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Editorial

THIS issue of the *PSSC Social Science Information* features a selection of papers presented in the conference on *Urban Revitalization and Governance in Asia—Experiences, Trends and Directions.* The Conference which was held on 24–25 October 2002 was convened jointly by the School of Urban and Regional Planning (SURP) of the University of the Philippines, which is the only graduate academic institution on urban and regional planning, and the Philippine Institute of Environmental Planners* (PIEP), which is the national government accredited professional organization of licensed urban and regional planners in the country.

Rapid urbanization has brought about the complex challenges that cities currently face, including concerns on urban blight and congestion, homelessness, food security, environmental degradation and destruction of heritage areas, among others. Efforts to address these concerns have often been disjointed, uncoordinated and without regard to the broader spectrum of issues of urban management and governance. The continuing state of distress implies that such piece-meal and palliative approaches have been largely ineffective and unsustainable.

This was the context in which the Conference organizers saw the opportunity through which Philippine planning may be brought to a higher level of maturity and relevance. Recognizing the urgent need to impress upon practicing and would-be planners the inadequacy of existing policies, strategies and approaches, the UP SURP and the PIEP agreed to pool their resources and efforts in order to reach a broader audience for their advocacy for the adoption of alternative urban development paradigms.

Noting the growing demand that continuous urbanization imposes on our country's limited land resources, we decided to take a closer look at the revitalization of decaying and abandoned inner city areas as a potentially viable approach to urban growth and development in lieu of continuing urban expansion.

Initially, the organizers noted that, conceptually, urban revitalization is a western concept, and there are hardly any comprehensive authoritative treatises on the subject that could readily be applied to the local scene. Fortunately, they were also aware of the existence of some actual cases of successful revitalization programs and projects within the Asian Region, most of which were pursued within the context of the norms of good urban governance—equity of access, civic engagement and citizenship, transparency and accountability, efficiency and sustainability, among others. They also noted that valuable lessons could be gathered from local experiences as well. Thus, they agreed to organize an international (Asian) conference that would provide a forum for discussion of concepts, issues and documentation of best practices, and sharing of experiences and lessons learned in urban revitalization and governance.

The Conference brought together some 210 foreign and Filipino delegates, including government officials, policy makers, professional planners, project administrators, academics, planning students, heritage advocates and civil society groups. Apart from an initial plenary session, they participated in

*The UP SURP acknowledges the permission granted by the PIEP in publishing the Conference papers included in this issue.

three conference-clusters, each serving as a venue for the presentation of three to four papers on urban revitalization, urban governance and heritage conservation by a mix of discussants from various countries. The closing session synthesized the findings and consensus areas as well as mapped out plans for further research and follow-up action. It is the hope of the organizers that someday, scholars and practitioners, sifting through the conference documentation, will discover a philosophy, a theory, or an approach that is essentially, if not uniquely, Asian.

On behalf of the UP SURP and the PIEP, I have the honor of introducing this issue of the *PSSC Social Science Information.* I hope that the readers will learn and draw inspiration, as we did, from the information shared in confronting the universal problems not only of urban blight and obsolescence, but also of social, economic, and even cultural "poverty."

DOLORES A. ENDRIGA
Dean, UP SURP

URBANIZATION AND URBAN DEVELOPMENT: URBAN GROWTH MANAGEMENT IN ASIAN MEGACITIES

SHIZUO IWATA

Urbanization Trend

VIRTUALLY all the population growth expected between 2000–2030 will be concentrated in the urban areas of the world (World Bank 1999). The increase of about 2 billion during the period will take place in the less developed regions, and in their urban areas (see Table 1.1). The pressure on the urban areas in less developed countries is enormous and likely to continue beyond 2030 considering its current relative low rate of urbanization compared to that of more developed regions (see Table 1.2). The magnitude and speed of urban population growth are more significant in Asia.

