. The area lacks land use pressure from the private sector, as demonstrated by the above-average decline in business stock. A reason for this is the poor image of the area due to bomb damage from World War II and the more recent decline in land use since 1990. The low demand for land means that there is a large amount of inaccessible wasteland, empty housing and uses which are inappropriate for a central location. The structural and functional separation of the area is heightened by its location close to railway infrastructure and the Weißeritz river. Flood protection measures will not be constructed for some time, and this also affects investment. Other problems affecting quality of life include the poor links to the city centre e.g. poor infrastructure for biking and walking and bad cross-river interrelations between the neighbourhoods (Löbtau – Plauen). The redevelopment of the area is problematic due to contamination of the ground, a lack of priorities to force investment, a lack of consent between the owners as well as between the planning departments of the city. Residents show little interest in participation, as demonstrated by well below average voting rates in local elections. Ageing is slightly higher than in the rest of the city while the proportion of welfare recipients and unemployed is above the city average (see table 4).

Table 4: Problems of the Weißeritz LUDA

| Indicator | Unit | Dresden | Weißeritz |
|---|-------|---------|-----------|
| Population development 1999-2003 | % | 2.1 | 1.8 |
| Ageing index 2003 | ratio | 1.6 | 1.8 |
| Proportion of welfare recipients to employees 2003 | ratio | 0.1 | 0.2 |
| Unemployment quota 2003 | % | 10.2 | 14.3 |
| Development business stock 2001-2003 | % | -0.6 | -4.1 |
| Housing vacancies 2003 | % | 13.9 | 18.9 |
| Proportion of new/renovated housing to buildings overall 2003 | % | 12.6 | 10.7 |
| Proportion of brownfields to district area 2004 | ratio | 0.1 | 0.16 |
| Proportion of green space to district area 2004 | ratio | 22.0 | 8.0 |
| Voter participation at local council election in 2004 | % | 46.1 | 39.1 |

The area has great potential because it connects the city centre with adjacent residential districts. It has access to major roads, trains and the local public transport system. The large amount of vacant land provides the opportunity to develop permanent and public open space. This will benefit the local residents, provide space for recreation and connections for pedestrians and cyclists. It also offers space for a future economic development. The river Weißeritz and its banks link different territories of the LUDA and have potential to provide accessible green open spaces and a feeling of nature. Existing remnants of urban fabric such as parks, squares, industrial monuments and historical sites will provide a focus for initial investment and development.

Box 16: Problems and potentials of the Anzin & Beuvrages LUDA (Valenciennes)

The mining industry has rapidly declined over the last 30 years and local people have suffered in the resulting economic crisis. This crisis has left the territory characterised by the presence of large industrial brownfield areas, mainly located along the river Escaut.

Since 1995, the situation in Valenciennes has improved and the district has regained 13,000 jobs. But despite this improvement, the average rate of unemployment is still 15%, which is higher than regional and national rates. Unemployment is a key factor in the exclusion of Anzin & Beuvrages, where rates are disproportionately high, reaching up to 30% in some areas. This represents more than double the unemployment rate across the rest of the region. As a consequence, the population continues to experience poverty and deprivation. The sanitary conditions are alarming, education rates are low and large qualification gaps are evident. There has also been a large increase in juvenile delinquency and domestic violence rates. Some elderly miners live with two or three generations of their families, and complex domestic arrangements such as these indicate the levels of distress experienced by many families. These problematic situations could be resolved by progressing towards a more stable employment market. However, the process of reintegration is not easy, given that the majority of families do not own a car, making travel to work difficult.

Most businesses in Anzin & Beuvrages are small. The hospital remains one of the largest employers in Valenciennes, but it is not situated within the case study area. The Toyota factory, located next to Valenciennes, employs 42% of people living in the Valenciennes district. Valenciennes Métropole continues to be dependant on the automotive industry, which is also susceptible to decline.

The proximity of Anzin & Beuvrages to the centre of Valenciennes offers the potential that the renewal of the central district will also have a positive effect on the deprived case study area. With this in mind, one of the renewal projects is the construction of a fourth bridge over the river Escaut, thus strengthening links between Valenciennes city centre and the areas of Anzin and Beuvrages.

3.3 How do LUDAs in Europe differ in their characteristics?

Despite some common characteristics shared across all LUDAs, there are significant differences too. These differences arise from specific historical, social and economic conditions in each of the respective European countries. For instance in UK and Ireland LUDAs suffer mainly from marginalisation, social exclusion and the concentration of poverty and disadvantage (Social Exclusion Unit, 1998; Dublin Regional Authority, 1999). In Austria, Germany and, to some extent France and Italy, the understanding of urban distress shifts from mere physical decline towards the interrelation of physical decline with social polarisation. Especially Eastern Germany still suffers severe economic decline, and a consequent loss of population, following the political changes in 1989 (Hannemann, 2000). The Slovakian National Regional Development Plan indicates that 'areas of deprivation' are largely located within old industrial cities and regions, and characterised by high unemployment rates, economic deprivation and outward migration. The Polish National Development Strategy* for 2001-2006 identifies decaying areas such as districts

*Naradowa Strategia Rozwoju Regionalnego 2001-2006

of industrial cities, large cities with working-class environments and monostructural cities which have lost their former economic stability. Southern European countries such as Spain and Portugal feature specific problems relating to urban distressed areas, such as access to basic infrastructure and illegal construction occurring as well in areas with heritage and conservation issues.

3.4 Setting LUDA boundaries

The matter of LUDA boundaries is a difficult task. As described earlier, LUDAs are usually not homogeneous spaces. They comprise both, sub-standard areas with multiple deprivations and more prosperous areas which may be functionally interlinked with each other. Thus the boundaries will have to be defined in a flexible manner according to the particular problems of the area. Furthermore its location within the city needs to be taken into account when setting LUDA boundaries.

Ultimately the territorial boundaries of LUDAs are often decided by political means. Establishing formal borders for a LUDA can be seen as a direct way to manage distressed areas. In some cases boundaries do not have geographical lines to follow, but they still delineate the area by selecting certain groups, problematic land uses or physical infrastructures which are important for the whole area's regeneration strategy. Some criteria that can help to define the boundaries of a LUDA are:

- Physical and functional barriers (e.g. river, airport, highway, railway);
- Administrative units;
- Electoral ward or neighbourhood;
- Functional considerations (internal connectivity);
- Running and planned regeneration projects;
- Political recognition/intervention (e.g. elected official).

Analogous criteria can be useful to identify the internal pockets of LUDAs, but in this process the key issue is to stress the identification of internal areas with similar patterns of quality of life, land use or any other characteristic that permit to recognise the pocket as a unity. Objective indicators - census data, land use maps - and subjective evaluations (stakeholders' perception) might be used to define the internal LUDA structure.

In this context, it is relevant to highlight the central role of perception in influencing the definition of LUDA boundaries. Despite that there are a number of quantitative indices that seek to identify deprived areas (Lee et al. 1995), in reality, data at the small area level is limited and planners are dependent on imperfect measures (for an example see box 17).

During this phase of setting LUDA boundaries, regeneration goals must also be addressed. Goals are the pathways to achieve the vision and are backed by the framework created by the

vision. Like the proactive vision they are directional and describe a desired future position for the LUDA. However, unlike the vision, they relate to specific problematic issues (exclusion, unemployment, insecurity, economic decline, building vacancy, urban disorder, isolation, noise, pollution and so on) as well as to defined internal and distressed pockets of the LUDA. It is necessary to stress that regeneration goals are not action items. They serve as a foundation for action items and provide a purpose for strategy. Thus LUDA's regeneration goals link strategic planning and implementation, providing the foundation for action.

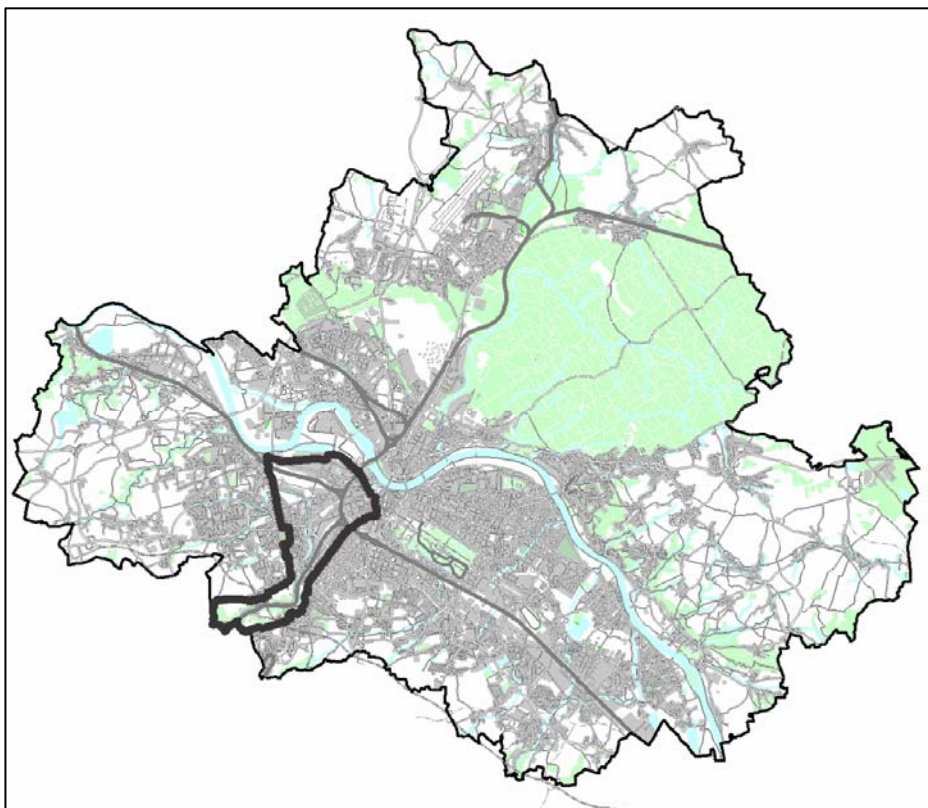
Box 17: Setting LUDA boundaries in Dresden

The Weißeritz LUDA is located in the south west of Dresden (see figure 5). The area reaches from the city border to the city centre. It is bordered by busy streets belonging to the main road system of the city. Four officers of the city planning department were involved in the process of defining boundaries. Defining the LUDA boundaries was based on objective criteria as well as on subjective perception. Subjective perspective was related to the working experience and the perception of the planners. The objective criteria, based on statistical material were:

- Amount of brownfield land;
- Amount of vacant flats;
- Amount of vacant industrial facilities;
- Population development and structure (ageing);
- Unemployed persons and persons receiving social welfare.

According to key stakeholders, if the boundaries had to be drawn again today, they would be smaller and might not include some parts with better living conditions or such areas where the pressure to act is low (e.g. within allotment areas). There is also the feeling, that the heterogeneity is too high to handle the area as a whole.

