

GUIDELINES FOR URBAN REGENERATION IN THE MEDITERRANEAN REGION



Priority Actions Programme Regional Activity Centre Split, January 2004

Table of Contents

	Preface	iii
1.	Introduction: Why is Urban Regeneration needed? 1.1. Rationale for Urban Intervention 1.2. Causes of Urban Degradation in the Mediterranean 1.3. Importance of Informal Sector 1.4. Coastal Context and Waterfront	1 3 5
2.	Characteristics of Urban Regeneration	7 7
3.	How to Start the Urban Regeneration Process 3.1. Triggers for Urban Regeneration	9 .12 .12 .12
4.	Process of Urban Regeneration	.15 .16 .19 .20
5.	Managing the Intervention 5.1. Public Participation and Partnerships 5.2. Funding 5.3. Monitoring and Evaluation 5.4. City Marketing 5.5. Governance and Participation 5.6. Project Sustainability	.28 .29 .30 .30
ANN	IEX I: Case Studies	. 33
Doo	ommandad Litaratura	15

Preface

The importance of urban problems for the development of the Mediterranean coastal regions was recognised early on by the Mediterranean Commission for Sustainable Development (MCSD) which operates within the Mediterranean Action Plan (MAP) as an advisory body to the Contracting Parties to the Barcelona Convention. In the period 1999-2001, a special working group, led by the MAP centres for Priority Actions Programme (PAP/RAC) and for the Blue Plan (BP/RAC), analysed the state of urban agglomerations in the Mediterranean and prepared draft proposals that were adopted by the MCSD and the Contracting Parties in November 2001.

A certain number of the recommendations referred to the built up parts of the towns. The existing urban structure in the Mediterranean region is characterised by two prominent features: existence of old historic parts; and proximity of the sea and orientation of the urban life towards the sea and harbours. In order to maintain this typical, high-quality character of the Mediterranean towns it is necessary to launch the process of urban regeneration, especially where reversible processes occurred with numerous negative economic, social, cultural, ecological and physical consequences. There is a general consensus that for launching the process of urban regeneration a strong political will of decision-makers is necessary, as well as considerable funds that often exceed the possibilities of the public sector. The latter points at the need to find innovative institutional solutions.

The process of urban regeneration in the Mediterranean, and especially in its southern parts, is at the very beginning, and in that respect the Mediterranean in general is lagging considerably behind the northern European countries. However, its importance in the Mediterranean is by no means lesser, and an initiative for its more systematic implementation is considered necessary.

In 2002, implementing the recommendations of the MCSD and the Contracting Parties to the Barcelona Convention, PAP/RAC launched the project "Urban Regeneration in the Mediterranean Region". The project enjoys financial support of the European Commission. Within the project seven case studies have been prepared (Aleppo, Alexandria, Athens, Barcelona, Istanbul, Split, Tunis). The studies cover a variety of urban situations in the coastal regions of the Mediterranean. They were presented at a regional workshop held in Split in July 2003. The workshop participants gave basic directions for the preparation of the Guidelines for Urban Regeneration as the final document of the said project.

The purpose of the document is not to give step-by-step instructions for the implementation of the urban regeneration process, or to present a universal recipe and generally accepted tools for the preparation and implementation of urban regeneration plans. Although in one part the document enters the technical sphere, it mostly remains at a general level which makes it interesting for a wider range of users. There are several reasons for that. First of all, Mediterranean urban and development contexts are so different from each other that it is impossible to propose a detailed and technically elaborated universal approach to, and method of urban regeneration. Secondly, a more detailed approach would require the preparation of a very large document which is beyond the scope of this project. And finally, at the early phase of implementation of the urban regeneration process in

the Mediterranean it is far more important to secure a wide base of supporters of the process than a relatively narrow group of the professionals. That could be the subject of another, similar project in the future.

The document is intended for decision-makers at the local and national levels. After reading the document, or at least its most important parts, they should accept the concept and act towards its becoming a dominant approach, both at the national (policy) and local (implementation) levels. However, the document should not remain uninteresting for the technicians, i.e. professionals within the town administrations and in the planning practice.

The document reflects the "state-of-the-art" in the field of urban regeneration in the Mediterranean, and is based on the experience of its authors. The basic inputs were provided by the authors of the case studies (Mr. Jellal Abdelkafi, Mr. Gojko Berlengi, Mr. Harry Coccossis, Mr. Manuel de Forn Foxa, Mr. Ahmed Hossam Hassan Aly, Mr. Ruşen Keleş, Mr. Adli Qudsi), and Mr. Zdravko Svigir who led the project. However, the greatest merit goes to the authors of the present document, Prof. Claude Chaline (Université de Paris XII) and Prof. Harry Coccossis (University of Thessaly, Greece).

A special expression of appreciation is due to Mr. Ivica Trumbic, Director, PAP/RAC, for his help in reviewing of the draft document, Mr. Neven Stipica and Ms. Zeljka Skaricic, Project Officers, PAP/RAC, for their editorial assistance, translators (Ms. Helen Kandji, Ms. Nicole Perrier), and Mr. Slobodan Pavasovic who prepared the document for publishing.

CHAPTER ONE

1. Introduction: Why is Urban Regeneration needed?

1.1. Rationale for Urban Intervention

The Mediterranean is characterised by strong urbanisation, particularly along its coasts. From 94 million inhabitants located in Mediterranean urban centres in the middle of the 20th century, the respective population reached 274 million in 2000. Urban population in the Mediterranean is expected to reach 378 million in 2025, with the southern shore of the Mediterranean showing a high growth potential. Urbanisation trends, strong since the 1960s, are expected to continue despite the recent decrease in demographic growth. According to the Mediterranean Commission for Sustainable Development, by the year 2025, more than 7 inhabitants out of 10 will probably be living in an urban centre in the Mediterranean region, and many of these urban centres are located in coastal areas. In coastal areas, urban population will remain stable for the northern Mediterranean coast in the next 25 years, while on the southern and eastern shores there could be an additional 30 million city dwellers. Whether stable or growing, urban centres are still expanding outwards.

Societies in the Mediterranean basin are now essentially urban. Mediterranean cities have evolved through the centuries from single and independent urban nuclei to complex modern metropolises, their role extending over increasingly wider regions. Many of the service or production industries which contribute to GDP growth (Gross Domestic Product) are located in the cities. However, at the same time, these cities and particularly the largest ones, accumulate dysfunctions in their intra-urban and peri-urban fabrics, in the fragmentation of social space, and many malfunctions in their economic foundations. At present they are facing complex problems but also new challenges:

- Attracting residents and economic activities faster than smaller towns and rural areas, Mediterranean cities are experiencing tremendous growth rates, increasing concentration in already dense urban cores but also fast sprawl outward over their hinterlands.
- Increasing global economic competition and geopolitical restructuring affect regional competitiveness and the locational preferences of economic activities ultimately affecting the role and attractiveness of cities.

These trends take on specific characteristics throughout the Mediterranean urban system although there are differences between the cities of the North and South. In spite of their diversities, Mediterranean cities are characterised by a combination of certain key elements which probably distinguish them from cities in other world regions, but which also structure the relevant planning issues and policies.

The cities of the Mediterranean region have been marginally affected by the industrial era and do not present the same industrial urban derelict lands, as the cities of the North. But as they opened to the world in the 19th and 20th centuries, they evidence a dualism, torn between the so-called European modern city and the old city, rich

with the heritage of monuments and national architecture (Aleppo, Cairo, Istanbul, Tunis) but where large populations inhabit dilapidated and unhealthy dwellings.

Over the past several decades all of these cities have sprawled over surrounding areas, where construction has been either organised and planned or totally spontaneous, unregulated, under-equipped, which is in fact the case for over half the new housing built annually (Cairo, Istanbul, Damascus). Unplanned squatter populations account for 33% of the urban population of Alexandria, while the city of Athens has grown with little planning or control. The pressure on land in the South results from the on-going rural exodus, from the trend toward de-concentration of city centres, and from the natural flows of over-population, in areas where demographic transition has only just begun. In the North, although populations are stabilised and ageing, the pressures on land continue nonetheless, due to the fact that generations live separately and invest in "stone".

The generalised urban spread is the source of many negative consequences:

- destruction, degradation of natural environments, often fragile, steep sloped and mountainous (e.g. Genoa, Algiers);
- irreversible consumption of land and reduction of agricultural potential (e.g. Cairo, Algiers);
- separation between dwelling and workplace, generating daily flows of vehicles, traffic jams, waste of time and air pollution;
- transformation of the urban form blurring clear city limits, and fragmenting city space by road networks;
- social and economic exclusion unevenly represented over the urban space and generating persisting pockets of deprivation.

Surveys generally stress the existence of deficient infrastructures in most cities of the South. These deficiencies are particularly apparent in:

- Water supply networks: old, not adapted to growth, lacking maintenance, they
 waste up to 30% of available water resources, already diminished by harsh
 climate conditions (the effects of draught on underground water tables and
 dams).
- Untreated industrial and domestic waste waters: these are often disposed of in natural spaces polluting them (e.g. Ghouta near Damascus), or into the sea and on the beaches thus rendering them inappropriate for tourism activities (e.g. Algiers, Gabes in Tunisia).
- Collection, storage and treatment of waste: these are fundamental concerns for the cities in the South since their increasing quantities (e.g. 1.7 million tons in the metropolitan area of Athens) are more often than not disposed of at illegal waste disposal sites. Recycling remains an exception.
- Over and above the deficient or lacking infrastructure, sanitary risks affect the poorest populations in under-privileged districts, such as in Alexandria.
- Inter-urban and intra-urban means of mass transportation are unevenly available. They can be excellent in some cases such as in the cities in South Cyprus (e.g. Paphos), while elsewhere private automobiles are a symbol of personal affluence and cause congestion, as in Cairo, despite the construction of two subway lines.

1.2. Causes of Urban Degradation in the Mediterranean

Most Mediterranean cities have high rates of population growth, immigration towards major centres and coastal cities, and increased urbanisation rate, especially in the metropolitan and coastal areas. However, there is also increasing evidence of lack of social cohesion; lack of respect for traditions; increased violence; growing social polarisation; inequalities in consumption patterns and income; etc. Environmental conditions are worsening with increasing demands on resources (particularly water, soil and energy) leading to degradation, increasing air pollution, degradation of ecosystems and landscapes, and loss of open spaces. Within cities, there is a high demand and high costs for housing, poor quality housing accommodation and inadequate financing. High densities and high land values, but also limited public financial resources, render the provision of basic infrastructure problematic. Mediterranean cities are characterised by unplanned and illegal urban expansion, unstable and heterogeneous spatial patterns of land use, lack of infrastructure and services. As a consequence there is a wide urban degradation in the Region.

Urban degradation in Mediterranean cities is evident in terms of:

- formation of distressed urban areas and pockets of deprivation due to social and economic exclusion;
- underutilisation of urban infrastructure in the centre and overburdened infrastructures in the periphery;
- transformation of the shape of the urban fabric blurring city limits and fragmenting the city space with infrastructure networks;
- housing and public services poorly adapted to special needs;
- creation of mono-functional districts, separation between dwelling and workplace generating traffic congestion and pollution;
- unsustainable consumption of land resources and agricultural space;
- environmental degradation taking the form of deteriorating air quality, rising noise levels, loss of open space, and increased vulnerability of natural and man-made amenities.

Cities are crossroads for exchange, social mix, human endeavours, as well as the strategic environment for integration to the new global economy. The above problems undermine the possibilities of many Mediterranean cities to assume a wider role in a global, national or regional framework of functional interdependence and exchange, ensure a path of economic and social development and a quality of life which would contribute to the welfare and happiness of their people. Yet, urban areas and cities in the Mediterranean are considered as strategic sites for the sustainable development of the Mediterranean region, as they:

- concentrate the majority of the countries' economic growth while offering considerable production factors;
- consume the largest part of resources while producing most of waste and pollution;
- host critical and serious social problems such as conflicts and violence, segregation and sanitary risks.