Rural-urban migration, the transformation of rural settlements into urban settlements and high rate of natural growth in urban areas are the key determinants of the urban growth in the developed countries. While rural population is expected to be steady or declining in the coming decades, the urbanization will affect the pattern and structure of urban system of a country greatly. One such change is the emergence of megacities with large populations, i.e., more than 10 million. Cities with more than a million population will be common and the number of megacities which were only five in 1975, would be 23 in 2015, 13 of which are in Asia.

Urban Development Issues

The problems and issues facing developing megacities are extensive and serious. Infrastructure is lacking and not adequately maintained, necessary urban services are not provided, traffic congestion continues, environment and safety to deteriorate, and adequate land and housing are not accessible to many people.

Table 1.1 Population Trend

	Region	1950	1975	2000	2030
Total	World	2.5	4.1	6.1	8.1
		(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)
	More Dev. Regions	0.8	1.1	1.2	1.2
		(32)	(26)	(20)	(15)
	Less Dev. Regions	1.7	3.0	4.9	6.9
		(68)	(74)	(80)	(85)
Urban	World	0.8	1.5	2.9	4.9
		(100)	(100)	(100)	(100)
	More Dev. Regions	0.5	0.7	0.9	1.0
		(60)	(47)	(32)	(21)
	Less Dev. Regions	0.3	0.8	2.0	3.9
		(40)	(53)	(68)	(79)

Source: World Urbanization Prospects: the 1999 Revision. United Nations Population Division.

Table 1.2 Urbanization Trend

Region	% of urban population			
	1950	1975	2000	2030
World	29.7	37.9	47.0	60.3
More Developed Regions	54.9	70.0	76.0	83.5
Less Developed Regions	17.8	26.8	39.9	56.2

Source: World Urbanization Prospects: the 1999 Revision. United Nations Population Division.

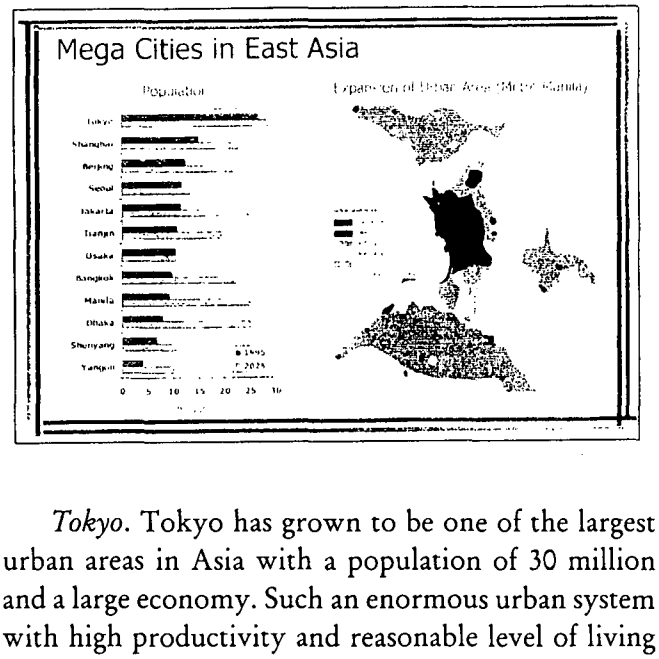
These problems are particularly severe for the low-income group and intertwined that the solution becomes complex. Sometimes, the solutions do not result in the benefit expected so that the project life becomes shorter than planned.

The situation is further aggravated due to institutional and financial constraints such as, among others, fragmented authorities but with overlapping responsibilities, lack of regulatory framework and enforcement capacity, weak capacity to capture development value and to create own funding source, excessive political intervention in the planning process, and absence of a formal mechanism of public involvement. The absence or lack of a long-term vision and strategy on urban development also contributes to the failure in prioritization and smooth implementation of policies and projects.

For big cities in developing countries managing growth is the most critical. While the cities are occupied with unfinished work and current problems especially in existing built-up and congested areas, the development pressure due to population growth would intensify the congestion in the city center and encourage the sprawl to suburban areas. These are taking place in many cities which gradually undermine their competitiveness and livability.