Figure 5: Location of the LUDA within the city of Dresden



4. What has been done to tackle urban distress in the past?

Urban regeneration is not a new issue. Many previous approaches to regeneration have found it extremely difficult to generate long-lasting solutions. Governmental assumption that intervention in the land and property market offers the best way to tackle urban distress and bring about rehabilitation in LUDA-like areas, has been subject to intense scrutiny and found wanting. At best this approach has tended to offer only temporary answers. At worst, in a small number of cases where piecemeal approaches have been adopted this has resulted in break-up of communities and further decline.

To find successful and long-lasting solutions to turn around areas of severe urban deprivation into areas with a considerable quality of life it is necessary to review policies and programmes that have so far been applied to urban regeneration. This review is the basis for defining success factors and bottlenecks for improving quality of life in LUDAs and outlining lessons to be learnt for successfully tackling urban distress in future.

Current approaches to tackle urban distress can be divided into two main groups: sectoral urban programmes on the one hand and integrative urban programmes on the other. The following sections discuss national examples for both of these approaches and concludes with lessons to be learnt.

4.1. Sectoral urban programmes

In many cases urban regeneration programmes are sectoral in their scope, focusing on some aspects of urban rehabilitation such as physical improvement of housing, renovation of individual buildings or improving the urban environment. Resulting from their sectoral approach these programmes have a limited impact on areas of urban distress. Besides in most cases programmes focus only in neighbourhoods, neglecting the spatial interrelations of urban distress.

Slovakia: Demand for a coherent urban policy

In many European countries new challenges have emerged due to the profound structural changes in their economies. These challenges include governance and economic restructuring, financial sector reforms, and fiscal and social sector reforms. Within the urban sector, regional and urban inequalities and the slow progress in tackling the challenges of structural adjustment require a renewed focus on urban strategies and a significant participation of central and local government institutions.

Comparative analysis of various policy initiatives in post-socialist countries indicates that a variety of sectoral policies have been introduced to overcome the existing urban conflicts: pollution, lack of adequate social and transportation infrastructure, housing, services, etc.; but the

effect so far has been marginal and the commitment inadequate. Urban reforms have taken a back seat in the overall process of economic and social transition (Tsenkova, 2001).

In the case of Slovakia there is no coherent policy officially labelled as urban policy or national urban policy. However, there are policies concerning the cities with two main directions. On the one hand there are planning approaches focusing on regulations as well as strategic and visionary aspects of urban development. On the other hand, basic planning documents have been enhanced by a series of specific initiatives mostly relating to cities and their problems such as mainly housing, improvement of infrastructures as well as social and economic development (Universiteit Utrecht, 2004). The main documents are the following:

- Planning and Building Code (2003);
- Act on Regional Development;
- EIA/SEA law;
- Slovak Act No. 369/1990 on Municipality and its amendment.

In summary there is a clear lack of national and regional programmes specially oriented to urban rehabilitation in Slovakia.

Portugal: Fragmented urban policies

In Portugal, urban policy is characterised by a very diversified and fragmented mode of actions. There isn't a coherent national set of initiatives directed at urban areas. Some instruments frame important fields of activity from a sectoral point of view (*Programa Escolhas**), while others try to deal with specific urban problems (Breda-Vázquez & Conceição, 2004).

Since the 1990s the processes of urban strategic planning represent important changes in comparison with traditional urban planning characterised by too rigid and normative actions. In 1994, in order to develop urban centres, a national programme of consolidation of the urban system to support the execution of municipal master plans (PROSIURB*) was adopted. It contains two sub-programmes: upgrading medium sized towns, and upgrading urban centres with the supplementary network (network of financial resources). Financial assistance to municipalities increased for drawing up plans for urban renovation, and for detailed plans for areas with urban pressure and problems of run-down areas. Policies were developed to attract private entities to build public facilities.

The Expo 98 project, developed in Lisbon between 1994 and 1999, was the beginning of a new national programme (POLIS*) launched in 2000. POLIS focuses on urban rehabilitation and the environmental improvement of cities. It is a highly selective instrument focused in predefined urban centres (whole city) and established at the level of the central administration. Therefore the initiative does not involve local agents and the target areas are not necessarily spaces with urban vulnerability.

One of the most significant urban problems in Portugal is housing. The influx of rural migrants to urban centres in recent decades intensified demand on an already inadequate housing supply.

** Programa Escolhas is a programme for crime prevention and youth inclusion of the most problematic quarters in the cities of Lisbon, Porto and Setúbal.*

** Programa de Consolidação do Sistema Urbano Nacional e Apoio à Execução dos Planos Directores Municipais.*

** Programa de Requalificação Urbana e Valorização Ambiental das Cidades*

Although 60 % of Portuguese rent their houses (80 % in Lisbon and Porto), rigid rent control laws in effect between 1948 and 1985 discouraged the construction of apartments, as did a sluggish bureaucracy. As a result, in the late 1980s an estimated 700,000 illegally constructed dwellings existed in Portugal, 200,000 of which were located in the Lisbon metropolitan area. Some were built on public or unused private lands. The resulting *bairros da lata* (urban shantytowns) often lacked electricity, running water, or sewage systems. Moreover according to Fonseca et al. (2002) the main concern of politicians regarding immigrants are housing, social issues and education.



Re-housing in Ameixoeira-Galinheiras (Lisbon) after the programme for re-housing (PER); Photo: IOER

The programmes described in box 18 have a fragmented character to tackle the complexity of urban distress. Sectoral approaches focus on the specific problems of a community and provide assistance to only one of the multiple expressions of distress. It is clear that social housing is a priority in Portugal, but the massive construction of big blocks of apartments is not the solution. These tend to have a monotonous appearance; they are built with high densities; they are often isolated and located in run-down areas where new investment seems reluctant to venture. Distressed areas have varying needs and struggles and therefore politicians and planners must take care to identify and target areas with solutions that are appropriate to the specific issue confronting each case. This kind of sectoral solution may even give rise to new urban distressed areas.

Box 18: Portuguese programmes to improve the quality of housing

A succession of Portuguese governments recognised these severe housing problems. As a result a series of programmes have been created to finance the rehabilitation of derelict buildings as well as new construction. These programmes include:

- REHABITA—*Recuperação Habitacional em Áreas Urbanas Antigas* (rehabilitation of residential buildings in old urban areas) created in 1996 target at rented out buildings privately owned or owned by municipalities, which are co-financiers of those programmes.
- RECRIPH/SOLARH—*Programa de Solidariedade e de Apoio à Recuperação de Habitação* (rehabilitation of urban buildings) started in 1996 has a similarly plan of intervention. However, this programme is only applied for condominiums and for the common spaces between the buildings.
- PER - *Programa Especial de Realojamento* (special programme for re-housing) was created by 'decree law' in 1993 for eradicating shanty areas in the larger cities like Lisbon and Porto, including approximately 30,000 households. The major financial sources came from central government in the form of grants and loans at low interest rate. Local authorities are responsible for providing available land for re-housing and for establishing satisfactory social and environmental conditions. Dwellings can be rented at a low rental price or can be bought with favourable loans, 40% of value of the house will be financed by the state (non-reimbursable loans).
- Since 1998 the Portuguese state has implemented the RECRIA (*Regime especial de Participação na Recuperação de Imóveis Arrendados*) programme. The aim of the initiative is to support conservation and rehabilitation interventions in dwellings which are in poor condition. This is achieved through incentives which are conceded by the state or municipalities.

4.2 Integrative urban programmes

In the last decade many European states have launched new area based development initiatives to promote integration and participation. They are designed to face socio-spatial divisions in cities and towns and the associated emergence of disadvantaged and blighted districts. Combating social exclusion requires an added emphasis on public participation, particularly to seek out the views of disadvantaged citizens. Therefore the previous top-down approach to tackling urban distress has now been replaced by the concepts of partnership and integration.

The following section of the handbook shows in how far European countries have already developed integrative programmes following the needs described above. The initiatives discussed include the *Soziale Stadt* (Socially Integrative City) in Germany; the Single Regeneration Budget and The New deal for Communities in England; *Politique de la Ville* (urban policy) in France, and *Programmi di Riqualificazione Urbana* (programmes of urban requalification) and *Contratti di quartiere* (neighbourhood contracts) in Italy. A common feature of these policies is the targeting of a well defined area in order to offset urban deprivation, to maximise the impact of the interventions and to reinforce the mutual benefits of the projects.

Germany: The Federal-Länder Programme 'Districts with Special Development Needs -The Socially Integrative City' (*Soziale Stadt*)

Germany has a federal structure; this means that urban regeneration policy is implemented differently in the 16 *Länder* of the country. In practice, however the local authorities are in charge of local planning. The local authority acts, while the federal government and the *Länder* (states) support, give advice and regulate. The federal urban planning legislation (*Baugesetzbuch* - General Federal Building Code) deals with the built environment rather than the neighbourhood as a community. The code was created in 1971 as an instrument to revitalise old building constructions and to repair weakness in the urban structure*. The *Bund* (federal state), the *Länder* (states) and local communities share the financing (LUDA Team, 2003). Over the years, its character hasn't changed but has caused positive effects in the development of the inner cities, although it is focussed on architectural improvement.

**Städtebauförderungsgesetz* (*StBauFG*), now *BauGesetzbuch* (*BauGB*).

Nowadays the urban renovation strategy is more integrative. An agreement between the federal government and the *Länder* established the *Soziale Stadt* programme in 1999. The programme represents a new approach within the framework of urban development assistance. It is aimed at improving the situation of disadvantaged urban neighbourhoods and their inhabitants by an active and integrating urban development policy. It targets areas that suffer from deficits in social structure, detrimental urban building stock, inadequate provisions of jobs, a low level of qualification, a low supply of social and cultural infrastructure, low quality of housing and living environments as well as environmental problems. For this purpose different fields of policy (construction/infrastructural, economic, labour market, social, youth, educational etc.) are connected as regards the areas in question. Furthermore public and private financing means are to be bundled (Aehnelt et al., 2004).

The overall goals of the programme are:

- To complement traditional urban development assistance and link it with other policy areas relevant to urban development in an integrated approach;
- To concentrate investment and measures from various programmes of the EU (URBAN), the federal (*Bund*) and state (*Länder*) governments;
- To integrate urban-development action in the sense of a holistic improvement strategy;
- To give more responsibilities to residents, businesses, associations, and other local players in developing and implementing local programmes;
- To foster the municipalities' participation throughout a long-term, district-oriented, and integrated plan of action as a basis for the programme implementation.

web link



[see also: <http://www.difu.de/english/occasional/neighbourhood-management.shtml> for further information about this programme.]

The size of the pilot areas selected varies considerably, from 9.5 km² (Boy/Welheim (Bottrop) in North-Rhine-Westphalia) to 0.05 km² (centre of Spiesen in Saarland). The average number of inhabitants in the areas concerned is 9,000, with clear variations between the Western states (*Länder*) (8,400) and the Eastern (11,600). This reflects the much higher proportion of large

housing estates in the Eastern German states (*Länder*). Some cities have identified large zones incorporating many segments with 'social hotspots' and 'problem islands'. Others oriented the selection of areas alongside chiefly investment-oriented urban development and thus contradicting the requirements and principles of the programme (Becker et al., 2002).