Despite often quite prestigious histories, visible in the inherited architecture of many urban sites, the traditional mechanisms used in the past to adapt urban fabric

and populations to changing environments are no longer operational. Over the past fifty years, they have become powerless to face the accelerating social needs, and technological progress, and economic systems are at risk from global competition.

Such problems which create physical, environmental, economic and social hazards are becoming more difficult to resolve, demanding innovative solutions in a process of urban management and regeneration. Although such a course seems evident, in the Mediterranean context there are several structural and contingency related constraints which often inhibit Mediterranean cities from pursuing innovative solutions and strategies:

- Institutional arrangements are often quite rigid and responsibilities are shared among many partners. Most of these are mainly central-level agencies in often highly centralised administrative systems organised along traditional sectoral compartments. Although there could be benefits in such arrangements from the point of view of effectiveness of co-ordination, there are also significant limitations in mobilising non-public sector partners, often essential contributors to complex undertakings.
- Partners are weak or not well organised to assume essential tasks, aggravating further an overburdened central administration. In many cases, Local Authorities are weak in policy making and technical capacities. The private sector is dominated by small to medium-size enterprises, often family based, lacking the capacity and the means to cope with competition. Therefore, governance, or a modern system of consultation to resolve emerging issues, is seriously handicapped.
- Financial resources are quite limited as many Mediterranean economies are in a process of transition, restructuring and modernisation, while the social, economic and environmental protection needs are immense, far beyond the capabilities of the local or national public finance systems. Often international donors who might contribute to the development of the cities in the Region have cumbersome procedures, through central administrative systems, while their focus is on infrastructure projects with heavy requirements in terms of programming which surpass the local capacities.

Urban degradation in the Mediterranean has shown that established institutional structures and **urban policies** during 1960s–1980s were proven insufficient given the scale and the complexity of modern Mediterranean cities. Furthermore, state planning strategies at the national level did not have the expected results while spatial planning tools, and more specifically Master Plans, could not regulate urban dynamics. A cursory assessment of their implementation for the eastern and southern coast of the Mediterranean Sea shows that:

- they are out of step with respect to societal problems and evolutions;
- their implementation was hindered by insufficient public financing and often by the lack of government control over land use and resources;
- they were elaborated in a centralised way while their application has run into inertia;
- their too great attention for the future of the urban macro-from has led to undertaking too extensive road equipment, new urbanisation without taking into account the deterioration process which followed in already urbanised areas.

Poor control of urban sprawl – an end result of a strong suburbanisation process – has been the case for Mediterranean countries of the North as well. The formal hierarchy of spatial and city plans, in parallel with ineffective responsible institutions, has provided little results, while these spatial planning tools are not adapted enough for inducing participation of "civil society" partners in the decision making process.

In most Mediterranean countries, urban planning is still strongly influenced by practices which bear no relevance to modern conceptualisations of planning:

- Emphasis is on building controls and land-use planning is disassociated from other instruments (economic and otherwise) allowing flexibility and responsiveness to change,
- Maintenance of a traditional system of planning tools with the exception of the problematic efforts of utilising the transfer of development rights,
- Overriding role of programming (and partial-selective implementation) of major transportation system interventions instead of strategic planning.

In most countries, these situations have led public authorities to undertake urban intervention programs, either in the form of authoritative, sector-related operations, or through wide-scale development plans, both difficult to implement. These endeavours have rarely been able to combat the signs and symptoms of the urban crisis, apparent in the saturated city centres, uncontrolled urban land development, deterioration of the labour market, deprivation and dilapidation of the living conditions, at the local level.

Opportunities for urban regeneration interventions are abundant however, particularly in cities with:

- degraded and over populated city centres needing complex urban renewal and redevelopment,
- under-utilized urban land on potentially most valuable locations (waterfront and harbour areas) necessitating increased land-use efficiency through the initiation of land recycling, in-fill development and re-development of underutilised waterfront area,
- declined or abandoned industrial or military areas as a result of economic restructuring and global de-industrialization making necessary the promotion of local economic development based on restructuring and privatisation, the attraction of foreign investments and transfer of technology,
- peripheral, illegally built residential areas of poor standard demanding efficient infrastructure and open spaces.

1.3. Importance of Informal Sector

In nearly all Mediterranean cities, high unemployment rates are the result of imbalance between job opportunities and the availability of the local labour force, which remains untapped. To counter the weakness or lack of assistance to the unemployed, a wide-ranging sector of so-called informal or unregulated, sometimes illegal, activities has emerged. According to World Bank data, such activities involve at least 40% of the urban working population in Morocco and Egypt, at least 30% in Tunisia, Algeria and Greece, and at least 20% in Italy.

Spread of informal employment in	Tunisian cities
industry and craftsmanship	53,9%
home workers	24,4%
construction workers	10,9%
others	18,6%
trade	24,2%
itinerant	2,9%
shops	21,3%
services	21,9%
repairs and restoration	13,6%
transport	8,3%

The informal sector is usually composed of small family businesses, intensive in manual labour and low on capitalisation, but must not be confused with the pockets of poverty. It can serve as a flexible means of mediation, linking changing urban societies and economies that are too slow to adapt to these changes.

Beyond the data on the informal sector, industrial activities in most Mediterranean cities are either stabilised or declining, and the prevalence of service-related activities is the rule, in public administration, healthcare and education.

1.4. Coastal Context and Waterfront

Majority of the Mediterranean cities were the result of sea-borne trade, and represented sources of opportunity for local populations, in terms of employment, exchange, innovation and influence, as in Dubrovnik, Genoa or Venice. The split between the city and its harbour began during the past decades. Harbour structures are not adapted to the technical requirements of container ships, and are obnoxious for residents (circulation of heavy trucks, noise, pollution and potential technological risks). However, there are differences in these situations:

- modernisation of equipment on site, as in Cadix;
- full relocation and the opportunity to recover urban territories, such as in Barcelona, Alicante, Genoa, Valetta, Beirut and Tunis;
- disappearance of heavy sea-borne traffic and enhancement of existing passenger circulation and cruise stopovers, as in Marseilles, Athens and Split;
- maintained sea-borne activities, as in Algiers.

In all these harbour-cities, there exists an abundant heritage of infrastructure and equipment, testifying to the evolution in harbour technology and now a part of industrial archaeology. This includes former official buildings (harbour masters, customs...) and gigantic warehouses, built to last for centuries (Naples, Genoa); beautifully built military installations, such as in Valetta, Alicante and Bonifacio in Corsica. Urban regeneration also takes into account these monuments of the bustling past of sea-related activities, as they are essential to urban tourism strategies. But harbour cities, such as Barcelona, Athens and Algiers, are experiencing strong urbanisation dynamics, and when soil topography does not allow the development of the hinterland, the waterfront artificialisation occurs, as in Algiers, Genoa and Alexandria. These different forms of coastal land use can go from better to worse and require the implementation of protective measures and regulations.

CHAPTER TWO

2. Characteristics of Urban Regeneration

Urban regeneration has been tested and implemented in the most advanced countries and may be the answer to the issues of the future for many Mediterranean cities. Many cities have already launched such operations (Barcelona, Marseilles, Genoa). The analysis and assessment of these endeavours highlight the ways and means favourable to the generalised implementation of urban regeneration in the Mediterranean system, while respecting historical and institutional features, as well as the uniqueness of each case and locality.

2.1. Definition of Urban Regeneration

The concept of urban regeneration may be interpreted in a number of ways, depending on the level of development of the country. In the most developed economies, the goal is to promote a "return to the city", revitalise the city centre, restore activity in a fiercely competitive international context, and implement initiatives to improve the quality of the environment operating in a wide sense towards a smart growth.

In emerging economies, qualitative initiatives have to be kept in mind, but must imperatively be aligned with quantitative requirements as well.

Urban regeneration was first formalised in the U.S.A. in the 1960s, when relocation of marine activities triggered the total abandonment of large territories, which have become harbour derelict lands. Municipalities have often reassigned these empty urban lands to central business type of activities as in Boston, Baltimore and New Orleans. In the 1980's, a second phase was launched, on the London Docklands, and then in Barcelona. Urban regeneration led to the complete transformation of empty lands, through reconstruction of multi-activity "bits of the city". Later, in the 1990's, urban regeneration was launched in many urban areas, often densely populated, functionally heterogeneous, but facing many urban malfunctions.

Generally speaking, there may be three reasons why urban regeneration is taking place:

- Imposed regeneration after a long period of abandonment of derelict land (e.g. London Docklands), or severe dilapidation of living conditions in a district.
- Opportunistic regeneration where public and private investors are on the lookout for available land for a big project (e.g. Barcelona, Athens).
- Preventive or prospective urban regeneration in areas where the social and economic fabrics have deteriorated (e. g. Istanbul, Aleppo, Alexandria).

2.1. Strategic Dimensions of Urban Regeneration

Over time, urban regeneration has evolved from a simple form of renovation or rehabilitation of obsolete infrastructure and built-up land, to targeting the restructuring of the urban fabric, the renewal of the urban economy, or the city

image, while seeking more social interaction and equity, the participation of local populations and their social and professional integration into a multi-functional context.

Designated by different structures, according to the countries involved, urban regeneration is today an integral part of national urban policies. It has become a new activity in the city, while urban territories are the testing and implementation grounds of the strategies that are now required. This is why it is gradually implementing the principles of sustainable development, which theoretically implies the slow-down of urban sprawl, combat against pollution, hazardous to public health, as well as natural and technological risk prevention.

2.2. Multiple Dimensions of Urban Regeneration

The aim of urban regeneration is to take into consideration the complexity of urban dynamics. To this end, it is applied through horizontal approaches which comprise several fundamental principles:

It is **location-specific**, as it deals with the difficulties specific to all urban components. But it aims at reducing disparities, within the global vision of a more homogeneous social environment.

It covers different timeframes, as it answers to the social needs at present, and then those of long-term sustainability, aimed at predicting the future change. It also includes the lessons of the past, since in most Mediterranean cities today, consensus is largely in favour of the conservation of urban heritage following a period of destruction to cater to modernisation, in the 1960s-1970s.

It is multidimensional, as it is applied by many different public and private stakeholders. Urban regeneration must serve to overcome contradictions, through negotiation, and prioritisation of the objectives. Priorities depend on the alignment between national policies and local strategies. Urban regeneration strategies are implemented in one sector and induce positive effects elsewhere.

Priority objectives of urban regeneration may be:

- economic: to attract investors, create employment, renew the urban economy (as in the case of former industrial cities in the Anglo-Saxon world, e.g. Manchester),
- social: to enlarge the supply of urban housing and develop local infrastructure ("politique de la ville" in France),
- environmental: to improve living conditions, combat pollution (Agenda 21), while taking into account the values and preferences of society and each social group,
- cultural:, to enhance architectural heritage (historic core) and urban tourism, or to attract research and academic institutions (e.g. Alexandria, Split).

CHAPTER THREE

3. How to Start the Urban Regeneration Process

The primary aim of urban regeneration is to address the complex dynamics of modern urban areas and their problems by revitalising their economic, social, environmental and cultural functions. So the process starts from an analysis of urban problems.

The particular complexity of urban problems in each city drives to a large extent the need for urban regeneration, its focus and scale:

- The *need* prescribes the goals and objectives, that is, the desirable ends towards which an urban regeneration process is to lead.
- The *focus* provides structure (and priorities) to the various multiple-dimension actions in the form of key interventions/projects.
- The *scale* refers to the spatial and financial extent of the intervention.

The particularities of each case drive up to a certain extent the initiation of the process in the sense that starting the process can be generated under various stimuli: economic, social, environmental or institutional.

- Economic stimuli can be positive or negative, in a sense of opportunities or threats like a drive to capture new dynamic sectors (i.e. research and development, tourism, etc.) and markets (trade flows) or dampen the effect of declining sectors (i.e. shipbuilding and heavy industries, etc.) or shrinking markets.
- Social stimuli can be also positive or negative in the sense of providing for changing needs and lifestyles (i.e. cultural events, etc.) or facing social problems (i.e. poverty areas, natural disaster areas, ghetto districts, etc.).
- Environmental causes might also provide an impetus to urban regeneration, mostly on the negative side, in the sense of addressing the problems of urban districts with acute environmental degradation or environmental risks, etc.
- Institutional/political causes can be at the basis of launching a process of urban regeneration in the sense that new opportunities can be captured or new threats can be the challenges as, for example, when broader geopolitical changes (like the EU or the Euro-Mediterranean Partnership, etc.) or a new legal regime (i.e. a new planning instrument) or a special event (i.e. world expo, Olympic games, etc.) or a new leadership (i.e. change in Mayor or Government) can offer new economic, social and cultural opportunities for change.