Experiences of Asian Cities in Urban Growth and Development

There is no quick-fix to improve the situation facing megacities. Rather, there is need for a more strategic approach to ensure sustainability of urban growth and development. The experiences of Asian cities are briefly illustrated below.



Tokyo. Tokyo has grown to be one of the largest urban areas in Asia with a population of 30 million and a large economy. Such an enormous urban system with high productivity and reasonable level of living environment was developed owing to a number of combined factors.

Tokyo had an extensive railway network prior to the explosion of motorization, and had been expended in parallel with the urban growth. Suburbanization was led by suburban railways and mobility in the city center was much enhanced by replacing street cars with subways.

Network and operation integration of different urban rail systems and coordinated urban development with the urban rail network contributed to the strengthening of rail-based urban systems. Other contributory factors include flexible planning and institutional framework as well as government support schemes for urban development and an active private sector participation. It is also recognized, however, that costs of renewal and risks for disaster are also high.

Metro Manila, Bangkok and Jakarta. These three megacities face the most serious problems today and challenges in the future. The metropolitan areas have far extended beyond the municipal boundaries of the core cities and their metropolitan population have reached 10 million and growing further.

All sorts of urban problems, as briefly discussed in the second part of this paper, exist. The urban areas have been rapidly expanding while infrastructure development hardly keep pace with urban growth coupled with failure in demand management. They also lack an agreed vision and strategy to guide the future development in sustainable manner.

Many studies and projects have been undertaken in these cities, yet the situation has hardly been improved. Problems continuously exist and countermeasures follow. Planning is not empowered to provide sufficient technical solutions nor does it influence decision makers to implement policies and projects in a consistent manner regardless of changes in political environment.

While the public sector is severely constrained in institutional and financial resources, the private sector has been very active in urban development and is capable of and involved in different levels of developments ranging from housing to large-scale CBD and area-wide integrated developments. Yet public sector has failed to lead and maximize the benefits from the private sector's undertakings.

Kuala Lumpur. Kuala Lumpur is a relatively small-scale city with a 1.5 million population. It has, however, a unique conurbation strategy to meet urban growth. The metropolitan area is composed of a number of cities which are connected by a high standard transport corridor. Its success is attributed to the availability of publicly-owned rich land resource and effective urban planning and development institutions.

Curitiba. Curitiba is not a city in Asia but in Brazil and is also well known among transport planners for its unique bus system as an example of best practice. What one can learn from it is not from its bus system alone but, more importantly, its overall city development strategy that has been continuously pursued by the city over the years. The bus system is a strategic component to integrate transport and urban development along the corridor to encourage the use of public transport and enhance the productivity of land use and environment. This was made possible through a clear vision and consensus among the stakeholders, continued policy commitment and a capable urban planning institution. The concept is applicable to many Asian cities.

Lessons Learned

There is no common solution nor a standard model to manage the growth of urban areas in a sustainable manner. However, a review of the experiences of selected cities indicate that there are a number of determinants for more successful growth management.

Long-term vision, strategy and commitment with institutional endorsement

As is typically known in the case of Singapore whose urban development is almost entirely planned and controlled in terms of city structure, land use, density and building, Tokyo and Kuala Lumpur are provided with institutionalized city plans and implemented in a more flexible manner. On the other hand, Metro Manila and Jakarta do not own effective city plans while Bangkok has an institutionalized General Plan which, however, lacks details and a realistic mechanism to actualize the plan.

What needs to be planned and what need not be planned for these three problematic megacities have to be cleared. Obviously, any sophisticated and detailed city plan including zoning or land use plan does not work. The public sector should concentrate on fundamental matters such as the provision of right-of-way or space for core urban infrastructure, public transport and urban services for low income group, environment and disaster management, and the establishment of a more flexible mechanism for private sector to be engaged in urban developments in a way both public and private sectors interests can meet.

The above process and output should be institutionalized by involving the public and the stakeholders. The city plan, in the form of a legal document, should clearly indicate the alignment or locations of key urban infrastructures so that excessive political intervention could be minimized. The adopted

city plan should also be open to the public for information and monitoring purposes.