Becker et al. (2002) conclude that the complexity of the task to regenerate deteriorating social environments fuelled great uncertainty concerning the permanence of the German programme. For them it will take at least ten to 15 years to achieve the goals of more viable structures in those urban districts. Further success factors and bottlenecks found out during the interim appraisal of the programme are shown in box 19.

Box 19: Interim appraisal of the 'Socially Integrative City' programme by the Institute for Urban Research and Structural Policy (IFS)

The assessment at the district level examined how far changes have been brought. As the programme is to support a change in urban policy, the political and administrative level was also the subject of the survey. The recommendations of the appraisal are summarised below:

Main recommendations to federal government and the *Länder*:

- With the help of the programme, complex problems are moved more into the focus of players and it offers a good foundation for joint efforts to solve them. Thus the programme should be continued as an independent part of urban development with a separate budget.
- It is necessary to improve the prerequisites for the support of neighbourhoods with special needs, turning the programme into a more integrated one. It should be more broadly based in the fields of action as well as in the projects eligible for funding.
- A fresh initiative to promote coordination and cooperation among the departments for a neighbourhood policy should be launched that is effective in fighting the threatening segregation and polarisation.
- Insecurities with regard to the orientations towards neighbourhoods or groups as well as towards quality of life will have to be eliminated. Those, who are to implement the programme should receive guidance that is clearly worded and understandable.
- At the level of the *Länder*, the exchange of experience and networking between programme cities should be strengthened.

Main recommendations to the municipalities:

- The diagnosis of the programmes should be conducted in a comprehensive way. The overall city references need to be considered and the perspectives of the neighbourhood determined.
- The quality of the integrated concepts of action needs to be improved with regard to the consistency of the strategy, the formation of clear priorities and the definition of verifiable objectives.
- The departments responsible should be represented in the operative core team of the programme management and cooperate closely.
- Strategic alliances should be formed in the central fields of action, so that the objectives of neighbourhood policies may be pursued on a broader basis than thus far.

(Aehnelt et al., 2004)

England: From Single Regeneration Budget (SRB) to New Deal for Communities (NDC)

During the 1980s the Local Government Planning & Land Act and Urban Development Corporations (UDCs) were both introduced. The role of these two developments was to improve urban regeneration by bringing land and buildings into effective use, through supporting existing as well as new industry and commerce. Housing and social facilities should also be improved to

encourage people to live and work in the area. These economic-led solutions relied on a *trickle down* approach: if local economy is efficient and successful, social benefits will follow. The measures were undertaken in form of public and private partnership and the role of the local government was bypassed with the help of UDCs.

web link



The [Single Regeneration Budget \(SRB\)](#) programme was introduced in April 1994. It combined 20 separate programmes into one new programme, and its main purpose was to be a catalyst for local regeneration. SRB complements or attracts other resources – private, public or voluntary – and helps to improve local areas. Its main aim is to improve the quality of life of local people in large urban areas (with a population of around 25,000 inhabitants) by reducing the gap between deprived and well-off areas, and between the less and better off groups of people.

At a regional level, the SRB is an important tool in delivering the Regional Development Agencies' goals of economic development, raising skills and regeneration. First evaluations show that the SRB proved useful in drawing together central and local agencies and recent changes in its management are beginning to tackle previous weaknesses. However, not all government departments and agencies have taken on board the issues and the lessons learned (Hall & Mawson, 1999).

The most immediate precursor of the SRB was the City Challenge Programme. Although its scope was not as broad, City Challenge shares with the SRB the emphasis on partnerships, competitive bidding for resources, multiple objectives and a multi-sector approach to regeneration. Therefore there is a considerable amount to be learned from the experience of both local and national evaluation of the City Challenge. For example Fearnley (2000) argues that *'the time-scale imposed by the policy and its output-driven nature gave the programme focus and impetus to achieve targets, but also made certain kinds of projects, which could bring with them much 'early wins', particularly attractive. In this frame physical development tended to take precedence, with their ability to rapidly affect local perception and the appearance of local area, and to meet the short term criteria by why City Challenge Programmes were judged successes'* (p. 580). Fearnley also highlights that it was unrealistic and ambitious to anticipate changes in aspects like unemployment, crime and health because they require more long-term investment and cannot be dealt with in isolation from regional and structural factors.

During the 1990s, the strategies moved towards community based urban regeneration and neighbourhood renewal under the frame of a National Strategy 'Bringing Britain together, published in 1998. In 2000 a proposed framework for the National Strategy for Neighbourhood Renewal was published drawing on recommendations made by various policy action teams.

web link



In 2001 the government launched its Action Plan through the [Neighbourhood Renewal Unit](#) (NRU), responsible for the administration and coordination of the comprehensive national strategy. One of the key programmes of the NRU is the [New Deal for Communities \(NDC\)](#). The programme helps several of the most deprived neighbourhoods in the country. It aims to

bridge the gap between some of the poorest members and the rest of society. By focusing resources on small deprived areas, and working with other initiatives operating in the area, it seeks to achieve maximum impact.

NDC is being piloted in 39 neighbourhoods of some of the 2000-3000 communities suffering multiple deprivation. The NDC only applies to these neighbourhoods containing between 1,000 and 4,000 households. The local authority areas eligible for funding were selected using the 1998 Index of Multiple Deprivation and a regional quota system.

The specific problems of each area are unique but each NDC partnership looks for outcomes that make a real impact on people living in their neighbourhood. This is achieved by tackling five key themes: poor job prospects, high levels of crime, educational under achievement, poor health, problem with housing and the physical environment.

NDC is based on partnerships that are representative of the community. The programme supports inclusive local partnerships which have identified the priority needs of their area and developed appropriate regeneration strategies. The government intends that the NDC partnerships should work with departments and agencies to deliver sustainable change through a coordinated approach. Partnerships include key local bodies and organisations, public agencies, local businesses, voluntary bodies and the local people.

Inhabitants living in one of the 39 NDC neighbourhoods who want to bid for funding have to contact their local NDC partnership and follow the application procedures. Each partnership has its own procedures – they are not centrally controlled. Funding is only available for projects benefiting that neighbourhood. More importantly, a proposed project will not be funded unless it contributes to one or more of the key priorities in the individual NDC partnership's Delivery Plan [see [Birmingham's](#) experiences for more information about NDC in practice].

web link



A major positive result has been the programme intention to promote inclusion, specifically for ethnic minority groups and youth. Surveys of the views of local residents are an important participation tool for the partnerships. By placing inhabitants at the centre of the programme, the government is giving an innovative opportunity for residents to achieve sustainable change in the shaping of their neighbourhoods (Ryde & Reeve, 2003).

NDC is a big step forward towards community involvement and empowerment. However some criticisms of the programme have emerged. These suggest, for example, that residents find it too complicated to understand, that there should be better coordination between partnership, that good examples should be shared, and that there is a lack of a clear strategy about what types of services to provide to improve quality of life.

Britain is leading in designing area-based programmes. According to Parkinson (1998) many European countries have imitated the essential principles of the British initiatives – creating partnerships, integrating the private sector and linking area-based to wider city and regional

strategies. Within the British regeneration initiatives, the City Challenge Programme is the best evaluated, but no initiative has so far succeeded in initiating a virtuous cycle of regeneration.

France: Politique de la Ville

The policy *Politique de la Ville* (urban policy) in France is more established than other European integrative approaches since it was initiated at the end of the 1970s under the name *Habitat et vie sociale*. It arose when urban policies were reformulated from urban renewal, understood as demolition of old, run down districts, to an approach focused on restoration and refitting deprived high-rise estates where disadvantaged citizens congregate (Jacquier, 2003).

Since the early 1980s, the country has set up national urban policy to tackle problems to be faced in deprived estates of social housing. The public disorder of the early 1980s highlighted the increasingly unstable environment of distressed neighbourhoods and led to a number of initiatives being launched by local authorities. In 1984, the role of the public sector was intensified and 148 agreements were signed in the framework of the *développement social des quartiers* (social regeneration of neighbourhoods), a contract between the state and the regions. At the end of the 1980s for the first time, a minister of urban affairs was appointed and a series of agencies were established to tackle problems of social exclusion: the national council for urban affairs, the inter-ministerial committee for urban affairs and the inter-ministerial delegation for urban affairs (Délégation Interministerielle a la Ville, 2000).

Given the diversity of distressed neighbourhoods, urban policy together with other national sectoral policies deals with quality of life in these areas. The state plays an important role within a framework characterised by a large number of local authorities (36,000 communes). Public authorities at national, regional and local level, develop, finance and implement the objectives of the policy in distressed neighbourhoods together. Human and financial resources have been channelled towards priority regeneration areas. The neighbourhoods were selected locally according to criteria related to levels of unemployment, education, quality of housing and crime among other.

Since 1994, the implementation of urban policy has been achieved through *contrats de ville* (city contracts) (CV). These were designed to increase the efficiency of public interventions by instituting a development framework relating neighbourhoods to the wider urban area in order to ensure a global approach to the problem.

By 2000, 247 CV (covering more than 1,500 neighbourhoods in 1,000 communes and 30% of social housing within priority neighbourhoods) had been implemented. Each CV operated within an urban area, (including small and medium sized towns and cities) for a seven-year period. A CV is signed between the state, local authorities and their partners (regional and local authorities, social housing organisations) to implement political and institutional partnerships within the framework of an agreed urban and social project. The new *contrats de ville*, continuing the themes of earlier contracts, put emphasis on specific priorities: crime prevention, employment,

economic development and urban regeneration. These priorities are part of a more global policy implemented by the *contrats de plan Etat-Région* (regional development contract), *contrats d'agglomération* (urban area's contract) and the *Law solidarité et renouvellement urbain* (solidarity and urban regeneration) (Délégation Interministerielle a la Ville, 2000).

To implement the CV, different partnerships can be set-up and bring together the different signatories of the contract as well as other local actors such as residents. Local capacity building is a fundamental principle of this policy. In order to facilitate action of different sectors like transport or employment and given the large number of French communes, the CV promotes the cooperation between communes (80% of the contracts are inter-communal). Also, the government has developed an important new initiative, the *Grands Projets de Ville* (large urban projects) (GPV), and extends the sphere of the CV to include the entire urban area (Délégation Interministerielle a la Ville, 2000). As a result the project areas have become larger and larger in (physical) size.

Currently, in order to regenerate neighbourhoods in decline, the programme for urban renewal (Borloo Act*) is founded on the one hand, on a physical transformation of this type of estate by demolishing blocks and opening neighbourhoods to the other parts of cities. On the other hand regeneration according to the programme or urban renewal should be achieved by generating economic activities and creating jobs in relation with tax free areas inside and around the very large estates.

* Jean-Louis Borloo was the minister for urban renewal in 2000.