3.1. Triggers for Urban Regeneration

Initiatives in favour of urban regeneration may be strictly local, in particular in countries where structures are federal or decentralised, as in the U.S.A. This is rarely the case in the Mediterranean, with the exception of Spain. Furthermore, in

emerging countries, only the State has the indispensable resources, such as in the Southern Mediterranean countries, from Syria to Morocco.

Most often, such initiatives are the result of national, regional, urban or land development policies. This is the case of Athens, Greece, where a law of 1998 divides the national territory into three development districts. Each district is covered by a Regional Operational Program supported by funds from the European Union which allows municipalities to apply their policies. Croatia has a National Urban Strategy, with spatial and technical requirements. In Tunisia, since 1985, National Land Development Master Plans have attempted to control the migratory flows of populations leaving the rural areas for the cities, but have not been successful in preventing the inflow of population to Tunis. In such cases, the Ministry of Economic Development, which manages financial resources, can only implement projects to meet the needs of the city itself.

As opposed to the direct involvement of the State in major urban extension works or in the creation of new towns, urban regeneration is a slowly maturing process, a synthesis of local demands, endogenous deficiencies, local authority projects and support from the central government. Changes in national political regimes can endow municipal authorities with greater autonomy, as in Barcelona where, since 1979, the municipality has played a prominent role in urban regeneration initiatives.

These initiatives can be combined with a major international media event to motivate local and national authorities as well as their support structures, as demonstrated in Seville, Genoa, Barcelona, and now Athens, for the Olympic Games of 2004.

The involvement of private investors remains limited and is essentially focused on urban interventions on new land. However, such interventions can have an impact on the potential regeneration of derelict urban zones. This is the case in Tunis, where the lack of investors led to the abandonment of the warehouse area in the old harbour, close to the city centre, while the capital flowing in from the Gulf emirates was invested in the urbanisation of the borders of the Lake.

In the older districts, private initiatives can be organised by professionals, architects for example, who can relocate to these areas and trigger renovation projects, as in some of the old districts of Istanbul.

The abundant information on urban regeneration may give the impression that these policies are only applied in large cities, through the strong support of the State. However, urban regeneration projects are also implemented in small or mediumsized towns. In some countries, local elected officials and economic stakeholders (Chambers of Commerce) may be involved, as well as external investors.

Often it is a combination of factors which stimulates societies to take up the opportunity for urban regeneration. Furthermore, an urban regeneration process can start in a planned manner, that is under conditions of anticipating changes and acting early (planning context), or as a response to an anticipated event (like in the case of the Olympic Games), or the creation of new major infrastructure or centre of activity (new airport or port or a University or a Business complex), or in political visioning, or even a response to a natural (or other) disaster, etc. So, in theory, but also in practice, an urban regeneration process can start under any conditions.

Regardless of the stimulus for starting the process there have to be some *key elements* or preconditions present to trigger the process, that is, a combination of factors which will eventually create favourable conditions for translating intentions into an operational and eventually successful program of intervention. Among these factors, the most important are:

- A long-term perspective. There is no doubt that urban change takes a long time, and in that sense a strategic view is important to guide the urban regeneration process. This would provide assistance in maintaining the interest and commitment of the key actors towards a common cause.
- Political will and commitment. It is evident that political support is necessary to muster the key actors and the community towards a complex intervention such as urban regeneration. Any long-term intervention is bound to meet economic/financial, political or other kinds of fluctuations due to changes in the external or internal policy context. In this respect societal commitment is important to keep up the process.
- Multi-actor/stakeholder participation. The scale and complexity of urban regeneration often exceeds the capacities of local, regional or national authorities to generate change, although in some occasions this cannot be excluded as an option. In most cases mobilising a multiplicity of actors is important. It is evident that each actor is expected to pursue a limited number of actions, suitable to its role and capacity, but within a broad common framework.
- Organisational framework. This is an important element in structuring participation and can be conceived in terms of rules and procedures regarding decisions and priority setting.
- Institutional/legal framework. This requires the existence of an enabling framework to proceed with the intervention, and is often the most difficult factor as the rule is that there is a multiplicity of fragmented and overlapping responsibilities which hinder large-scale, complex interventions.
- *Financing*. An obvious necessity given the scale and complexity of the intervention. It is often the single factor which is responsible for stalling such complex interventions.
- Maintaining the process. This is a central element in urban regeneration since
 it provides the basic axis for an urban regeneration activity. In this sense it
 provides a structuring axis for all of the above factors. The key element in
 maintaining the process is a system of monitoring and evaluation.

Furthermore, it is necessary to launch the process. This should get started through an in-depth reconnaissance of the existing situation, an exploration of trends, and mapping of the existing problems and opportunities. This would be the basis for identifying, in the sense of outlining, the basic project goals, objectives and characteristics. As a cyclical process, urban regeneration requires a gradual development along the following steps without implying strict linearity, from one to the next. For example, since participation is important, it is necessary to identify early the key actors to be mobilised. This is an outcome of an analysis of the existing institutional context, but also of identifying opportunities for action. So there is a continuous process of gradual formulation of the intervention.

3.2. Launching the Process

Once the basic elements (components) of the intervention (strategy) are put in place, the necessary actions (measures) should be specified. These are expressed as a combination of regulatory, economic (incentives, taxation, etc.) and physical (infrastructure projects, renovation actions, etc.), as well as organisational measures.

3.2.1. Organising the Framework

The existing institutional framework provides a good basis for starting to build up a framework for urban regeneration. This is only the first basis though, and is used to identify the needs for institutional action, but also to identify the key actors (an early action as already mentioned above). The decision on the appropriate organisational form (i.e. Commission, Special Agency, etc.) depends on the possibilities of the institutional context, the actors and their individual strategies and resources, and the desirable outcome in terms of focus and characteristics (goals and objectives-strategy). It is obviously a mix of official (public and semipublic) sector, private entrepreneurs, NGOs (those appropriate) and the resident community (represented appropriately). Depending on the financing and the institutional context, international agents (UN, EU, the World Bank, etc.) might also be appropriate to be included.

Key decisions involve the structuring of decision making in terms of strategic decisions (executive function and guidance), management and intelligence support (programming, information gathering, monitoring and evaluation) and operational decisions (implementation where many of the actors are involved).

3.2.2. Expertise Needed

A complex undertaking such as urban regeneration requires a multiplicity of experts beyond the obvious, that is urban planners, infrastructure planners, transport planners, environmental planners, social planners, etc., who are expected to put the basics on the ground. There are at least three areas of expertise needed where most Mediterranean cities are often lacking previous experience: financing and financial management, marketing and promotion, communication and participation.

The need for financing expertise has been already raised above, but it is an area where the public sector is deficient, and in that respect it has to rely on other pools of expertise. The difficulty in that is that, to a large extent, the public sector is involved as well, so a good knowledge of public sector financing (regulations, procedures, etc.) is essential. Thus, a team is often necessary.

Marketing and promotion are obvious skills necessary to draw non-public partners (organisations, associations, institutions and individuals) to participate and undertake activities towards urban regeneration. As at the base of urban regeneration is to induce change through economic development opportunities it is obvious that capturing and mobilising the interest of potential partners is crucial. Selling the idea rests to some extent on marketing which is, to a large extent, linked also to financing as both provide the basis for building partnerships. This is also an area in which there is little experience in the Mediterranean cities.

A major characteristic of the urban regeneration process is the full consensus from the local communities obtained through a well-planned strategy during the initiation and execution of the projects. This consensus permits to maintain the regeneration impulse of the city, as well as incorporates the various sensibilities and knowledge from the citizens. So the needs for expertise include also in most cases participation and communication skills to maintain the process by forging consensus and ironing out conflicts in addition to maintaining a dialogue among the partners. Except adept politicians there is very little experience in that area in terms of professional skills in the Mediterranean cities.

3.2.3. Institutional Arrangements

Institutional arrangements and structure are a difficult policy area which needs special attention in urban regeneration. It is evident that all Mediterranean cities and countries dispose of a wide range of actors with quite diverse responsibilities which are likely to be present in an urban regeneration project. The temptation would be to create multi-agency structures to ensure co-ordination, often an impossible task in a context which requires flexibility and efficiency in decision-making to cope with fast changing conditions at the market. To a large extent the options for institutional arrangements are based on the existing legislation and set practices. However, urban regeneration requires innovation as it is all based on two key components: PPP (public-private partnerships) and a process. These two should be the driving forces for structuring the institutional basis of urban regeneration, and there is no magic formula towards that.

Experience and theory have demonstrated that the key elements are: the public sector (national and local in most cases, port authorities, transport, tourism, etc.), occasionally international actors, the private sector (often from finance, construction, commerce, tourism, telecommunications, etc.) and the civic society (professional associations, NGOs, social and environmental groups, etc.).

3.2.4. Legislative Basis

A good legislative basis is often necessary to overcome rigidities in set patterns of relationships and decision making. Enabling special legislation is often necessary in two aspects: setting the public-private partnership interface (development regulation, development rights, economic instruments, etc.), and supporting the process and related decision making. Neither is an easy endeavour, and experience shows that it takes a lot of time to provide the legal framework for urban regeneration.

CHAPTER FOUR

4. Process of Urban Regeneration

All countries involved are striving to organise urban regeneration within the new urban policies at national and local levels. The *Beautiful City* slogan has been replaced by the *Efficient City*, and success stories are communicated through urban marketing channels. However, from an operational standpoint, urban regeneration can not ignore the need for legal texts and rules adapted to the wealth and complexity of each geographical and environmental context. This requires the establishment of new forms of balance between the local and global. In some cases, the response will be *think globally and act locally*, or *think locally in the legal city and implement globally in the real urbanised area.* In all Mediterranean countries, over and above the fundamental factors stemming from a wide variety of natural features and cultural heritage, the implementation of urban regeneration must still take into account:

- the national political and administrative structures, and the means and degrees of authority at each scale;
- the decision-making circuits and the extent of democratisation;
- the ability to find trade-offs between the general interest, covered by public authorities, and the private interest, emerging under the trend towards globalisation and market economy.

Urban regeneration, as any other applied form of urban policy, can be sub-divided into several stages over time, which are regularly assessed to implement change whenever required, in view of the short and long-term uncertainties in the evolution of urban societies.

There are various problems which can trigger an interest to the need for urban regeneration:

- Economic: limited private investments, unemployment, declining urban economies, economic mono-culture, declining entrepreneurship, etc.;
- Social: declining and ageing population, poverty, deteriorating services and infrastructure, etc.;
- Spatial: pockets of deprivation, high-density residential areas, illegal residential development, etc.;
- Environmental: loss of open spaces, air pollution, increased noise levels, degradation of urban landscape, destruction of cultural sites and monuments, etc.;
- Institutional: complex and outdated urban management framework, poor implementation, overlapping responsibilities.

4.1. Major Steps in Urban Regeneration Process

4.1.1. Analysis of Current Situation

The Analysis of the Current Situation is the first step of any regeneration project. However, while diagnosis is necessary, it is not always enough to motivate decisions, and, adversely, regeneration operations may be undertaken where there is no urgent need for them, to satisfy other motivations, such as prestige or speculation.

Urban regeneration projects are based on many objective criteria:

- They can be general, covering the entire metropolitan area, as in Split, where
 the population has been fast decreasing since 1991, essentially due to the
 rising unemployment. This has been the case in most industrialised cities of
 Europe over several decades, with the decline in local GDP, the deficits in
 municipal budgets and the disinvolvement of external investors, shying away
 from economically unattractive cities.
- They can be specific to some parts of the metropolitan area. Population
 census does not readily yield reliable data on the real status of the current
 situation, the social unease, or the deterioration of living conditions. More
 reliable data on the present and future trends can be collected through
 surveys and questionnaires.