For some researchers the Borloo's policy is a new concept of urban regeneration policies. The *Law solidarité et renouvellement urbain* (law for solidarity and urban renewal) (from 2000) is the beginning of the transition. The policy is the real implementation of a new understanding where urban reintegration is above all a physical treatment combined with economic involvement, rather independent of social inclusion. For other researchers, there is not a real gap between Borloo's practices and previous ones. They consider the last acts as a general evolution since the 1980s, maybe in relation to the relative inefficiency of former programmes (Belmessous et al., 2005).

Actually French urban policy started a new orientation by introducing new partners (private ones), clearly oriented toward the demolition of the estates and the economical development. For example, the responsibility of the demolition is in the hands of three actors: the state (in the shape of [ANRU*](#)), the housing corporations and the federation of employers. The local actors have been taken away from this organisation: the structure is now top-down, and to get funds it is necessary to follow this structure.

* The Agence National pour la Renovation (ANRU) was created after the adoption of the new law of programming, orientation and finance related to urban renewal.

Italy: Programmi di Riqualificazione Urbana e di Sviluppo Sostenibile del Territorio (Urban Regeneration and Sustainable Territorial Development Programmes)

Italian urban development policies at the beginning of the 1990s have undergone a remarkable change in comparison to the policies implemented in the previous decades. The most evident aspects regarding urban planning are the proliferation of new instruments and the new use of

more traditional ones. Such instruments have interactive and contractual action procedures, in close relationship to the territory and to local actors. Also they take the form of an explicit search of dialogue among the various intervening sectors.

During the 1990s the Italian state financed several instruments intended to promote integrated urban development. The guiding principle adopted was integration, stated in terms of multidimensionality (functions, economy, and local societies), coordination between various institutions and cooperation between public and private actors. However there are significant differences between the different instruments. It is possible to identify gradual evolution towards the explicit adoption of a contractual approach, as well as towards the concrete integration of various forms of action (infrastructure and territorial policies). In fact, in Italy the principle of integration is often translated into urban regeneration interventions directed at housing, while interventions in services and infrastructures have traditionally been planned and managed within a strongly sectoral framework (Governa & Salone, 2004) (see box 20).

Box 20: Italian urban regeneration programmes

The main programmes of urban regeneration applied in Italy at the moment are:

- Programmes of urban rehabilitation (*Programmi di Recupero Urbano*): since 1993 these instruments allow measures to be carried out on public house-buildings neighbourhood schemes (building, maintenance, modernisation of primary and secondary urbanisation, completion and integration of existing urban structures, maintenance, restoration, preservation and modification) for regeneration in public housing.
- Programmes of urban requalification (*Programmi di Riqualificazione Urbana*): since 1992 are implemented within specific areas (municipalities over 300,000 inhabitants, derelict industrial areas and those ones experiencing relevant economic changes). Those programmes provide financial resources to coordinate (public and private) interventions in the field of urban renewal and functional socio-economic re-allocation of buildings.
- District or neighbourhood contracts (*Contratti di Quartiere*): since 1997, for promoting housing quality, employment and social integration. In well identified urban context this instrument is designed to implement experimental measures in the public housing sector combined with social and employment initiatives and is characterised by broadly based, direct participation of inhabitants. The definition of the areas is compelled to the residential districts with presence of public housing programmes in distressed conditions.
- Urban regeneration and sustainable territorial development programmes (*Programmi di Riqualificazione Urbana e di Sviluppo Sostenibile del Territorio: PRUSST*): Started in 1998 at the level of metropolitan areas and urban networks. The main objective is to improve the planning and administrative capacity of municipalities in carrying out projects in cooperation with other actors. These programmes are intended to increase the effectiveness of municipalities and to better equip them with respect to the new opportunities created by the reform of the EU structural funds.

The PRUSST (see box above) is the most recent instrument for intervening in the city. It includes finance planning, technical assistance, monitoring, and the dissemination of results. Interventions in infrastructures are assumed to offer opportunities for the creation and promotion

of development strategies that intend to respond actively to current demands for efficiency and competitiveness in urban and territorial systems (Governa & Salone, 2004). PRUSST provides for the setting up of coalitions and partnerships among the actors involved in the process. It requires strong contribution of public and private capital as well as a direct participation by private actors in funding to achieve an equal share of one-third of the overall cost of the programme.

Municipalities are to be responsible for choosing the area of intervention, for setting the guidelines and for overall coordination. The programme targets degraded areas in need of improvement, restructuring and valorisation. The objectives are to enhance infrastructures as well as economic development in the framework of integrating actions in different domains while fostering development from below. The focus is on the involvement of a plurality of actors who are supposed to bring to the project different resources in a sum positive game, and are able to negotiate and cooperate over time in a common course of action.

This process of innovation has been fostered through a number of national initiatives based on the models developed in the UK and in France during the 1990s. For example, as within the UK's City Challenge programme, access to public finance is regulated through competitive procedures, which are managed at central level by different departments.

4.3 What lessons can be learnt from programmes tackling urban distress?

A review of urban regeneration programmes in European countries reveals both success factors and bottlenecks in approaches to urban distress. The following lessons have emerged from this review:

1. Processes of transformation, especially experienced in post-socialist countries, are strongly related to uncertainties. These make it more difficult to follow a regeneration process and improve quality of life in deprived urban areas and thus constitute a further challenge for defining improvement strategies.
2. A pre-condition for a successful regeneration of deprived urban areas is the integration of sectoral approaches. Sectoral approaches might help to alleviate most severe problems (e.g. of housing) in short term. However, solutions which are solely directed at changing physical structures irrespective of their social context are most probable to create further urban distress.
3. Even in case that national policies and programmes are directed towards integration this is not necessarily implemented in practice. Implementing integrated policies is a challenge and requires the initiation of on-going learning processes.
4. The integrative character of urban regeneration needs to be strengthened by building appropriate institutions for directing the process towards improving quality of life. These institutions should be directed towards political and institutional partnerships.

5. Coordination, cooperation and strategic alliances are most relevant factors to success when improving quality of life in LUDAs. Key issues are the extent of community empowerment and involvement as well as the development of mutual agreements between residents, users, developers and municipalities. This especially requires to get private investors on board as well.
6. Improving quality of life in LUDA is a long-term process (at least 10 to 15 years) and needs strategic thinking as well as persistence. A short term focus on improving physical structures is not sufficient as the solution of deep-seated economic, environmental and social problems is required. However the limited time scope of funding programmes often constraints the continuity of regeneration processes.
7. Programmes often have small budget and scope only targeting the most critical areas. There is a lack of programmes for early intervention that prevent an ongoing downward spiral before it comes into being. Within this context ongoing monitoring of urban development as well as early warning are necessary.
8. As many problems have to be tackled at a higher level than the area being considered, there is a growing importance of spatially integrated approaches. This requires making reference to the urban or even regional level as well as taking on board structural and external factors.

The continuous prevalence of widespread areas of urban distress however shows, that based on the lessons learnt outlined above, new concepts are needed to initiate a virtuous circle of regeneration. These are further described in the following chapter five of the handbook.

What is the current context for improving quality of life in large urban distressed areas?

5. The current context for improving quality of life in LUDAs

5.1 Sustainable development

The world-wide decay in environmental quality and the gradual depletion of natural resources has been a dominant theme for research and public policy in the latter part of the 20th century and is likely to remain so for the foreseeable future. Although the concept of sustainable development can be traced back to the 1980s, the real watershed in understanding came with the Brundtland Commission on Environment and Development (WCED) in 1987. It defined sustainable development as:

'...development that meets the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs'. (WCED, 1987, p. 42)

This remains the benchmark definition of sustainable development. Numerous other definitions exist, but Brundtland represented an emerging international consensus around the conflict between demand for human development and protection of environmental systems. The concept was further expanded at the Rio Earth Summit in 1992 (UNCED, 1992) through Agenda 21, the

'Policy plan for environment and sustainable development in the 21st Century'. In all 27 principles were agreed in the final declaration, ten of which are relevant to questions of sustainable urban development (SUD).

5.2 Sustainable urban development (SUD)

The concept of sustainable urban development (SUD) places local government at the centre of sustainable development activities. This is best reflected in the [Aalborg Commitments](#) (2004) signed by more than 100 European towns and cities (see box 21 overleaf).

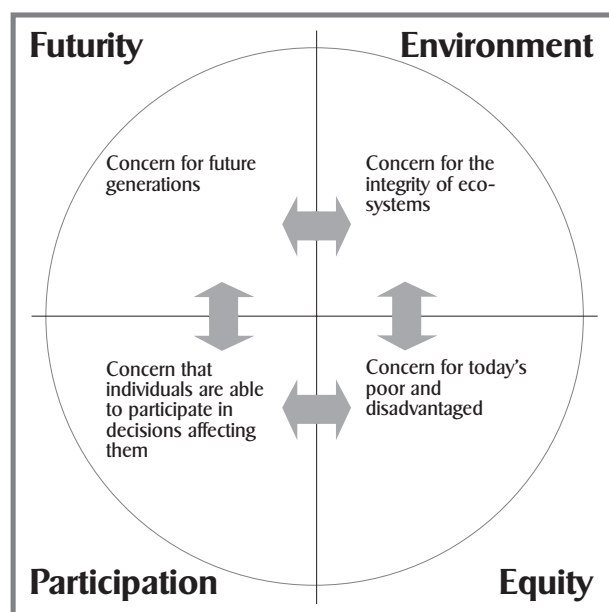
web link



These commitments, require cities to face the challenges of 'creating employment in a knowledge-based economy, combating poverty and social exclusion, securing effective protection for the environment, reducing our ecological footprint, responding to demographic changes, managing cultural diversity, averting conflict and sustaining peace in formerly wartorn communities'. Local governments have a key role in meeting these challenges with help from all other levels of government. This requires integrated approaches to policy 'harmonising environmental, social, cultural and economic objectives'. At the same time efforts to improve local quality of life should 'not jeopardise that of people in other parts of the world or of future generations' (Aalborg commitments, 2004).

Sustainable urban development (SUD) has been simplified and rationalised into four core principles: ecological integrity, equity, participation and futurity in a four-sided model, known as PICABUE (see figure 6 below).

Figure 6: The PICABUE model of sustainable development principles



Source: (ERC 1996 and BEQUEST 1998)

Box 21: The Aalborg Commitments (2004)

1. Governance
We are committed to energising our decision-making processes through increased participatory democracy.
2. Local management towards sustainability
We are committed to implementing effective management cycles, from formulation through implementation to evaluation.
3. Natural common goods
We are committed to fully assuming our responsibility to protect, to preserve, and to ensure equitable access to natural common goods.
4. Responsible consumption and lifestyle choices
We are committed to adopting and facilitating the prudent and efficient use of resources and to encouraging sustainable consumption and production.
5. Planning and design
We are committed to a strategic role for urban planning and design in addressing environmental, social, economic, health and cultural issues for the benefit of all.
6. Better mobility, less traffic
We recognise the interdependence of transport, health and environment and are committed to strongly promoting sustainable mobility choices.
7. Local action for health
We are committed to protecting and promoting the health and wellbeing of our citizens.
8. Vibrant and sustainable local economy
We are committed to creating and ensuring a vibrant local economy that gives access to employment without damaging the environment.
9. Social equity and justice
We are committed to securing inclusive and supportive communities.
10. Local to global
We are committed to assuming our global responsibility for peace, justice, equity, sustainable development and climate protection.

PICABUE draws attention to concerns about the quality of the environment, equity of resource consumption, and the participation of the public in decisions that affect their lives. Participation is particularly important for understanding the future implications of today's decisions for environmental systems as well as current and future generations of people. In doing this, it becomes clear that the impacts of urban regeneration extend beyond the site or the administrative boundaries of the area concerned.

The European Union and the majority of member states have placed sustainable development at the heart of policy making (Busquin, 2000) and it forms one of the main building blocks of the urban thematic strategy and the current [URBAN](#) programme [see also [section 5.5](#)]. Sustainable urban development (SUD) relates to questions about urban futures, cities of tomorrow and the protection of their cultural heritage and how to build the capacity needed to conserve resources, protect the environment and qualify whether such action is equitable. In turn this means the assessments undertaken to evaluate the sustainability of urban development must support and foster public participation in decisions taken about the future of urban develop-

web link



ment because such inclusiveness is integral to SUD [see also [handbook E3](#)].



5.3 Urban regeneration

Urban regeneration is about addressing the symptoms of urban distress through improving declining and disadvantaged areas in towns and cities. It is not just about revitalising derelict places but is also concerned with broader issues such as improved economic competitiveness and quality of life, especially for those who live in deprived neighbourhoods. Ideally urban regeneration involves formulating policy goals, implementing these through programmes of activity, and then monitoring performance over time [see also [handbook E4](#)].



The goals of urban regeneration can be framed broadly to include:

- enhancing the physical condition of localities (this involves environmental improvement, development and redevelopment of land and property);
- stimulating the local economy with activities such as training and enterprise support to business in order to increase the skills of the unemployed;
- tackling social and community issues such as community safety, adult literacy and health promotion;
- securing the longer term future of the locality by strengthening the community's potential for self-government (community capacity building with an emphasis on community-based organisations); and,
- developing governance structures that involve local stakeholders in decision-making, including resource allocation.

(Vilaplana, 1998)

5.4 The new agenda for sustainable urban regeneration

The idea of tackling urban distress in terms of social exclusion and economic competitiveness alone can be criticised because it neglects the sustainable development agenda. Based on the 1992 Rio Earth Summit - [Agenda 21](#) and the [Aalborg Charter](#) of European cities and towns towards sustainability (1994 and 2004), the new agenda promotes integrated strategies and cross-cutting measures that address environmental degradation (see also [section 5.2](#)). The new agenda also promotes inclusive strategies which will assist cities to meet the challenge of the 2001 [EU White Paper on European Governance](#).



Within the context of sustainable urban regeneration, new institutional forms are emerging that attempt to develop and deliver more holistic and integrated 'bottom-up' community-led regeneration programmes involving all stakeholders. Such approaches increase the chances of developing long-lasting sustainable solutions. Urban regeneration is now about consortiums of stakeholders working together to make integrated and sustainable social, economic and physical im-



provements to a defined area of deprivation [see also [handbook E3](#) for further information about participation and partnership in regeneration] .

Sustainable urban regeneration seeks to tackle unsustainability through an integrated programme of projects designed to reverse the cycle of decline and create a virtuous circle of improvement. Devising integrated programmes requires thinking about cities and neighbourhoods in an organic and holistic way, recognising the interrelationship and linkages between different problems and opportunities. Success needs to be measured not just in terms of environmental improvements, but in the opportunities created for empowering people, developing common visions and for nurturing commercial and social enterprises. It requires greater integration across various urban decision-making and professional disciplines. In this context, urban policy-makers, planners, property developers, designers (architects and engineers) and constructors need to see themselves as change-managers. They need to seek innovative solutions to adapt and regenerate cities whilst supporting more sustainable lifestyles. The LUDA concept described below in chapter 6 faces these challenges and puts forward some solutions.

5.5 URBAN II as an approach towards sustainable urban regeneration

5.5.1 Key elements of the URBAN II initiative



Current attempts to follow the agenda for sustainable urban regeneration are perhaps best characterised by the 2002-2006 [URBAN II](#) Community Initiative of which the key elements to support integrative solutions to large urban problems are:

- an integrated approach to tackling high concentrations of social, economic and environmental distress in urban areas;
- clear targeting of a well-defined area/neighbourhood;
- explicit commitment to citizen involvement and the solving of urban problems at grass root level; and
- the achievement of innovation and the enhancement of exchange of knowledge and experience in relation to sustainable urban regeneration and development in the European Union.

5.5.2 Criteria for eligibility and characteristics of the programme areas

To be eligible for the URBAN II programme each city, town or urban neighbourhood must be a coherent geographical or socio-economic entity. The population in each area should be around 20,000 inhabitants (but may be only 10,000 in some cases). In addition, the area must fulfil three of the following criteria:

- high level of long term unemployment, poverty and exclusion;

- low level of economic activity and a specific need for conversion due to local economic and social difficulties;
- high number of immigrants, ethnic or other minority groups;
- low level of education, skill deficiencies and high drop-out rates from school;
- high level of criminality and delinquency;
- precarious demographic trends;
- particularly rundown environment.

Currently URBAN II consists of 70 programmes in 14 EU member states, covering approximately 2.2 million inhabitants. These areas often face severe deprivation and specific challenges, for example, URBAN II areas tend to have:

- average unemployment and crime rates around twice the EU average;
- more than twice the EU average for immigrants living in urban areas; and,
- only half the average proportion of green spaces – an indicator of environment and amenity.

The average population size of the 70 URBAN programmes is 34,649 inhabitants with around €11.3 million spent on each programme by the EU (€349 per person). URBAN II projects are definitely oriented to large urban areas in term of population.

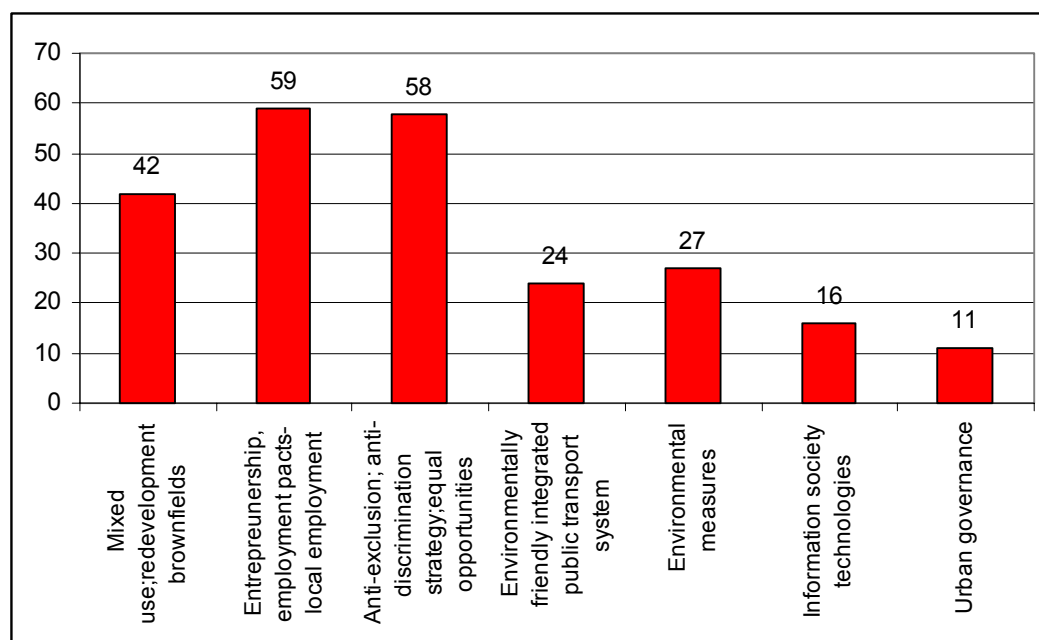
5.5.3 Strategies followed within the programme

Following EU recommendations strategies have to follow the subsequent 7 priority actions:

- Mixed use redevelopment of brownfield sites;
- Entrepreneurship, employment pacts and local employment initiatives;
- Development of an anti-exclusion and anti-discrimination strategy through actions furthering equal opportunities;
- Development of more effective, economically efficient and environmentally friendly integrated public transport system;
- Environmental measures;
- Development of the potential of information society technologies; and
- Promoting the notion of urban governance.

An analysis of the 70 programmes revealed that almost 85% of the projects chose actions relating to 'entrepreneurship, employment pacts and local employment initiatives' and 'development of an anti-exclusion and anti-discrimination strategy through actions furthering equal opportunities'. The urban governance action was the least attractive, with only 16% of the initiatives incorporated the topic highlighted under this priority (see figure 8). This analysis reveals that regeneration initiatives running under URBAN II often still lack comprehensive integration.

Figure 8: Urban II - Priority actions (in number of actions)



Source: based on URBAN II website (TUD 2005)

5.5.4 Does URBAN II achieve sustainable urban regeneration of LUDAs?

The EC views the URBAN Community Initiative as a success story. It has helped to raise awareness about the importance of tackling urban distress as a form of poverty and social exclusion requiring economic and environmental actions by cities and governed by those members of the community most closely affected by such area-base rehabilitation. This is true as URBAN II is an integrated initiative to improved living conditions in large urban distressed areas. It combines activity focusing on people (employment pacts, entrepreneurships, integration of less-favoured social classes and training) with physical upgrading (renovating buildings); environmental improvement (green areas, environmentally friendly public transport systems, use of renewable energy) and urban governance. Moreover the areas are targeted with high intensity. Emphasis is set on local partnerships acting as managing authorities.

Nevertheless, European countries have varying needs and struggles regarding urban distressed areas and therefore national planners must take care to identify and target areas with proposals that are appropriate to the specific issues confronting each case. On the other hand scarce resources may require EU experts and evaluators to target some urban areas and provide only limited assistance to others. The analysis of the 70 programmes financed by URBAN II shows that although integrative in its formulation, in practice it is transformed into a sectoral approach.

6. How can the LUDA approach contribute to improving the quality of life in large urban distressed areas?

Several initiatives (sectoral and integrative) have developed in European countries to target urban disadvantaged areas. Some of the most negative evaluations have concerned sectoral proposals that were too narrow in their regeneration scope.

Nevertheless during the last decade many European states have launched new development programmes to face urban distress [see also [section 4](#)]. Despite their different frameworks they share many common and comparable elements: the importance attached to activation and participation strategies; high-performance organisational and communicational structures; emphasis in clearly defining tasks, duties and decision making powers and the conviction that shifting responsibilities to local level will encourage inhabitants to participate.

The discussion of the literature shows many disagreements on the effects of these integrative programmes:

- One of the main issues is the gap between the purpose of the urban strategies and the problems they try to solve; they have not succeeded in halting the downward spiral because they were unable to address the complex and area-based nature of the problem at the local level.
- Besides, several evaluations concluded that the successes and failures of European urban regeneration programmes are related with the role of central and regional urban departments in integrating and committing actions and policies. In fact the administrative structure in different countries is still too hierarchically and sectorally structured, thus the administrative organisation is not yet suitable for integrative programmes.
- The formal status of city-wide partnerships for regeneration and the timing involved in the renewal process are important elements to be incorporated.