The following are examples of the most preoccupying issues in the Mediterranean:

- Squatter areas, where populations and children in particular are threatened by health hazards and rising mortality, due to the lack of sanitation networks and accumulated waste. Three squatter areas west of Alexandria (El Toubgia, Maawa El Sayadeen and Tanneries) are a perfect example of such extreme situations.
- Old town districts, where dilapidated dwellings are over-populated, roads saturated, hazardous activities undertaken, and where surveys are the only means of collecting reliable data.
- **Historical** centres, where architectural heritage is concentrated, requiring indepth evaluation of the state of the buildings, land use, access and the various networks.
- Existence and formation of urban derelict land are frequently observed in the most industrialised cities of the North, leaving empty space (deserted harbours or railways), or abandoned buildings (warehouses, factories, barracks). The impact is still not as strong in the South, but should, in a medium term, affect harbour sites, wedged too deeply in the urban fabric (e.g. Algiers), as well as under-used land, often available for reuse.
- Social unease and unrest of large housing developments, particularly in the Northern cities, such as Marseilles, are also visible in other cities, such as Algiers.
- Economic decline of city centres and their degree of congestion, are demonstrated by the decline in the number of inhabitants, building vacancies, and reduced revenues of commercial establishments.

 Visual disarray and disorganised spaces around the entrance to the city, smothered by the proliferation of stores, hypermarkets and advertising. This is mainly the case of cities in the North, bringing about the decline of the central city.

In all cases, diagnosis is helpful to identify the constraints and assets of each site, and the related potential for regeneration. All diagnoses must include an in-depth analysis of the state of the land, its structures, divisions and the applicable private or public legal regime. Much of this information can be organised in a Geographical Information System (GIS).

Environmental assessment is at the centre of urban regeneration not only in terms of the impacts of the intervention on resources and environmental components but also in providing a good quality environment as a prerequisite for improving the attractiveness of a city. The environment is often mentioned as one of the highest-ranking factors in locational preferences of modern sector activities. Furthermore, improving the environment is a basic component of a strategy for sustainable development of cities. Therefore, environmental assessment acquires a key role since it identifies key problems and options as central parts of a strategy for urban regeneration. Degraded areas from the environmental quality point of view, are often target areas for urban regeneration as they combine other characteristics like abandonment, decaying structures, etc.

An analysis of trends and opportunities for the future is an integral part at this stage. Trends are perceived in urban regeneration not in terms of extending past tendencies, but rather as identifying desirable future(s) in the sense of exploring the policy options to face problems and capture opportunities. This obviously relates to the triggering factors, that is the main problems identified as a basis for urban regeneration, and on this basis it involves:

- exploring the broader economic and social development issues;
- foreseeing the anticipated development of the city in terms of the existing policies and planned projects/programs; and
- identifying the opportunities for action.

4.1.2. Goals and Objectives

One of the main difficulties in urban regeneration is the choice and determination of objectives, and the future of the inhabitants, the local activities and the built-up surfaces must be taken into account. The industrial derelict land may also need to be de-polluted and decontaminated. These specific requirements increase the cost of urban regeneration operations, as compared to urban development of new land beyond the city. This is the issue of the "brownfield" versus "greenfield" urban development, which depends on the national choices in terms of urban policies, as in the UK and in France, where the emphasis is on projects to promote a return to the city and the development of compact cities.

The main goals of an urban regeneration project could be to:

- promote rehabilitation of complex urban structures;
- improve the environment, as well as the quality of life of inhabitants and city dwellers;

- preserve the valuable and unique fabric of the selected areas;
- control-reverse the deterioration of specific urban zones (i.e. residential, commercial, etc.);
- restructure economic activities located in the urban fabric.

Some objectives are general and apply to the entire metropolitan area, in morphological, economic and social fields, such as:

- The slowdown of urban spread, to prevent the well-known negative effects. The method selected was the creation of green belts, such as around English cities, and redirecting the growth towards *new towns*. In Cairo, an unsuccessful attempt was made to stem urban sprawl by building a ring road, one of the rare times such an approach was used in the Mediterranean.
- The reorganisation of the urban macro-shape, so as to restore balance in the otherwise uneven development of geographical areas, and to smooth over the disparities among their activities and social groups. This has been the long-standing strategy applied in the reorganisation of Greater London and the city of Paris. This option involves building communication thoroughfares and developing mass transportation, to interconnect the different metropolitan areas.
- The renewal of the economy and abandoned urban functions were, and still are in some cases, the priority objectives for all regeneration strategies, particularly in the most developed countries. In all Mediterranean countries, although to varying degree, the contribution of the production industry is declining in favour of service industries.

The following options could be chosen for regeneration strategies:

- Implantation of high-tech industries is the choice made by some cities to develop their regeneration policies, and this option also includes the creation of science parks and small-enterprise incubators, as well as the existence or location of higher education institutions or universities. These choices require the city to be well endowed with the new technologies of information and communication (ICT) and in high-speed IT networks, as in Marseilles, where beams connect Europe to Africa.
- Growth of service activities is a strong contributor to the regeneration of urban economy, and also requires ICT facilities to attract business headquarters, particularly in such dynamic fields as finance, insurance, consulting and management. Along with activities requiring highly qualified staff, there also exist those with a large job offering for less qualified personnel, in *call centres*, for example.
- Development of urban tourism has become essential to any urban regeneration project, due to the intensification of exchanges. It goes beyond the seasonal tourists of seaside cities. Visitor flows are triggered by conferences, exhibitions, cultural or sports events. The resulting financial revenues often represent the largest share of the local GDP, as in Athens or Rome. This field of business may be vulnerable to the risks of political events and tensions, but prospective studies have shown that it is sustainable, and therefore requires the improvement of circulation infrastructures (e.g. high-speed train in Barcelona, new airport in Athens and the planned one in Algiers). The same applies to the need for greater capacity for entertainment

- and accommodation availability, particularly in the city centre, where upmarket hotel investments are considered as more profitable than office buildings.
- Establishment of higher-education institutions is another interesting component of urban regeneration. Research and development are areas of growing interest, and training centres need to be readily accessible. They are now reappearing in more central locations, after the trend towards remote campuses. Buildings are transformed, such as old religious buildings (in Italy), warehouses, barracks (in Constantine), factory buildings in Paris, within the framework of the extensive Seine Rive Gauche urban operation where, next to the New Library, 120,000 m² of floor space have been reserved for higher education institutions. The return of universities to the cities is favoured by many municipalities, which are convinced that this will restore the dynamics of city centres or their immediate surroundings, and allow for more social movements. This cultural option entails the creation of museums, media libraries, sources of information for the populations. Higher education establishments enrich the quality of human resources in a city hungry for regeneration and make it more potentially attractive to external investors.

These options are sometimes applied in combination, and target the transformation of the urban fabric, the landscape, the functions, the image of the city and its attractiveness, as in Manchester, Glasgow, Bordeaux, Marseilles and Barcelona.

Refurbishing a railway station or a bus station, reorganising large thoroughfares, building tramway lines, all efficiently contribute to the centrality of the city, or, more often, serve to establish polycentric urban structures with new and attractive housing, as in Barcelona and Marseilles.

Social objectives can be the main focus, within the framework of a national policy directed towards the consolidation of urban social fabric and greater social mix, as in French legislation, dated 1999, establishing that in each city, at least 20% of the rentals in town housings must be available, within the scope of the local "renewal policy". Between 2004 and 2008, the State is also planning urban renovation for 200,000 dilapidated units, as well as the demolition and reconstruction of 200,000 others, usually located in the older districts.

Free trade zones are often created in the name of the positive action principle where tax advantages are granted to attract businesses, create jobs, and reduce unemployment rates. In many Mediterranean cities, the focus shall be on urban renovation operations in squatter areas, emerging as the consequence of the shortage or improper use of public housing.

While the objectives of sustainable development, of improved living conditions, of available structural equipment, of risk prevention and protection are never ignored, they are rarely the main focus. They are applied more in support of, or as a complement to the aforementioned choices, within the framework of multidimensional projects, specifically adapted to regeneration in the different areas. However, water supply and sanitation networks must be considered as integral parts of any project.

Objectives could also include the need to:

• restore buildings, rehabilitate private residences and upgrade infrastructure;

- identify, analyse and define business needs for selected areas (urban core, city outskirts, etc.);
- develop new business and professional opportunities;
- establish indirect measures (infrastructure) and direct tools to encourage economic growth;
- organise capacity building for institutions and agencies responsible for urban management and physical planning;
- enhance the provision of community-based integrated basic services for the vulnerable population groups;
- empower communities by increasing their problem-solving, management and negotiation skills;
- promote public participation on the national level for urban regeneration policy and support.

4.1.3. Developing a Strategy

The goals and objectives should be accompanied by a description of the basic characteristics of the intervention. Such characteristics refer to the key planning interventions, the financial scheme and organisational structures. These are the outcome of translating the goals and objectives into a strategy, meaning a coherent and co-ordinated system of actions in spatial and temporal sequences, organised to achieve the desired ends (goals and objectives).

This part requires the assignment of the task to a key agency or special organisation with a strong technical capacity in planning for urban development also assuming (or assisted by a parallel and interrelated structure) the role to mobilise and organise a funding support. There are various organisational schemes with a wide diversity of role/task assignments reflecting the division of responsibilities, manpower and expertise in human resources, but also the experience and technical/financial capacities of various actors.

To a large extent, the strategy will influence decisions on organisational/institutional arrangements as, at the same time, such structures might influence the development of the strategy itself. This part of the process could be also a central thrust for establishing the basic framework of procedures (the spine of governance as a process) providing for consultation, consensus building/conflict resolution.

Urban regeneration strategies are location specific. While the trend is to enhance homogeneity between different urban areas and to combat segregation, urban regeneration must not target complete uniformity, which is probably only possible in new towns.

Each of the city's territories must resolve its own difficulties, respect its own social fabric, memory, heritage, and enhance its traditional or new potentials. Regeneration strategies must be applied to every urban sub-system by the combination of several objectives:

• In squatter or unregulated areas, the focus must be on water supply and sanitation networks, as well as on waste disposal, improvement of the road

network, and the creation of schools, health facilities, city hall office annexes, etc.

- In the old dilapidated districts, the focus must be on the rejuvenation of buildings, in close co-operation with the owners, the inhabitants, and public aid organisations as in Barcelonetta (Barcelona), or in the Panier district (Marseilles). In the absence of public funding, the move to rehabilitation could stem from the arrival of middle-class inhabitants, as in Galatà, in Istanbul, but with the risk of partial *gentrification*. These projects require upgrading of all networks.
- In the central historical parts of the city, as in the old town of Aleppo, or in Barcelona, the goal is the conservation, preservation and enhancement of the still inhabited traditional built-up surfaces (110,000 people in Aleppo), to attract urban tourism territories, while avoiding *museumification*. To further upgrade the built-up surfaces, cultural buildings must be constructed, networks restored, pedestrian areas created. Traditional businesses must be maintained and service activities introduced to renew the local economy. This, of course, depends on the changes in image and attractiveness of the city areas and their integration in the global economy of the metropolitan real estate market. In these historical districts, as in Aleppo or Genoa, municipalities are careful to avoid any "trade-related" drift and to retain the residents, while encouraging rehabilitation of the architectural heritage, today threatened by ruin. These are ambitious challenges and require imagination and know-how.
- In the large derelict urban zones and deserted industrial, harbour or railway lands, complete reorganisation and new urban composition are necessary. Only the existing buildings of quality will be preserved, renovated and transformed, thus ensuring the survival of the memory of the site. These zones are large enough to be used for different functions (housing, offices, public areas), but other activities are also emphasised, such as entertainment, trade, leisure, culture, and are the prevalent choice in all regenerated waterfronts, as in the old port of Barcelona, with the *Mare Magnum* commercial mall, the aquarium, the *World Trade Centre* and the *IMAX* movie complex.