An analysis of the 70 projects currently running under URBAN II demonstrated that the integrative initiative became a sectoral approach in practice. This was due to the necessity of local planners concentrating their project applications on the most urgent distress issues. In addition scarce EU resources require targeting specific priorities in regard to improving quality of life [see also [section 5.5](#)].

It must be recognised that a lot has been done and some successful urban regeneration has taken place. But in general, national policies and integrative programmes have not succeeded in halting the downward process that affects distressed areas.

The aim of the LUDA approach is to contribute with a methodological proposal to improved quality of life in large urban areas. The scheme is based on lessons learnt from experiences with different programmes. Its main contribution is the holistic vision of quality of life that incorporates potentials and not only problems within a wider spatial conception of urban distress. According to the different quality of life's dimensions – social, economic, environmental, urban

[back to table of contents](#)



structure and institutional capacity – the methodological approach is strongly supported on political and institutional advocacy.

The physical identification of the area under rehabilitation as well as the recognition of problems and potentials includes a high number of internal and external stakeholders crucial to be incorporated since the beginning of the initiative.

Consequently LUDA approach has to be understood as a governance concept and a management instrument that aims at increasing awareness for the need of improvement and at enhancing coordination between urban regeneration programmes.

Thus the LUDA approach – in contrast to other urban regeneration areas and programmes – has three main characteristics. It aims to:

- improve the quality of life of large urban areas in a multi-faceted way taking into account physical, organisational, financial and social problems together;
- efficiently making use of potentials and synergies; and
- minimising unwanted side effects of urban regeneration programmes (e.g. gentrification).

Moreover, there is a common understanding about fundamental LUDA principles:

- LUDA approach is an integrated quality of life approach described by a holistic vision;
- LUDA approach requires building partnerships by strengthening vertical and horizontal ties;
- LUDA approach is based on developing a common proactive vision of good quality of life.

6.1 Holistic vision towards the improvement of quality of life: the Diamond of Quality of Life

The main point of departure in any analysis of urban distress is how distress should be defined. Is it something that happens to individuals and that should, therefore, be assessed on social indicators? Is it a question of physical space meaning housing quality or derelict land?

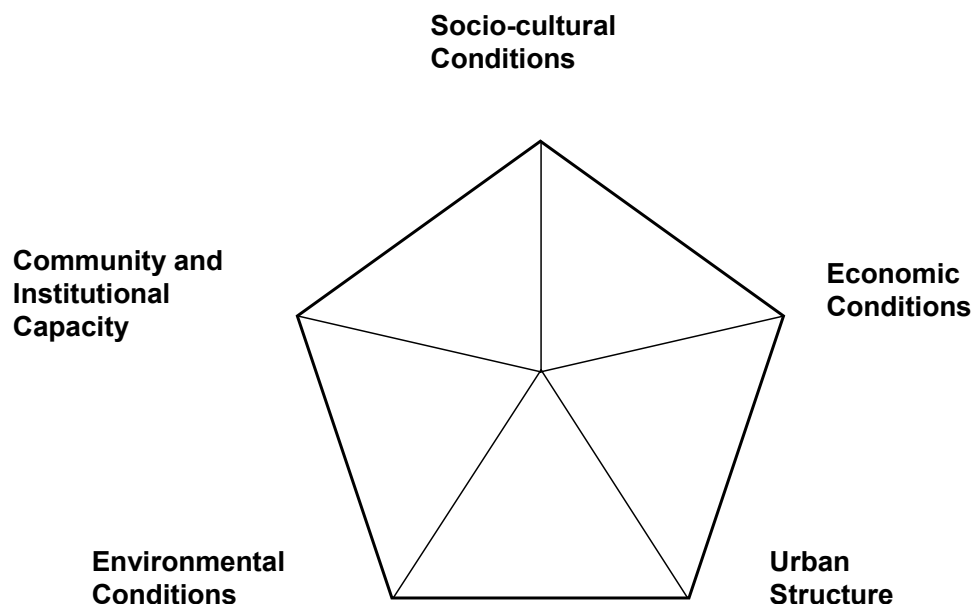
The LUDA concept faces the challenge of managing urban decline and future regeneration strategies through a holistic vision of quality of life that highlights the dialectic relation between space (physical decline) and people (social distress). This statement is based on the fact that regeneration programmes placing emphasis on physical regeneration, incorrectly assumed that the benefits would automatically 'trickle down' to deprived people (Robson et al., 1994). Besides, it is a general conclusion that physical improvements alone are unsustainable (Skifter Andersen, 2001). There is also evidence that isolated efforts to combat urban distress are costly and difficult to operate (Cameron & Davoudi, 1998; Hall, 1997).

On the other hand, Powers (1997 in Skifter Andersen, 2001) has shown that the 'patchwork approach' that addresses physical, organisational, financial and social problems together has prevented precarious communities from continuing on the downward trajectory. On this basis LUDA proposes an integrative approach to deal with quality of life in urban distressed areas.

The two subjects – quality of life and sustainable development – have mostly been treated separate from each other so far, although they have a lot in common. Of course there are also differences between the debates. While the discussion about quality of life concentrates on the present well-being of groups or individuals, a large part of the discussion about sustainable development focuses on a 'good' life for all humans living today and for future generations (Schäfer et al., 2004). There is a need to integrate the two main subjects to feedback urban policies and governance topics, built on stakeholder involvement, to support urban regeneration programmes.

Within this frame a 'Diamond of Quality of Life' with five dimensions of quality of life (socio-cultural conditions, economic conditions; urban structure; environmental conditions and community and institutional capacity) has been developed as the reference structure for improving living and working conditions in LUDAs (see figure 9).

Figure 9: Diamond of Quality of Life



The 'Diamond of Quality of Life' represents a gemstone with its corners representing dimensions that are fundamental to achieving a good quality of life. In the same way that the preciousness of a gemstone depends on the integrity of all its corners, a good quality of life depends on taking into account all five dimensions of quality of life.

Dimensions of quality of life are associated with particular aspects of living and working in a specific time. Furthermore issues have been defined as components of dimensions contributing to identify problems and potentials of a LUDA to be addressed. Whereas dimensions reflect the general objectives of improving quality of life and their interplay, issues reflect priorities within a given setting (see table 5).

The framework of the 'Diamond of Quality of Life' can be flexibly adapted to respective situations found within specific LUDAs (see box 22 overleaf). While improving quality of life requires taking into account all five dimensions to safeguard the integrity of the gemstone, issues can be flexibly left out as well as added to the diamond.

Table 5: Quality of Life: Dimensions and Issues

| Dimensions | Issues |
|--------------------------------------|--|
| Socio-cultural Conditions | Population Structure; Household Income; Local Employment; Knowledge and Skills; Health Conditions; Safety and Security; Culture. |
| Economic Conditions | Economic Base; Investment; Housing and Property Market. |
| Urban Structure | Urban Design; Services and Infrastructures; Housing Quality; Modes of Internal Connection; Land Use. |
| Environmental Conditions | Soil Quality; Air Quality; Water Quality; Open Spaces; Waste Management and Recycling; Natural Hazards. |
| Community and Institutional Capacity | Participation and Involvement; Social justice and Equity; Institutional Capacity; Political Capacity; Land Use Context. |

internal link



The Diamond of Quality of Life provides a framework that can be used alongside the community-based approach to sustainable urban regeneration [see [handbook E3](#)] as the 'bottom-line' for building the institutional capacity needed for participation to play a key role in taking the steps required to make urban regeneration sustainable. The 'community and institutional capacity-building' of this approach also has the advantage of developing the LUDA Regeneration Assessment process for evaluating the environmental, economic and social sustainability of the improvements in the quality of life this brings about. These assessments are carried out in line with the environmental considerations of the urban areas undergoing regeneration and the economic and social conditions set out in tables 5 and 6 for sustaining such actions and subsequent improvements in the quality of life they make possible [see [handbook E4](#) for more information about the regeneration process]. This is made possible because:

internal link



- During the **diagnosis step** it represents a structure for the baseline assessment, e.g. for grouping stakeholders; for identifying problems and potentials (see box 22 above). Most important they are the basis for developing distress indicators suitable to monitor changes of quality of life as well as the performance of regeneration activities.

Box 22: Structuring of problems in the case of Ameixoeira-Galinheiras (Lisbon) according to the framework of the 'Diamond of Quality of Life'

The structure of the diamond can be used at various steps during the LUDA improvement process. Furthermore it is very flexible and can easily be adapted to the needs of a specific LUDA case. Table 6 shows the structuring of problems in the case of Ameixoeira-Galinheiras (Lisbon) according to the framework of the 'Diamond of Quality of Life'.

Table 6: Problems in Lisbon Ameixoeira-Galinheiras structured according to the 'Diamond of Quality of Life'

| Dimension | Issue | Problems |
|---|-------------------------------|--|
| Socio-cultural conditions | Population Structure | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Large Gypsy community • Young population (in re-housing part) • Social cohesion |
| | Income | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poverty • Dependency on social welfare |
| | Knowledge and skills | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Minimal levels of schooling • High rate of school drop out • Low level of attendance • Low qualifications |
| | Safety and security | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Insecurity • Vandalism • Drug |
| Economic conditions | Economic base | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Illegal activities |
| Urban Structure | Services & infrastructure | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of public amenities, services, recreation and sport activities • Access to facilities and services • Lack of commerce |
| | Housing quality | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Decay of valuable historical buildings |
| | Modes of internal connection | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Poor transportation and access system |
| Environmental Conditions | Waste management & recycling | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Illegal waste dumping |
| Community and Institutional Capacity | Participation and involvement | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Lack of participation |
| | Social justice and equity | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social exclusion |
| | Land use context | <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Illegal buildings • Unregulated and illegal growth |

- Within the **step of visioning** the 'Diamond' highlights key aspects to be considered when developing and selecting scenarios or when developing policies with clear objectives and targets.
- At the **step of programming** the dimensions and issues of the 'Diamond' give an orientation on aspects to be considered when formulating the regeneration programme.

They could help to safeguard continuity from identifying problems and potentials to developing objectives and targets and creating the regeneration programme. Dimensions and issues of the 'Diamond' can further be applied to structure the appraisal of the regeneration plan.

- The **step of implementation** involves the selection and appraisal of projects as well as their implementation. As in the previous steps the framework of the 'Diamond' can help to guarantee continuity of issues to be considered throughout the process.
- However the main contribution of the 'Diamond' is its guiding role during the process of **monitoring**. Dimensions and issues of the 'Diamond' are the basis for selecting indicators suitable for the individual LUDA case. Within the step of monitoring these indicators are used for monitoring the change of quality of life within the area as well as for evaluating the performance of regeneration activities. When undertaking these monitoring activities several perspectives and sources of information will have to be considered such as objective statistical data, the satisfaction of LUDA inhabitants with their living quality (internal perception) as well as the external stakeholders' views on the area (external perception). Comparing monitoring results from these three perspectives can provide information on how to redirect the regeneration process by remedial action [see also [handbook E4](#)].



6.2 Building partnerships to regenerate LUDAs

The issues involved in identifying LUDAs include the crucial question of who decides the specific limits and on what basis. The decision to follow a LUDA approach should be based on local planners and political decision makers cumulative knowledge and experience of the distressed area's struggle (see box 23).

It is essential to go further than the traditional approaches for urban regeneration. Improving quality of life in LUDAs requires more than looking at different measures of physical, economic, and social needs and to do more than simply observing whether a distressed area is potentially attractive to private economic investment. Planners must also look at what Warren (1963) has called a neighbourhood's horizontal and vertical ties. Horizontal ties reflect the strength of social networks and the overall social fabric within and between pockets of urban distress. Vertical ties reflect the relationship that the LUDA has with outside entities. It has been proved how distressed areas have been able, with significant social networks and the help of outside resources, to stem the tide of urban decline (Rohe & Mouw, 1991; Medoff & Sklar, 1994).

The major stakeholders (e.g. politicians, planning experts within the administration as well as inhabitants and tradesmen of the area) must also be committed to the structure chosen as a part of the LUDA approach. In some cities, structures may already be in place – such as urban regeneration departments – and building on them may be reasonable. The process of building partnerships is crucial to establishing an organisational structure [see also [handbook E3](#)].



A strong LUDA team is vital and has a key role to play during the long term rehabilitation process. It is important that the team brought together contains people from a variety of functions and disciplines.

Box 23: Building Partnerships in Brozzi-Peretola (Florence)

The experience of participation in Florence-Brozzi-Peretola shows the success of the participatory process. Stakeholder and public meetings were organised by the city at the beginning of the process. The meetings were a success in overcoming the scepticism of some stakeholders who had been disappointed with earlier efforts of partnership with the municipality. The meetings show increasing understanding and cooperation between the stakeholders involved. It also highlights the proactive role of the municipality. Furthermore, the development of alliances and partnerships through the participation in LUDA regeneration shows that stakeholders feel they have more power to influence decision-making as a group, and that they play a consultative role valued by the municipality.

The example of Brozzi-Peretola shows the LUDA approach as a way to manage the relations between local stakeholders and the administration, as it illustrates the willingness of the city to create links with the stakeholders. It is also a way to trigger or renew the interest of local stakeholders in regeneration processes. As a collaborative approach, LUDA has contributed to the dialogue between internal and external stakeholders in Brozzi-Peretola. LUDA has also created a positive climate for action, with common goals and objectives for the LUDA area.

6.3 Developing a common vision of good quality of life

The proactive vision, formulated as a part of the LUDA approach, is a long-term strategy that embodies internal and external stakeholders' image of the area and reflects where they are, where they want to go and how they can get there. LUDA strategic visioning is a pro-active and holistic approach which articulates a realistic and attractive future for the area. It is based on understanding the social and physical fabric of LUDAs and not simply reacting to trends of distress. While the strategic 'plan' will be crystallized and turned into specific and measurable regeneration criteria and goals, the critical initial ingredient is creativity.

The improvement of quality of life has to be understood as a governance concept and a management task. LUDA interventions aim at increasing awareness for the need of improvements on a broader level; enhancing coordination and linkage between different projects and programmes, efficiently making use of potentials and synergies, and minimising unwanted side effects of urban regeneration programmes. One of the purposes of LUDA approach is to improve coordination, flexibility and performance of area programmes.

Once the area is chosen by political decision-makers and planners, the improvement of quality of life requires inter-linked actions of a high number of stakeholders, such as city governments and authorities, the private sector and the civil society [see [handbook E3](#)]. Developing a common vision for LUDA improvement starts with an analysis of the strengths, weaknesses, oppor-



tunities, threats and visioning for the LUDA, applying innovative methodologies (Müller et al., 2005).

During this process, activities such as workshops, forums and meetings with stakeholders should be initiated to generate ideas. The community has to be informed and asked to contribute with their thoughts and ideas. Also objectives have to be addressed and they should be directional and describe a desired future.



The LUDA improvement process includes basic steps such as diagnosis, visioning, programming, implementation and monitoring [see [handbook E4](#)]. To know more about assessment methods recommended for use throughout the regeneration process please refer to [handbook E5](#)—the LUDA Assessment Decision Support System.

7. Conclusion: contribution of the LUDA approach to improving quality of life in distressed urban areas



The LUDA approach outlined above in many ways contributes to improving quality of life in areas of urban deprivation. Backing on lessons learnt from the experiences with different regeneration programmes as well as with individual cases of LUDA regeneration [see [handbook E6](#)] the main benefits of the LUDA approach can be described as follows:

1. LUDA is an integrative quality of life approach. It puts emphasis on the five dimensions of the 'Diamond of Quality of Life'. In this it is clearly discernable from other integrative approaches oriented towards urban regeneration, such as URBAN.
2. The LUDA approach puts high emphasis on the participation and inclusion of stakeholders from inside the area as well as from outside. It includes stakeholders into the planning and improvement activities right from the beginning. Therefore their active participation, their ideas and perceptions play an important role in the LUDA approach.
3. The LUDA approach distinguishes different perceptions on quality of life. A first perspective is related to the objective situation as it may be represented by statistical data. A second perspective takes into consideration the perception of insiders, i.e. those who live and work in the LUDA area, such as inhabitants, owners of businesses, employees. The third perspective respects the perception of outsiders, such as political decision-makers, planners, investors etc. who may have an image of the area but who do not necessarily know the area. This differentiation helps to discern the different stakeholders' views.
4. The LUDA approach adds a functional view definition of distressed areas. Distressed areas are not seen as homogeneously problematic but they are recognised as having both pockets of problems and pockets of potential. These need to be uncovered from the beginning as they form the basis of the improvement activities. The art of LUDA im-

provement is then to find solutions for the problems and make best use of the area's potential.

5. The LUDA approach is a strategic approach. Strategic planning plays an important role. The typical LUDA improvement process includes the identification of distressed areas through quantitative techniques; the selection of the regeneration programme and the evaluation of it. Although there may not be a specific procedural order, the individual elements of the approach are all relevant in improvement process.
6. The LUDA approach strongly promotes a call for institution building. Institution building is necessary because it is crucial for making municipalities prepared for the complex work of LUDA improvement. Within the traditional sectoral channels of municipalities there is little room for comprehensive approaches. Therefore it is recommended to form inter-sectoral and inter-disciplinary working teams for LUDA improvement within or outside of municipal administrations. They should have enough freedom to move and enough authority and capacity to establish stable links between the different stakeholders.
7. The LUDA approach strongly promotes a comprehensive quality of life monitoring. In this it can be discerned from other monitoring activities in urban regeneration which concentrate on sectoral activities or on the progress of programme activities only without taking into consideration potential negative (or positive) side-effects, such as gentrification or displacement of inhabitants due to sharply increasing land values and rents. The LUDA monitoring takes into consideration all five dimensions of quality of life and it identifies potential negative or positive side effects during the improvement process within the LUDA.
8. The LUDA approach is an approach which is not primarily oriented towards funding. Although money is the fuel which makes the engine of LUDA improvement run, it is not the only ingredient in driving the improvement into the best possible direction and to spend money wisely. Many urban regeneration activities are heavily oriented towards certain funding channels which may lead to the situation that the identification of problems is not based on the actual or perceived situation of an area but is oriented towards the availability of funds (funding priorities determine actions instead of a situation where problems call for solutions). LUDA demonstrates that the improvement task exists independently from funding programmes and that improvement activities can be initiated irrespective of their existence.
9. This all shows that the LUDA approach is an approach calling for good governance. Good governance is necessary in order to involve the different stakeholders (public, private) in a way which brings them in early and which keeps them interested in the improvement activities over a long time. Moreover, it contributes to the qualification of municipal staff by widening their traditional sectoral and administrative perceptions into a more comprehensive understanding of LUDAs, and by creating a network of multipliers within and outside of cities which decide to start LUDA improvement processes in the described way.



While this handbook has outlined the current framework for improving quality of life in LUDAs and has described the key elements of the LUDA approach, guidance on how to follow this approach is to be found within the other handbooks of the LUDA project e-compendium:



- [Handbook E3](#) deals with the community-based approach towards sustainable urban regeneration. It represents inter-disciplinary collaborative working and consensus-building in terms of a community-based approach and goes on to set out the institutional arrangements required to develop such authority and capacity.
- [Handbooks E4](#) in text and [handbook E5](#) in form of a web-based decision support system, set out the tasks and activities to assess the sustainability of the urban regeneration and contribution this makes to improvements in the quality of life.
- [Handbook E6](#) puts forward lessons to be learnt from cases of practical experience with urban regeneration.



8. Further links & information

- Aalborg Commitments 2004. Aalborg +10 – Inspiring Futures. Aalborg+10 Conference in June 2004, Aalborg.
- Aehnelt, R.; Häußermann, H.; Jaedicke, W.; Kahl, M.; Toepel, K. 2004. Interim Appraisal of the Federal-Länder Programme 'Districts with special development needs- the Social City ('Soziale Stadt')'. IFS Institut für Stadtforschung und Strukturpolitik GmbH.
- Becker, H.; Franke, T.; Löhr, R-P.; Rösner, V. 2002. Socially Integrative City Programme - An Encouraging Three-Year Appraisal. In Deutsches Institut für Urbanistik (ed.). Die Soziale Stadt. Eine erste Bilanz des Bund-Länder-Programms 'Stadtteile mit besonderem Entwicklungsbedarf - die soziale Stadt', Berlin.
- Belmessous, F.; Chemin, C.; Chignier, F.; Commerçon, N.; Trigueiro, M. 2005. Large Housing Estates in France. Success and fail factor policies. Faculty of Geosciences, Utrecht University www.restate.geog.uu.nl/results/SF/sffrance.doc.
- Blackman, D. 2003. Spot the grot, spot the rot. Preventive Medicine for Urban Decline. Royal Institution of Chartered Surveyors.
- Breda-Vázquez, I.; Conceição, P. 2004. Multi-level urban policies- a useful model for public action? 34th Annual Meeting of Urban Affairs Association. Washington, 31 March-3 April 2004.
- Butzin, B. 1993. Strukturkrise und Strukturwandel in alten Industrieregionen. Das Beispiel Ruhrgebiet. In: Geographie heute (113): 4-12.
- Byrum, O. 1992. Old Problems in New Times: Urban Strategies for the 1990s. Chicago: Planners Press. 1992.
- Cameron, S.; Davoudi, S. 1998. Combating social exclusion, looking in or looking out? In Madanipour, A.; Cars, G.; Allen, J. (eds.). Social Exclusion in European Cities. Jessica Kingsley Publishers in conjunction with the Regional Studies Association, London.
- Carley, M. 1990. Housing and Neighborhood Renewal: Britain's New Urban Challenge. Policy Studies Institute, London.
- Carter, T.; Polevychok, C. 2003. Comprehensive Neighbourhood Studies: Characterizing Decline. Canada Research Chair in Urban Change and Adaptation. The Institute of Urban Studies. The University of Winnipeg.