4.1.4. Planning for Urban Regeneration

Urban regeneration does not require special procedures and can be undertaken, in most cases, with the existing policy tools and instruments which, however, must be carefully selected. The scope of the operations determines which tools and instruments are to be used: the plot, the block or the district. They also depend on the stringency of the regulations enforced. If these are weak, as in the South, more control will be needed; if they are strong, as in the North, more flexibility is necessary.

The control of land is absolutely the first mandatory aspect to cover, since territories are already urbanised and belong to different owners whose legitimate rights must be observed. When regeneration entails restructuring the entire plot of land and new land assembly, the following methods are used:

- agreed and negotiated purchase;
- pre-emption, if this rule applies in the country involved;
- eviction, if absolutely necessary, but this procedure is often traumatic.

Where the built-up surfaces are old, negotiations are organised with the owners, so that they accept to contribute to regeneration work expenses. If no agreement can be reached, the local authorities buy back or evict, as in the Old Town of Barcelona or Ciutat Vella. The transfer of development rights procedure can be helpful to create an open area for example, to air out the urban fabric. The owner, deprived of his development rights, receives compensation in the form of rights to another part of the city. This negotiation spares the municipal authorities from having to pay out high indemnities.

The traditional tools of spatial planning, at various scales, zoning, density, land-use patterns, are not ideal to meet the needs of urban regeneration, which requires:

- adapting to local demands and shorter time span than that of developers,
- responding with flexibility to the national and international economic context and its cycles, which determine the availability and decisions of public and, mostly, private investors,
- local authorities and developers to implement and ensure compliance with local urban development plans.

General change depends on the usefulness and efficiency of Master Plans, applied to an entire metropolitan area, as well as on the relation between these Plans and the local projects.

Project-based strategic planning seems the best option. It offers a wide range of interpretations and choices for zoning (combined land and building use), organisation of open space and built-up areas, and of their density. When permissions to build are granted, each aspect is discussed and defined between the developers and the technical urban development services, to stay aligned with local plans.

Programming is very useful in the pre-operational phase, and essentially involves the expected volumes, expressed in square meters of floor surface for each of the major components. Plans in the major Seine Rive Gauche regeneration operation in Paris over a surface of 136 ha, include, in agreement with residents' associations, $430,000 \text{ m}^2$ residential space for 5,000 different types of housing, to host 20,000 inhabitants, $730,000 \text{ m}^2$ of office space for 60,000 jobs, $210,000 \text{ m}^2$ for higher education, to accommodate 30,000 students, $400,000 \text{ m}^2$ for shops and services, and $98,000 \text{ m}^2$ of open space.

In regeneration operations on almost entirely deserted land, the projects often include one or several flagship developments which can be a tower, as on the Canary Wharf in the London docklands, or a museum, as the Guggenheim in Bilbao, or the New Tate Gallery on the London South Bank.

Specific plans, implying restrictions, building constraints and obligations as to the nature of the buildings are still required in some instances in:

 historical districts, falling under country-specific legal mechanisms for heritage protection: the Secteurs Sauvegardés in France, as in Montpellier, the PERI (Plan de réforme intérieure) as in Barcelona;

- areas vulnerable to natural risks, which impose construction regulations to protect against earthquakes, and in areas prone to floods where construction is prohibited;
- housing located near dangerous industrial establishments, or near sources of severe pollution.

Implementation stages depend on the scope and nature of the regenerated sites:

- On very large sites, each block, district, or piece of equipment, is sold to a
 developer who is granted permission to build and to carry out the project as
 scheduled and described in the specifications. Then he may sell or rent the
 finished product. Large operations such as these can take up to 15 or 20
 years, e.g. Euroméditerranée in Marseilles.
- The reallocation of a single urban derelict land is determined in agreement with the zoning specifications of the Local City Development Plan. On surfaces under 5 ha, the number of potential new uses will be limited. The operation usually only involves a single public or private developer, and can be completed in under 5 years.
- The regeneration of an old district can require ten years, since it covers many sites and the related owners. Residents in very dilapidated buildings are expropriated, and the buildings demolished and rebuilt, in general by a public firm. Other buildings are rejuvenated, after agreement between the owners and an official co-investor organisation. The municipality improves living conditions (through landscaping or the creation of public spaces). France has applied this procedure with the OPAH (*Opérations programmées d'amélioration de l'habitat* Programs to improve housing). In the North, all cities have applied the same approach.
- Traditional urban development tools can not be used in regeneration projects for squatter areas, and are replaced by works of collective interest undertaken by the public authorities and by initiatives organised by the local populations.

As economic development is the thrust for achieving multiple objectives under urban regeneration, it is evident that economic instruments have a key role. In addition to conventional means (taxation, etc.) innovative solutions are required to support the undertaking, particularly in stimulating non-public sector partners. To some extent traditional planning tools (transfer of development rights, etc.) can also be useful, but new instruments are necessary as a basis for public-private partnerships.

4.2. Institutional Arrangements

In most countries, the State alone makes decisions concerning major urban regeneration operations, and selects the main contractors since only the State has the necessary financial resources, as in Tunisia, Algeria, Egypt and Turkey. In other cases, such as Spain, the decision-maker can be a regional or territorial collectivity, or a municipality, as in France. As the main public contractor, the State can create a specific organisation, and grant it mandate to undertake the work: this was the case in the UK, for the *Urban Development Corporations* in charge of the regeneration of large derelict harbour lands such as the London Docklands, and Cardiff Bay. In France, this is covered by the Etablissements Publics

d'Aménagement, as in Marseilles for the current Euroméditerranée operation. However, in most cities, as in Lyon, Bordeaux and Paris, the municipalities prefer to create a Société d'Economie Mixte (a type of a group of economic interests) to carry out the project.

In the old town of Aleppo, an Old City Committee was created by the municipal authorities to manage the regeneration operations.

The large urban land-owners can develop their own regeneration projects, as in the case of the RENFE (Spanish railway) in Madrid, the Pasillo Verde Ferroviaro project, or autonomous ports can play a role, as the one in Barcelona which strongly contributed to the transformation of the Port Vell. The trend, however, as in Paris, seems more favourable to an association between the national railways (SNCF) and the municipal authorities, to initiate the building project, and later sell the building rights to developers.

The current trend is the establishment of partnerships between institutions, reduced involvement of the State, and building further empowerment of municipal authorities which are sensitive to local issues. This involves contractual financial arrangements between partners, as for Euroméditerranée where funding is spread among the State (50%), the city of Marseilles (25%) and other nearby communities (25%).

If the landowners are private investors, they can be the main contractors for medium-scale regeneration operations.

In the North, with the liberalisation of the economy, and the financial disinvolvement or difficulties of public authorities, the State is turning to new mechanisms and financial arrangements, such as:

- through planning obligations, the technical services of the city may grant a
 private developer a planning permission, but request that he constructs and
 funds a building of a general interest;
- through leverage, the State initiates the work to prepare and te the area to be regenerated, then counts on the private sector to pursue the operations, as on the London Docklands where the private sector contributed £7 for each £1 of the State;
- through public/private partnerships (PPP), a public organisation, such as
 a Ministry in the UK, signs a long-term contract with a private group to cover
 all the stages of the construction, maintenance and operations of large
 projects. The private partner then becomes both the main and sub-contractor
 and is paid annually by the client.

In most countries, the participation of the inhabitants is officially requested and encouraged. People can be involved as early as during the development of the projects, can contribute to information mechanisms or public surveys. In the South, this aspect is considered as essential and one to be intensified and better institutionalised, which presupposes the gradual establishment of new relations between the local officials, whether elected or appointed, and their technical services on the one hand, and on the other, among different segments of populations, or target groups, as in Aleppo, prepared to take part in the monitoring and maintenance of the regenerated areas.

4.3. Results and Evaluation

Urban regeneration was only included in urban policies a few decades ago and its processes and operations comprise many of the traditional urban development action plans and procedures. Regeneration attempts to include them in the dynamics of multipurpose projects, challenges which stem from the deep-rooted social and economic forces inherent to the city. Some Mediterranean cities have already implemented regeneration strategies worthy of assessment, which will be helpful for the cities where considerable malfunctions persist. Several case studies in the North and the South, have yielded a series of observations which can make urban authorities aware of the resources offered by urban regeneration, in response to the current intense societal transformations they have to face.

In the cities where urban marketing is a tool, the awareness of urban regeneration is high. Medium or small-size cities can launch their own urban regeneration programs, but they must take into account the threshold effects, which modify the signs of malfunctions. They must not simply apply the larger metropolitan solutions, and need to make the appropriate choices in the Urban Regeneration toolkit, according to the scope and priorities of their projects.

The costs of urban regeneration does not initially seem larger than that of urban spread, and can, over time, be justified in national accounting terms by reduced land consumption, fewer circulation flows, smaller infrastructure networks to create and maintain. However, the questions remain whether the Urban Regeneration choices truly respond to social demands, and if the costs of more compact cities will be accepted.

On the other hand, the availability of cultural and sanitary facilities and other services in regenerated cities may triumph over the dream of the neo-rural individual home. It is one of the challenges of sustainable development for future generations.

The evaluations of some of the large Urban Regeneration operations in the Mediterranean show highly improved built-up surfaces and living conditions in the city centre, including the districts developed until the World War Two. In these large areas, Urban Regeneration can motivate maintenance operations, and the return to clean Mediterranean environments and societies. But the extension of suburbs, the spatial spread, the creation of sub-centres around the city, *hedge cities*, play a role in the metropolitanisation process, which generates anonymous and universal cities. This challenge should be analysed further.

In all urban areas where Urban Regeneration is efficient, it is important to know that there may be winners and losers, and attempts must be made to control the degree of these uneven outcomes. It is furthermore important to determine which groups will benefit from Urban Regeneration: permanent residents, employees, occasional visitors, or urban tourists.

The implementation of Urban Regeneration is sometimes complicated by the following:

 the inertia of the existing technical structures which are slow in understanding and assimilating the changes in social demand and in the economy;

- the attitude of developers to limit their proposals to a single urban project, without paying attention to ever-more complex interplay between the actors, decision-makers, users and builders;
- the disinvolvement of the State or the financial weakness of local collectivities can lead to partial gentrification, which in turn can result in reducing social exchanges and movements.
- the anticipated impacts, whether positive or negative, that any Urban Regeneration operation may generate on neighbouring territories.

Urban Regeneration assessment matrices must be developed, and should include:

- the relevant qualitative and quantitative criteria,
- the tools and cost/benefit indicators over the short, medium and long term, concerning such major options as the creation of play or leisure areas,
- the positive or negative external effects of urban regeneration projects,
- the alignment of urban composition options with the practices and life style of the inhabitants, such as in the creation of public space, which may impact traditional habits and customs,
- the reconciliation between sustainable development objectives and the need of populations for tradition, while avoiding the museumification of old city districts and maintaining the quest for new economic activities.

The role of local inhabitants remains one of the weak links of Urban Regeneration and requires research for new means of intervention at all stages of Urban Regeneration operations.

In many countries of the South, it is necessary to create or strengthen the initial or continuous training facilities, to <u>train</u> technical staff in the basics, as well as in behaviour, perspective outlook, tools and multidisciplinary knowledge.

Three Models of Urban Regeneration

The London Docklands (1981-1998)

The 2,200 ha of this territory are wedged in the Eastern London urban fabric, composed of 710 ha of derelict lands and 180 ha of water. The docks were highly polluted and needed to be decontaminated. Approximately 40,000 workers lived on site, in old housing, devoid of comfort. All sea-related or industrial activities either ceased or were relocated, leaving the surface available for the creation of "a new city in the city".

The State selected the legally and financially strong London Docklands Development Corporation (LDDC) as the main contractor, to work on the new land assembly, to develop the project and carry it out, and sell building rights to private developers.

The approach was largely empirical, without a plan, without rigorous zoning specifications. The LDDC negotiated with developers whose suggestions were most often accepted. The emphasis was placed on multiple functions and landscaping to preserve as many existing buildings as possible, such as renovated warehouses and the full heritage of the sea-related past. The project also entailed the planting of 150,000 trees.