- Castells, M. 1997. *The Information Age: Economy, Society and Culture. The rise of the network society* Vol. I, Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Chaline, C. 2003. *Les politiques de la ville*, Presses Universitaires de France, Paris.
- Clay, P. 1979. *Neighbourhood renewal: Middle class resettlement and incumbent upgrading in American neighbourhoods*. Lexington, MA: Heath.
- Conway, M.; Konvitz, J. 2000. Meeting the challenge of Distressed Urban Areas. *Urban Studies*, 37 (4): 749-774.
- Davy, B. 1996. Fairness as Compassion: Towards a less unfair facility siting policy. *Risk: Health, Safety and Environment* (Spring 1996): 99-108.
- Délégation interministérielle à la Ville. 2000. *The French Urban Regeneration Programme. A new objective for towns and cities*. DIV Publication. www.ville.gouv.fr/pdf/editions/regeneration.pdf.
- Downs, A. 1981. *Neighborhood and Urban Development*. Washington DC: Brookings Inst.
- Dublin Regional Authority. 1999. *Securing Dublin's Future: A Case for EU Funding Post 1999*, Dublin.
- Elkin, P. and Cooper, I. 1993. *Cities and Sustainability*, Joint Research Agenda, Economic & Social Research Council and Engineering & Physical Science Research Council, Swindon, UK.
- Fearnley, R. 2000. Regenerating the inner city: lessons from the UK's City Challenge Experience. In *Social Policy & Administration* 34 (5): 567-83.
- Fonseca, L.; Caldeira, M. J.; Esteves, A. 2002. New forms of migration into the European South: challenges for citizenship and governance. The Portuguese case. *International Journal of Population Geography* (8): 135-152.
- Frieden, B.; Sagalyn, L. 1989. *Downtown, Inc: How America Rebuilds Cities*. Cambridge, MA: MIT Press (Chapter 11: 215-238).
- Froessler, R. 1994. *Stadtviertel in der Krise: innovative Ansätze zu einer integrierten Quartiersentwicklung in Europa*. Im Auftrag des Ministeriums für Stadtentwicklung und Verkehr des Landes Nordrhein-Westfalen (MSV). ILS-Schriften 87. Duisburg.
- Gale, D. 1979. Middle Class Resettlement in Older Urban Neighbourhoods: The Evidence and implications. *Journal of the American Planning Association* 45 (2): 293-304.
- Governa, F.; Salone, C. 2004. Territories in Action, territories for Action: The territorial dimensions of Italian Local Development Policies. *International Journal of Urban and Regional research* (28): 796-818.
- Hall, P. 1997. Regeneration policies for peripheral housing states: Inward and outward-looking approaches, *Urban Studies* (34): 873-890.
- Hannemann, C. 2000. Zukunftschance Schrumpfung – Stadtentwicklung in Ostdeutschland – eine Skizze. In: Hager, F. & Schenkel, W. (Eds.): *Schrumpfungen. Chancen für ein anderes Wachstum, Ein Diskurs der Natur- und Sozialwissenschaften*. Springer, Berlin: 99-105.
- Hawley, A. 1950. *Human Ecology: A Theory of Community Structure*. New York, NY: The Ronald Press.
- Hoover, E.; Vernon, R. 1959. *Anatomy of a Metropolis*. Cambridge. Harvard University Press.
- International Institute for the Urban Environment. 2004-2006. *IMAGE project: Increasing Metropolitan Allure by Going European*. <http://www.urban.nl/index.htm>.
- Jaquier, C. 2003. Inhabitant Participation and "Politique de la Ville" in France. *Soziale Stadt* (14): 10-11.
- Kamal-Chaoui, L. 2001. *Urban Distressed Areas and cities competitiveness; paper held at the Workshop 5: Productive City-Housing and Social Integration policies at the 4th International Forum on Urban Poverty (IFUP)*. Marrakech, Morocco. <http://www.unhabitat.org/programmes/ifup/conf/kamal-chaoui-english.doc>.
- Klagge, B. 2001. Räumliche Disparitäten des Sozialhilfebezugs in Deutschland: ein Überblick. *Raumforschung und Raumordnung* (4) 2001: 287-296.
- Lee, P.; Murie, A.; Gordon, D. 1995. *Area Measures of Deprivation: A study of current methods and best*

- practices in the identification of poor areas in Great Britain. York: Joseph Rowntree Foundation.
- Lintz, G.; Schmude, K. 2000. The Future of industrialised Cities and Regions undergoing structural changes (FOCUS). Country report Germany draft version 03/2001. (<http://www.ioer.de/FOCUS/PDF/german.pdf>).
- LUDA-Team. 2003. Appraisal of planning regulations regarding large urban distressed areas in European countries. Deliverable 3: Internal document.
- LUDA-Team. 2005. Report about monitoring methodology and criteria for assessment. Deliverable 18: Internal document.
- Lupton, R.; Power, A. 2004. What we know about neighbourhood change: A literature Review. Centre for Analysis of Social Exclusion. <http://sticerd.lse.ac.uk/dps/case/cr/CASEReport27.pdf>.
- Medoff, P.; Sklar, H. 1994. Streets of Hope: The Fall and Rise of an Urban Neighborhood. Boston: South End Press.
- Metzger, J. T. 2000. Planned Abandonment: The Neighbourhood Life- Cycle Theory and National Urban Policy. Housing Policy Debate 11 (1): 7-40.
- Morrison, N. 1999. Addressing the difficulties in letting social housing across the UK, Paper to ENHR Conference, Balatonfüred, Hungary.
- Moulaert, F. 1994. Local development in western Europe. Conference City, Enterprise and Society, IRESCO, Lille.
- Müller, B.; Finka, M.; Lintz, G. (eds.). 2004. Rise and decline of industry in Central and Eastern Europe. A comparative study of cities and regions in eleven countries. Central and Eastern European Development Studies CEEDES. Berlin.
- Müller, B.; Curwell, S.; Turner, J. 2005. A model for the improvement of LUDA: development of a collaborative strategic goal oriented programming (CoSGOP). Urbanistica Dossier (74): 14-19.
- OECD. 1998. Integrating Distressed Urban Areas. Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development.
- Okraska, E. 2000. The future of industrialised cities and regions undergoing structural changes – Poland (country report) Cracow 2000 (forthcoming).
- Park, R.; Burgess, W.; McKenzie, R. 1925. The City. University of Chicago Press.
- Parker, D. J. 2000. Introduction to Floods and Flood management. In Parker, D.J. (ed.). Floods, Volume 1, London & New York.
- Parkinson, M. 1998. Combating social exclusion. Lesson from area-based programmes in Europe. Bristol: the policy Press.
- Randolph, B.; Judd, B. 1999. Social exclusion, neighbourhood regeneration and large public housing estates, paper presented to the Social Policy Research Centre Conference Social Policy for the 21st Century: Justice and Responsibility, held at the University of New South Wales, 21-23 July.
- Renner, M.; Walther, U. J. 2000. Perspektiven einer sozialen Stadtentwicklung. Raumforschung und Raumordnung (4): 326-336.
- Roggenthin, H. 2001. Stadteile mit besonderem Entwicklungsbedarf – die Soziale Stadt. In Roggenthin, H (ed). Stadt – der Lebensraum der Zukunft?. Gegenwärtige raumbezogene Prozesse in Verdichtungs-räumen der Erde. Mainzer Kontaktstudium Geographie 7, Mainz: 79-87.
- Rohe, W.; Mouw, S. 1991. The Politics of Relocation: The Moving of the Crest Street Community. Journal of the American Planning Association (57): 57-68.
- Robson, B.; Parkinson, M.; Robison, F. 1994. Assessing the Impact of Urban Policy. London: HMSO.
- Ryde, R.; Reeve, R. 2003. Activation and Participation in England. Soziale Stadt (14): 8-9.
- Sassen, S. 1994. Cities in a world economy. Thousand Oaks, CA: Pine Forge Press.

- Schäfer et al. 2004. Bringing together the concepts of quality of life and sustainability, in Glatzer, W.; von Below, W.S.; Stoffregen, M. (eds). *Challenges for the Quality of Life in the Contemporary World*, Kluwer Academic Publishers, Social Indicators Series, vol. 24: 33-43.
- Schwirian, K. 1983. Models of Neighbourhood Change. *Annual Review of Sociology* (9): 83-102.
- Skalski, K. 2000. Rewitalizacja starych dzielnic miejskich. In Ziobrowski, Z. *Rewitalizacja, rehabilitacja, restrukturyzacja, odnowa miast*. IGPIK, Kraków.
- Skifter Andersen, H. 2001. What is the special purpose of area bases initiatives? How to understand deprived neighbourhoods. Paper for EURA Conference.
- Smith, N. 1986. Gentrification, the frontier and the restructuring of urban space. In N. Smith and P. Williams (eds.). *Gentrification of the City*. (Unwin Hyman, London): 15-34.
- Social Exclusion Unit. 1998. *Bringing Britain together: a national strategy for neighbourhood renewal*, The Stationery Office, London.
- Steinführer, A. 2004. *Wohnstandortentscheidungen und städtische Transformation, Vergleichende Fallstudien in Ostdeutschland und Tschechien*, Wiesbaden.
- Taylor, M. 1998. Combating the social exclusion of housing states, *Housing studies*: 13 (6): 819-832.
- Tsenkova, S. 2001. *Cities in Transition: Challenges for Urban Governance*. Urban Policy Futures. Ministry of Urban Development and Environmental Protection. Stockholm.
- UNCED (United Nations Conference on Environment and Development). 1992. *Earth Summit 92 (Agenda 21)*. London: Regency Press.
- UN-Habitat 2003. *The challenge of Slums*. UN-Habitat's new Global Report on Human Settlements.
- University Utrecht. 2004. *Cities in the New EU countries. Position, Problems, Policies*. Urban and Regional Centre Utrecht.
- Urban Task Force. 1999. *Towards an Urban Renaissance*, E & FN Spon, London.
- Van Kempen, R.; Özükcen, A.S. 1998. Ethnic Segregation in Cities. *Urban Studies*, 35 (10): 1631-56. Warren, R. L. 1963. *The community in America*. Rand McNally, Chicago.
- Węclawowicz, G. 2001. Transformation of large cities and urban centres in Poland – selected issues. In: Kitowski, J. *Spatial dimension of socio-economic transformation processes in Central and Eastern Europe on the turn of the 20th Century*, Maria Curie-Skłodowska University, Rzeszów.
- WCED. 1987. *Our Common Future: The world commission on Environment & Development*, Oxford University Press: Oxford.

The LUDA project is coordinated by:

IOER

Weberplatz 1

01217 Dresden

Germany

tel. + 49 351 4679 0

Fax + 49 351 4679 212

luda-team@ioer.de

For further information about the LUDA project, contact the coordination team or
visit the project web-site: www.luda-project.net