Global assessment:

- the population grew to 80,000 inhabitants, and was largely renewed with the arrival of middle-class. 19,000 new dwellings were constructed to be sold and 7,700 town housing flats were renovated;
- the local economy was entirely transformed: 2,3 million m² of surface were built up for light industries (printing) and service activities; and on Canary Wharf, 1 million m² of office space were created.
- a university was built.
- many high quality hotels were built in the area.

In all, 100,000 jobs were created, versus 27,000 before the project.

The weak point was the insufficient commuter service of the Light Railway, but this issue was also solved by the State-aided construction of the Jubilee Line.

Barcelona (1979-2003)

In Barcelona, regeneration involves highly heterogeneous territories, all more or less included in full renovation operations or in specific rehabilitation programs.

The first area covered was the old port, where all activity had long ceased, representing 56 ha of platforms, docks and piers. The U.R. project focused on commercial and leisure developments, and the creation of public space. At a later stage, in view of the Olympic Games, industrial derelict lands were used to erect 150 ha of sports buildings and athletes' housing, today fully-owned properties, a marina, and 40 ha of public space.

U.R. was also applied to the old workers district of Barcelonetta, where the owners were encouraged by the public authorities and financial contributions to renovate rental housing, to maintain the same population.

A larger U.R. operation is now underway in the old town, where a Plan, or PERI, has been drawn up to rehabilitate 17,000 lodgings. 4,200 obsolete buildings have been torn down and others turned into cultural centres.

U.R. is now being implemented in the North-Eastern districts of the city, with the creation of a new Library and University.

Marseilles - Euroméditerranée

This operation was launched in 1995, for a 15-year period, to rejuvenate a clearly determined perimeter of 310 ha in the city centre: old housing, harbour surfaces, warehouses, railways and a train station for high-speed trains (TGV).

The State appointed as the main contractor a public organisation, benefiting from the financial support of the State and local authorities. The expertise and projects of this organisation must be aligned with those of the still active autonomous port and of the Municipality.

The initial assessment, although temporary, clearly shows:

- new activities, focused on cultural (Palais de la Méditerranée) and artistic fields (transformation of a tobacco factory);
- rejuvenated warehouses to host offices and high-tech centres, as well as business headquarters;
- large surfaces dedicated to the creation of open public space, in agreement with the Port authorities;
- restoration of dilapidated districts, turned into ghettos, and probable gentrification;
- emergence of stronger centrality, with the modernised TGV station.

The site should soon be able to renew and host twice its initial population (30,000 people) and offer 30,000 jobs.

Operations will be conducted over 8 strategic sites, as a result of the strong degree of heterogeneity of the Euro-Mediterranean territory.

CHAPTER FIVE

5. Managing the Intervention

After the inception and planning of an urban regeneration process the most important part is its onalisation. It includes preparing for its implementation, mobilising a multiplicity of relevant actors as partners, securing and allocating financial and other resources required, establishing a mechanism of monitoring and evaluation to steer the intervention, utilising the appropriate technical expertise, putting in place the necessary organisational arrangements, securing the institutional support which might be required, employing the entire range of available instruments (legal/regulatory, economic, etc.) and a range of other types of considerations which are crucial for such complex undertakings. Often, the management of the intervention is underestimated and becomes a major source of political, social, economic and environmental frustrations.

5.1. Public Participation and Partnerships

Public participation and partnerships are key elements in contemporary urban planning and management. Therefore, a process of urban regeneration should be based on mobilising local communities and their key actors to share and contribute to a collective effort of improving urban areas. In many of the Mediterranean countries this would start evidently from the co-operation of different actors and stakeholders, such as public sector agencies, local authorities, regional and national agencies responsible for physical planning and urban management, as well as the residents and local community. It is widely recognised, however, that a broader range of actors is essential in such complex undertakings, such as entrepreneurs, professional and business associations, Non Governmental Organisations, etc.

Such partnerships, in the context of an urban regeneration process, could:

- provide a clear picture of a city's characteristics, problems, prospects and needs;
- form a shared vision for the city;
- identify common needs and priorities for urban regeneration;
- promote commitment to the implementation of the project;
- generate necessary funding for project implementation and follow up.

For partnerships to be effective, clear and widely accepted rules should be first developed in respect to distribution of roles, framework of co-operation, etc., including the legitimisation of decisions, meaning the provision of the legal basis to support the decision-making process.

The importance of establishing partnerships is widely recognised, especially publicprivate ones, as a means of securing realistic sources of urban regeneration funding, but also providing new ideas, more efficiency and entrepreneurial spirit. This kind of partnership does not include the private sector alone, but also the individuals, professionals and civil society organisations. Partnership with the private sector is sought especially since, in most cases, the public sector does not dispose of the necessary financial resources. Partnership with the private sector is also important to the extent that the private sector might be more efficient in certain types of activities (such as new construction techniques, new technologies, etc.), or where it might have significant comparative advantages (as for example where entrepreneurial risks are involved, or in the case of the management of complex programs etc.).

This process has not been always successful, like in the case of **Split**, where partnership has been traditionally developed only in a public-public form and professionals are not used to act in a free-market environment. In other cases, like in **Aleppo**, partnership has been established successfully with various groups, like residents, professionals and various public institutions.

Partnerships may be established and strengthened among NGOs, the concerned government agencies and community-based groups. NGOs are seen to be the most appropriate vehicle for implementing the models on the ground and for being advocates and catalysts for more democratic polices at the national level, as in the case of Alexandria.

5.2. Funding

This is, generally, a weak point of urban regeneration and a critical issue. Traditional approaches (i.e. urban renewal, etc.) have often failed because of the difficulties to invest, in a long-term perspective, huge funds which are often lacking or for which other needs are competing. Key to the entire urban regeneration is to use public funds as catalysts to be complemented by non-public sources. Concessions, auto-financing, and a wide range of economic instruments are available, but in the end the very basis of urban regeneration is to rely on the development of economic opportunities. Therefore, a good understanding of the market and its mechanisms is indispensable.

In addition, it is necessary to develop early on a strategy within which it would be necessary to develop opportunities for innovative ways for Public Private Partnerships. The funding strategy is probably the most critical component of the entire process, particularly as it requires a flexible approach which is not always amenable through public administrative systems operating with rigid rules.

The Limited experience shows that the main sources of funding are private and local authority funds, while there are also forms of co-financing between local authorities and central government, as well as between the local authorities and private partners. For financially weak regions, the basic support comes from the inhabitants of the communities involved in urban regeneration projects. International organisations and funds such as METAP, European Investment Bank, EuroMed Heritage II, UNESCO, and Council of Europe can also be utilised.

The EU Structural Funds provide significant funding for European cities, like Athens and Barcelona. In Greece, for example, economic and regional development is basically realised through the Community Support Frameworks (1st, 2nd and 3rd) that are the EU funds channelled to the country. In other cases international organisations, like the German Agency for Technical Co-operation (GTZ) and the Arab Fund for Economic and Social Development (for Aleppo), play a relevant role.

In other cases, like in Tunis and Split, funding is mainly based on the availability of public local and national sources.

Although Istanbul is the biggest city of Turkey, it is still financially weak and needs to be supported by higher-level authorities in executing regeneration and other similar activities. However the financial support by the state authorities for that kind of activities is virtually zero, so the basic support is mainly left to private initiative, especially from residents and professionals involved in those projects.

5.3. Monitoring and Evaluation

As urban regeneration interventions are complex and long-term, it is necessary to provide for flexibility to cope with uncertainties and problems which might emerge. As a consequence, an essential component of any urban regeneration project is a monitoring and evaluation system. The two components are closely interrelated and integrated providing information for decision-making, serving two complementary functions: an account of what exists and an assessment of its achievements (successes and failures). These should include the following:

- Monitoring This is a description of the basic conditions in the urban area
 where the urban regeneration is taking place. Such a description refers to the
 economic, social and environmental characteristics and functions, its
 problems, etc.
- Evaluation This is an assessment of the change in terms of achieving the set goals and objectives. The evaluation function has two important aspects: one is to assess whether the strategy is still valid (whether the goals and objectives are still acceptable as desirable ends), and the other whether there has been progress in terms of these objectives (achievement part).

In practice, this means the establishment of a multiple system dealing with the progress in programming, reaching the goals and objectives set, assessing the impacts on society, economy, environment and the city function in general, etc.

5.4. City Marketing

Marketing and promotion has already been identified as a key component of urban regeneration. It is evident though that a longer-term view would require capitalising on the benefits of urban regeneration towards strategic goals of attracting economic activities as the basis for social and economic development of the city. This often falls under the term of city marketing, or the search for new roles for a city by promoting business, cultural, educational and other modern sector activities, including tourism.

Urban regeneration projects contribute to the improvement of the image of the city, and make it more attractive not only for the residents but also for tourists and visitors, like in Barcelona, Aleppo and Athens. Furthermore, it creates a more attractive environment for investors, revitalising further the local economy

5.5. Governance and Participation

In most countries, the public participation procedure is recognised as essential to a successful implementation of projects on urban regeneration, and is secured by law

in the preparation of plans through obligatory public hearing activities. Local communities can be involved in the early stages, as well as during the development of the projects, contributing to the information mechanisms or public surveys. However, the public participation procedure is not always applied and the citizens are mostly passive receivers of information, giving them a wrong perception of the spatial planning system as a restrictive mechanism setting only limits.

A successful example of involvement of local communities has been applied in Aleppo where the participation procedure has been addressed to specific target groups (women and men who live or work in the city, and institutions and organisations, such as the Women's Union, the Chamber of Commerce, and the neighbourhood committees), and diversified accordingly. This procedure, new for the country, has resulted successful in gaining support and consensus from local communities. In other cases, like in Istanbul, the same residents promoted the public participation activities.

5.6. Project Sustainability

To assure sustainability of the projects of urban regeneration it is of a basic importance to have properly trained staff and availability of professionals. In addition, it will be necessary to encourage the local and national authorities to allocate more funding, since the process of rehabilitation reflects high economic benefits and returns for the city and the country above and beyond its important cultural value, as well as to encourage the involvement and participation of international donors. It will also be necessary to secure a much higher participation and involvement by the local private sector, to intensify and institutionalise the residents' participation, and to have an effective co-ordination among agencies and stakeholders.

Some of these actions have been undertaken in the cities under study. For example in Aleppo, to assure sustainability of the project, the administration and staff of the directorate slowly merged with those of the Project while gaining benefits from its experience and capacities. Training of the Old City staff started at the beginning of the Project, covering technical, administrative and foreign language capacities subjects, as well as other activities, like communications with the citizens and preparation of the participation process. In Alexandria, for example, a follow-up committee is foreseen to be established. Its main tasks are to encourage a peoplecentred approach to upgrading urban slums, and to co-ordinate among agencies, NGOs and donors. The follow-up committee will be trained in participatory management and gender responsiveness and, at the Governorate level, on participatory and integrated planning.

ANNEX I: Case Studies

Urban Regeneration: Aleppo

Project	Project of Rehabilitation of Old Aleppo (1992)
Problems	
Goals	Preserve the valuable and unique fabric of the Old City and slow down the deterioration of its residential zones. Repair and rehabilitation of one or more of the run-down districts to test and support general rehabilitation planning.
Actions	 Immediate actions for emergency home repair for the lower income families and restoration of dilapidated public infrastructure;
	 Preparation of a rehabilitation study based on physical, social and economic survey to create a land-use plan and a development scheme;
	 Suggest an institutional set-up to upgrade the rules and regulations of the administration, and train staff towards sustainability;
	 Seek the involvement of all the relevant local and international institutions and expand the source of funding;
	• Start the implementation during the planning phase, and evaluate the results to adapt the ongoing planning process accordingly.
Actors and partners	Municipality, German Agency for Technical Co-operation (GTZ), Arab Fund for Economic and Social Development, Aga Khan Trust of Culture, Syrian Government
Results	• <u>Pilot project</u> . A working plan was prepared in co-operation with the inhabitants, and a general survey of physical and socio-economic conditions of the Old City of Aleppo was conducted, followed by the preparation of a general land-use plan. Several actions were carried out in a pilot area: replacement of the old sewer and water systems, rehabilitation of street facades, rehabilitation of a historical religious school building and its transformation in a community center and medical point, restoration of a small structure to be used as a kindergarten, rehabilitation of 3 mosques, implementation of a new traffic plan.
	• <u>Loan Fund</u> . An Emergency Loan Fund was established for owners and renters of homes to cover basic repairs, providing as well assistance and supervising of the execution.
	• <u>Economic development</u> . Study on the private business character of the Old City and preparation of a Subject Plan Urban Economy.
	 <u>Participation</u>. Implementation of a participation scheme (new for the administration) from the very beginning of the project addressed to defined target groups (women and men who live and work in the Old City, women's associations, chamber of commerce, neighbourhood committees) in several forms.
	• Institutional Set-up. On the institutional side, the City created a special administration for the project directly related with the Mayor and the Executive Committee. This dramatically decreased the bureaucracy for the related public and private dealing with the Old City affairs. The Old City staff was also trained since the beginning of the project on technical, administrative and foreign language capacity subjects.

- <u>Protection of historical and architectural heritage</u>. The project upgraded, updated and supplied with guidelines for rehabilitation methodology, building codes that regulate the restoration and rehabilitation of traditional houses.
- <u>Land use</u>. A general land-use plan dedicated to the confirmation of the residential use of the Old City of Aleppo was adopted, and detailed land-use plans of the action areas were also geared towards this goal.
- <u>Traffic</u>. General traffic plans for the City were developed to reduce traffic in the Old City.
- <u>Environment</u>. Plans were developed concerning air, water and noise pollution, solid waste collection and disposal, proper energy use and for a greening program.

Lessons learnt

Several difficulties were faced during the implementation of the pilot project, but they served as lessons for the implementation of new interventions, which had smoother communication with the residents and users, better co-ordination and execution, faster, more efficient and more professional completion of the work. However, major aspects need attention and improvement, like:

- A better and more independent organisational set-up must be adopted.
- Participation should be intensified and institutionalised.
- Awareness campaigns at the city and country levels should be widened, and increased at the levels of schools, universities, public institutions and the media.
- Funding by local and private economic actors, international donors and institutions, local and national authorities should be encouraged.

Urban Regeneration: Alexandria

-	
Projects/ programs	Project proposal for Urban Regeneration in the Slum Areas of Alexandria
Problems	 Rapid urbanisation and overcrowding leading to congestion of communication, transport, mobility, energy, water and waste discharge and incapacity to accommodate the continuos expansion of the socio-economic activities;
	Deterioration of buildings and insufficient infrastructure;
	Increase of school drops-out.
Goals	 Improve the quality of life of the inhabitants of the selected slums through community-based participatory models in collaboration with NGOs and relevant government agencies;
	 Enhance the provision of community-based integrated basic services for the vulnerable urban poor in selected urban districts;
	• Empower communities by increasing their problem solving, management and negotiation skills;
	 Promote the formulation of people participation at the national basis for urban regeneration policy and support;
	 Improve the quality of inhabitants' life, and protect the environment by positive steps forward to achieve a delicate balance between social, economic and environment issues.
Actions foreseen	Review and preparation of a draft report on the existing status, the enumeration district census, and the environmental conditions using index indicators.
Actors and partners	
Results	
Lessons learnt	

Urban Regeneration: Athens

- Projects / Community Support Frameworks (1st, 2nd and 3rd);
- programs The Master Plan for Athens (SPA); • The organisation of the Olympic Games (OG) in Athens in 2004;
 - Urban initiative of the European Commission;
 - Operational Program for the Attica Region (2000-2006);
 - "Attica SOS" program.

- Problems Planning and control have limited contribution to the growth of the city, thus "illegal" settlements being widespread; limited open spaces and green areas, high densities in the central as well as the old residential areas, extended peripheral areas with relatively low densities;
 - Critical traffic congestion and pollution problem;
 - Environmental problems: inefficiencies of the collection system, limited number of landfill sites and existence of illegal waste disposal sites, air and noise pollution.

Goals

The 2nd Regional Operational Program for Attica (1994-1999): rehabilitation of the ecological balance, improvement of the quality of life, support and restructuring (spatial organisation) of the productive sector, reinforcement of economic and social cohesion and reinforcement of autonomous economic and social cohesion;

The 3rd Community Support Framework (2000-2006) sets as main fields with priority for action: transportation networks, energy sector, environmental protection, telecommunications and education;

Organisation of the Olympic Games: construction of the Olympic Village and some athletic infrastructures and adaptation of other athletic infrastructures to the needs of the Olympic Games;

Operational Program for the Attica Region (2000-2006): Confrontation of climate change; decrease of emissions of air pollutants; decrease and rational management of solid waste; integrated water resource management; confrontation of desertification; Protection of biodiversity and natural habitats; and sustainable management of forest resources.

Actions

The 2nd Regional Operational Program consisted of six sub-programs: Environment and quality of life (water and sewage systems, waste management, projects aiming at flood prevention, regeneration of coastal areas, health services); Development interventions and improvement of traffic flows (transportation, rehabilitation of productive built-environment, specific interventions for the deteriorated areas, tourism and culture, research, support of productive activities, primary sector/infrastructure, secondary sector/relocation, tertiary sector); Human resources (training, infrastructure, unemployment and social exclusion); Strengthening of the organisation of Local Authorities (basic infrastructure, quality of life); Finalisation of incomplete projects scheduled during the 1st CSF; and Technical support.

Olympic Games: Construction of the Olympic village and athletic facilities in the coastal zone of Faliro and renovation of other athletic infrastructure. A significant number of other projects, mainly in respect to the transportation sector, have also been scheduled and are currently implemented: the construction of various road axes of metropolitan significance and the new extensions of the underground.

Operational Program for the Attica Region (2000-2006). Specifically:

Water resources management. Initiatives include: Delimitation of streams, completion of flooding prevention infrastructure, establishment of waste

water treatment plants, water supply interventions.

- Solid waste management. Initiatives and projects in relation to infrastructure and equipment for recycling, collection and transportation, establishment of landfill sites.
- Protection of biodiversity and natural habitats. Restoration of urban and coastal areas, support of green and recreation areas, protection and promotion of habitats and areas with high ecological value.
- Forest management. Actions include: widening of forest road network, precautionary and forest protection projects (i.e. creation of special zones), works against soil erosion, elaboration of management plans, etc.

Actors and partners

- General Secretariat of the Region of Attica;
- Ministry of the Environment, Physical Planning and Public Works;
- Athens 2004.

Results

The OG are expected to have several positive impacts, although not yet clearly appreciated. They are expected to contribute to the increase of visitors, international investments, international conferences and cultural events, etc. OG could also serve as a catalyst to accelerate programming and the realisation of several projects, which are parts of several programs. In the area of Athens several projects are currently under implementation as part of the 3rd Community Support Framework. These kinds of interventions can be organised in the following sub groups: projects that aim at the rehabilitation, renovation, improvement of houses, open spaces, public spaces, gyms, major networks like roads, etc., that had suffered serious damages during the earthquake in September 1999; projects that aim at the rehabilitation of the archaeological sites and monuments of the city of Athens; and projects which aim at the amelioration of the image and functioning of Athens-Attica, in relation to the Olympic Games. Several projects have been implemented or are currently under implementation aiming at the improvement of the accessibility and transport not only within the city, but also between the city and the rest of the country.

Lessons learnt

Athens possesses one of the lowest values in attractiveness and competitiveness indicators as compared to other European metropolitan areas. The constraints are not only related to spatial or environmental factors but include issues related to stability, economic conjuncture, labour market, investments, bureaucracy and the lack of effectiveness of the public sector. Future actions need to concentrate on integrated programs for anticipating the critical problems of Athens and on localized interventions, which will accentuate its advantages and will also provide the credit, the prestige and the status of an international metropolitan area. The organisation of the Olympic Games in Athens in 2004 has proved to be a unique challenge. There was a major effort to regulate development at a lower level through Master Plans of a local character. As a result regulation of development and land-uses was stronger at a local level, and Athens developed in many respects outside the provisions of its Master Plan. In parallel, urban planning is strongly influenced by principles which bear no relevance to modern conceptualisations of planning such as: emphasis on building controls and avoidance of land use planning, maintenance of the traditional system of planning tools-with the exception of the problematic efforts of utilising the transfer of development rights and overriding role of programming (and partial implementation) of major transportation system interventions.

A major failure of the planning system is the control of urban expansion which is the end-result of a strong suburbanisation. Another failure is the lack of control on the linear concentration of commercial and office uses along major transport axes. Also, urban design interventions which, although implemented through the 3rd Regional Operational Program, do not follow the respective institutional framework.

Urban Regeneration: Barcelona

programs .

- Projects/ General Metropolitan Plan of Barcelona 1976;
 - Special Plans of Internal Reforms (PERI);
 - Definition of the New Central Zones (ZCN);
 - Integral Procedure Plan (PAI);
 - Municipal Action Plan (PAM) 2000-2003;
 - Strategic Plan of Barcelona 2000.

Problems Degradation and depopulation of the historical core, over-population inflow in other districts, uncontrolled urban expansion in the industrial area.

Goals

Promote, direct and co-ordinate the respect of urban plans in the metropolitan area and permit the approval of General Metropolitan Plan of 1976.

Actions

- 1979-1983: micro-surgical interventions and construction of the city inside the urban spaces of the progressive period;
- 1983-1986: management of the new central spaces and recuperation of the declined spaces of the historical core;
- 1986-1992: use change of obsolete spaces (Villa Olimpica, Port Vell), amelioration of the infrastructures (peripheral route) and recuperation of the declined spaces of the historical core;
- 1992-...: retraining operation of the public spaces, in the traditional quarters, use change of obsolete spaces (Sagrega, Diagonal Mar, Besos), rehabilitation of Eixample (central quarter) and recuperation of the declined spaces of the historical core;
- 1999: new urban development: emphases is given to knowledge, culture and sustainability.

Actors and partners

Metropolitan Corporation of Barcelona

Results

- 1979-1983. Approval of the Special Plans of Internal Reforms which foresaw several interventions, like territorial organisation of public spaces, i.e. green areas, mainly aimed to correct the errors of the past urban planning. These actions served to show to all the citizens that democracy lead to a change of the head of the city and that the local government can take the role of a leader in these transformations.
- 1983-1986. Preparation of a big urban transformation project to prepare the city for the candidature for the Olympic Games: recuperation and organisation of the metropolitan littoral and of the metropolitan park of the Sierra de Collserola.
- 1986-1992. Big urban transformation interventions for the Olympic Games also with relevant socio-economic impacts, like the remodel of the sea front and the decision to locate there the Olympic village. There were three types of projects: amelioration and amplification projects of the general and basic systems of the city (railway system reform, sanitation plan, telecommunication plan, mobility procedure), projects which needed for their execution an above-municipal level (conventions, agreements between different administrations), and projects which reorient the development towards new zones. The most significant project was the reform of the Moll de la Fusta (1987) which concerns the organisation of the facade of the Ciutat Vella and its relationship with the sea, establishing a unitary special structure beginning with recuperation of the public use of the hangar of the port.
- 1992-.... Among the big urban operations of the last years there are:

development of big logistic and distribution infrastructures, further development of the sea front including the development of the whole zone of Port Vell, development of the Diagonal in a big boulevard which led to the construction of the one of the best residential zones of the city, and solution of the degradation problems of the Zone of Poble Nou, consolidation of the new business zones, continuation of the renovation of the Ciutat Vella and Eixample, and transformation of the northern zone of the city through several amelioration projects of communication and transport.

• 1999. Conversion of the industrial zone of Poblenou in a residential and tertiary-industrial combined zone in relation to the knowledge economy with a modification of the 1976 General Metropolitan Plan. The modification to this plan stimulated the investments in infrastructure for knowledge in this zone. Preparation of an Equipment Plan and a Special Infrastructure Plan. Organisation of the Universal Forum of Culture 2004 as a tool to create high-level infrastructures in a zone of Barcelona.

Lessons learnt

The transformation of the city has been mainly for the organisation of the Olympic Games of 1992. However, it has been possible thanks to the combination of several factors.

The renovation process in Barcelona is the result of a democratic process. All the renovation operations have been realised with a strong public economic contribution and leadership which incorporated all the existing administrations in the territory (at national, regional and local levels). The participation of the private sector was very important as well, especially in the use change and historic core recuperation operations.

The renovation process of the 1990s obtained the consensus of the citizens on the strategy and the execution of the projects. This consensus permitted to maintain the revitalising impulse of the city, to incorporate the different sensibilities of the citizens on the final results. In conclusion, social consensus and the institutional settings are important, as well as strategy and leadership.

Urban Regeneration: Istanbul

Projects/ A number of regeneration efforts have been made in Istanbul in the form of programs gentrification during the past two decades as a consequence of economic reconstructing in several neighbourhoods: Kuzguncuk, Cihangir, Galata, Balat, Beyoglu. Problems • Neglect of historical and cultural heritage of the city: physical and functional deterioration; • Uncontrolled city expansion due to high population growth; Lack of co-ordination among the central government, local authorities, and the NGOs; • Destruction of old buildings with no serious sanctions, existence of buildings abandoned for demolition, unauthorised intervention by the owners. Goals Kuzguncuk: Economic and physical rehabilitation through gentrification process; Cihangir: Rehabilitation and reconstruction of the neighbourhood, stop to the demolition of historic buildings and construction of an apartment house; Beyoglu: Regeneration of the neighbourhood as a whole. Kuzguncuk: Old houses rehabilitation through private initiatives; restoration of **Actions** historical buildings, upgrading of communal areas and creation of new facilities for local residents, improvement of social and cultural interaction among residents and improvement of the environmental quality of the neighbourhood; Cihangir: Renovation of historical buildings by private owners with the help of several foundations and municipality departments; Galata: Gentrification of a small part of the district, organisation of festivals and other cultural activities to attract people in the area; Balat: Rehabilitation of several buildings; Beyoglu: The municipality began to implement a beautification project in the main street of the Beyoglu district and ordered 220 shops to clean their facades, and to renew or remove advertisement panels on the walls. **Actors** Kuzguncuk: Professionals and local residents; and Cihangir: Residents, Cihangir Beautification Foundation (architects, partners professionals and residents); Galata: Residents, architects and journalists; Balat: UNESCO; Beyoglu: Metropolitan Municipality of Istanbul, Municipality of Beyoglu and Mimar Sinan University. Kuzguncuk: Community mobilisation increased cultural events (plays, Results workshops and summer schools for children, etc). It represents a model of successful conservation of a valuable social and physical environment through modern democratic process like participation, integration of local initiative, transparency, mediation and co-operation. Cihangir: Renovation of historic buildings; change in resident social structure with the afflux of middle and upper-middle class families, professionals, academics and artists, construction of few modern apartment houses. Galata: Old buildings maintenance and repair, change in the physical appearance of the neighbourhood, increase of real estate prices, increase of

commercial transaction of small businesses.

<u>Balat</u>: It is expected that the existing investment trends coupled with the opening of universities, hotels, art galleries and a miniature park, and a

planned International Centre of Congress and Cultural Activities will greatly contribute to the regeneration and revitalisation of the neighbourhood.

<u>Beyoglu</u>: Progress has been achieved in ensuring the unity and coherence in terms of the contents and size of advertisements panels, whilst renovation and cleaning attempts have generally failed.

Lessons learnt

Due to the lack of state support in most of the presented cases (Kuzguncuk, Cihangir and Galata) renovation is the reflection of social and cultural specification of the area: most residents are intellectuals and artists that look for a particular lifestyle. Most renovation activities were undertaken by residents, promoting community participation in efforts to improve living environment. The social change prompted a change in the dwelling stock in response of increasing demand.

Balat is an example of institutional gentrification. The expectations of an internationally supported project which promised investments in the neighbourhood induced the prospective gentrifiers to stay in the quarter.

Urban Regeneration: Split

Projects/ The city has not yet completed any project that could entirely match the programs definition of urban regeneration but there were a number of attempts to solve complex urban problems and to bring improvements in different parts of the city. Three main projects are:

- Preparation of an Integrated Plan of the Historic Core of Split (early 1980s);
- 2. Preparation of Spatial Plan for the port area (end of 1980s);
- 3. AFCO project (end of 1990s);
- 4. Rehabilitation of the peripheral, mostly illegally built suburbs (currently under consideration).

- Problems Physical, social and economic decadence of the city core;
 - The port area underwent a number of mostly unplanned transformations during the past two centuries;
 - Lack of adequate infrastructure, public space and service (sewerage system and appropriate road network) in the illegally built suburbs.

Goals

- 1. Rehabilitation of the complex urban structure of the historic city core physically and socio-economically, and provision of legal and institutional basis for rehabilitation:
- 2. Development of the entire area of the city port;
- 3. Transformation of the entire port area in a complex tourist zone;
- 4. Rehabilitation of the peripheral, mostly illegally built suburbs (currently under consideration).

Actions

- 1. Analysis and evaluation of the building stock, economic and financial conditions and social conditions in the city core;
- 2. Detailed analysis of the physical, socio-economic and environmental aspects; preparation of several studies (e.g. on the conditions of the sea and the maritime aspects of the port);
- 3. Radical change in the function of the city port from were all port and railway functions were to be removed, transformation of the social and urban function of the historic core to a exclusively reception and attraction place for tourists.

Actors and partners

- 1. Professional institutions Institute for protection of monuments, Town Planning Institute and Institute for Management of Business Premises - and the Municipality;
- 2. Town Planning Institute, City Development Agency;
- 3. Airports Facility Company;
- 4. Municipality and the Community of Sirobuja.

Results

City centre The plan, which had the characteristics of an urban regeneration approach, ended in a traditional detailed plan because of the lack of implementation of legal and institutional framework. The project was based on a detailed analysis and simultaneous adaptation of all conclusions, comprehensive strategy for problem solution, use of resources, typical of the regeneration process. However, there was not a clear quantification of the objectives, while an implementation program, wide participation-based consensus and monitoring evaluation were missing, as well as legal and financial sources for implementation.

<u>Port area</u> In spite of the number of attempts the regeneration of the city port remains a problem to be solved since both projects presented were missing some important characteristics since no project was implemented. However the first project, which had a number of characteristics in common with urban regeneration principles, lacked some important characteristics, like ownership problems and funding, so it could be considered more a spatial plan than a regeneration project. In the AFCO project, a full-scale participation process was missing, the problems and needs of the people and of city resources were completely ignored and it was based mainly on economic aspects.

<u>Illegally Built Areas</u>: the project is still under consideration. A similar previous project had already been prepared in the past but it was not implemented mainly because of controversies over the detailed plan between the Municipality and the local community.

Lessons learnt

- Lack of a national urban strategy, and inadequate public funding and support for urban generation projects;
- Inadequate sectoral co-ordination broken links between the urban planning system, land taxation policy, social assessments, urban land improvement and infrastructure development;
- Public participation and partnership are quite undeveloped in Croatia. Therefore it is very important to develop participation methods and partnerships when preparing the city projects;
- Lack of local political will to implement legal and strategic provisions, city administration "sit and wait" attitude, risk-free mentality.

Urban Regeneration: Tunis

sustainability.

Projects/ The regeneration process as part of the spatial and economic planning programs procedure, which in Tunis based on the following: • Economic and Social Development Plan; Directive Management Schemes (SDA); Communal Management Plan (PAC). **Problems** • High population growth rate (the population tripled in the past 50 years); Spontaneous and uncontrolled urban development especially in the low classes inhabited areas; Social and economic disbalances between the various districts of the city. • Conversion of the colonial structure of the cities and territories; Goals Relative control of the rapid urbanisation and of the demographic pressure. **Actions** Rehabilitation a posteriori of the low classes inhabited areas allowing spontaneous and uncontrolled urbanisation; Technical and economic support in the planning process in the middle classes inhabited areas. Spatial Planning is responsibility of a wide number of administrative bodies, **Actors** like: Unique Agency of Urban Rehabilitation and Renovation (ARRU), Ministry of and Services and Housing (Ministere de l'Equipement et de l'Habitat), Ministry of partners Internal Affairs, Ministry of the Environment with the Agency for the Protection of the Littoral (APAL) and National Agency for Environmental Protection (ANPE), Ministry of Spatial Planning, Ministry of Transport · Sanitation of unhealthy housing conditions; Results Satisfaction of basic housing needs; Generalisation of the education and sanitary services; • Protection and safeguard of the cultural and natural heritage. This mixed, controlled and uncontrolled, planning allowed the satisfaction of Lessons learnt basic needs of the population regarding housing, health and education services, but it also led to the increase of socio-economic disparities, the use of urban peripheries and countryside for spontaneous and uncontrolled urbanisation, pollution phenomena from industrial areas and ecological catastrophe. The limits of this planning system can be identified in the following: Formal planning without a spatial and temporal strategy; Spatial planning conferred to all the administrative bodies without urban management; Planning without scientific research, knowledge production and know-how transfer.

Spatial Planning has to be adapted to the needs of modern times through strategic planning, a participative process involving all the stakeholders,

Recommended Literature

- Adair. A. *et. al.* 2000. "The Financing of urban regeneration". *Land Use Policy*. Vol. 17. pp. 147-56.
- Caiaffa, E. 2003. "La géomatique appliquée à la planification et à la prévision". *IPTS*. No. 76. Sevilla.
- Chaline, C. 1996. Les villes du monde arabe. Paris: A. Colin.
- Chaline, C.1999. La regeneration urbain. Paris: PUF.
- Couch, C. and A. Dennemann. 2000. "Urban regeneration and sustainable development in Britain". *Cities*. Vol. 17. No. 2. pp.137-147.
- Deben, L. *et al.* 1992. "Culture and urban regeneration: some European examples". *Built Environment*. Vol. 18. No.2.
- Gordon, D.L.A. 1999. "Implementing urban waterfront redevelopment in an historic context: a case study of the Boston Naval Shipyard". *Ocean & Coastal Management*. Vol. 42. pp. 909-931.
- Hall, P.1998. Cities of Tomorrow. An intellectual history of urban planning and design in the twentieth century. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Healey, P. 1995. "The institutional challenge for sustainable urban regeneration".
 Cities. Vol. 12. No. 4. pp. 221-230.
- Imrie, R. and H. Thomas. 1997. "Law, legal struggles and urban regeneration". *Urban Studies*. Vol. 34. No.9.
- IPTS (Institut de Prospective Technologique). 2003. *La société de l'information et l'élargissement de l'U.E.*, Rapport. Sevilla: Commission européenne.
- Lawless, P. and T. Gore. 1999. "Urban regeneration and transport investment". *Urban Studies*. Vol. 36. No. 3.
- McCarthy, J. 1998. "Reconstruction, regeneration and re-imaging: The case of Rotterdam". *Cities.* Vol. 15. No. 5. pp. 337–344.
- McCarthy, J. 1998. "The regeneration of urban waterfronts". European Spatial Research and Policy. Vol. 5. No. 2.
- Monclus, F.J. 2003. "The Barcelona model: an original formula? From reconstruction to strategic urban projects (1979-2004)". *Planning Perspectives*. Vol. 18. No. 4.
- OECD. 2002. "Urban Renaissance. Glasgow: Lessons for Innovation and Implementation". Paris: OECD.
- Paulet, S. 2003. "Perspectives on urban greenspace in Europe". *Built Environment*. Vol. 29. No. 2.
- Raco, M. 2003. "Assessing the discourses and practices of urban regeneration in a growing region". *Geoforum*. Vol. 34. pp. 37-55.
- Roberts, P. (Editor) and H. Sykes (Editor). 2000. "Urban Regeneration: A Handbook". London: SAGE Publications.
- Rodriguès Malta, R. 2003. "De la conception du port urbain à la gestion de la villeport-territoire. Expériences sud-européennes comparées". Territoires 2020. No. 8. Paris: DATAR.
- Seo, J-K. 2002. "Re-urbanisation in Regenerated Areas of Manchester and Glasgow: New Residents and the Problems of Sustainability". *Cities*. Vol. 19. No. 2. pp. 113–121.