Integration with primary transport

In reality, providing for a core urban transport system is the core in the growth management, both from short-term to long-term perspectives. The availability of primary transport network and services determine the growth pattern of a city. The way primary transport is developed and how urban development is integrated are well conceptualized in cities such as Tokyo and Kuala Lumpur in their own way. Tokyo is strongly rail-based with strong CBD, whereas Kuala Lumpur forms a conurbation based on high standard roads.

Critical constraints in the effective development of a major transport infrastructure are the issues of right-of-way acquisition and resettlement of affected people. These cause delays in a project's implementation, reduce network effects due to bottleneck sections and create serious social problems. A lack of an integrated approach in urban-transport development reduces and spoils equitable distribution of the development benefits. Although these are perennial problems in many cities which have been in existence for decades especially Jakarta and Metro Manila, "land readjustment" that has been long practiced in Japan may provide an alternative approach.

Private sector involvement

The private sector plays and can play more critical roles in urban development. For this, availability of an effective mechanism to tap their resources and capabilities is necessary wherein role-sharing between public sector and private sector is clearly defined. Otherwise, the beneficiaries pay very little while there is very excessive cost on the public sector.

The private sector's involvement will not only be effective in the operation and management of urban services and urban development but can be extended to a primary transport system such as urban rail transit and urban expressways. Although many undertakings under so-called "BOT" scheme have failed in the past, it does not mean that the private sector is not capable or can be a partner for public transport infrastructure development. What counts is a failure to establish a workable mechanism of public-private role-sharing. The potential capacity of private sector is still significant, technically and financially, throughout the entire project process.

Conclusion

The core themes in the urban growth management of megacities include the following:

Transit-oriented city: The city should be determined to develop transit-oriented urban growth and development which should be clearly stated in its vision, as reflected in strategies and incorporated in statutory city plans.

Integrated development: The city should establish doable mechanisms to guide urban development through strategic transport infrastructure (e.g., urban rails/expressways), to ensure acquisition of right-of-way necessary for the facilities and at the same time capture the benefits which accrue from the associated urban development.

Land management: The city should improve land management system to encourage the private sector's involvement in urban development through market mechanisms while protecting public interest and ensuring the equitable distribution of benefits from urban development.

Private sector participation: The city should encourage and guide the private sector's development through the combination of development controls and various incentives such as priority provision of core infrastructure, financial support, etc.

Metropolitan governance: The city should be provided with an institutional framework to coordinate development efforts and strategies among relevant municipalities at metropolitan level.

URBAN ECOSYSTEMS APPROACH: THE WAY FORWARD FOR REVITALIZATION OF CITIES

AWAIS L. PIRACHA

Urban Ecosystems Approach to Fulfill Policy Makers' Needs

Rise in Environmental Problems in Developing Country Cities

URBANIZATION is rapidly increasing in developing countries both in terms of the total urban population as well as the percentage of the total population living in urban areas. Such rapid growth and economic development are giving rise to many problems in cities of the developing countries. In these cities, consumerism and waste discharge from fast-growing industrial and service sectors are on the rise, causing environmental degradation.

Many of today's environmental problems, even outside the cities, can be traced directly or indirectly to urban areas. Economic activities in the urban areas as well as urban lifestyles and consumption patterns have far-reaching and long-term effects not only on its immediate boundaries, but also on the entire region in which these cities are located. The World Resources Institute (1997) states that urban areas affect the environment through three major routes: (a) the conversion of land to urban uses, (b) the extraction and depletion of natural resources, and (c) the disposal of urban wastes.

Several researchers have studied and categorized urban environmental problems in developing countries in different ways. Sham (1993) and renowned urban scholars like Joseph Whitney, Richard Stren and Rodney White developed two categories: (a) inefficient modes of resource use such as that of water supply, housing, or energy and (b) limited absorptive capacity of pollution and flooding. Brandon and Ramankutty (1993) classified key urban environmental problems in the Asian region as: (a) water pollution, (b) air pollution, (c) solid waste management, and (d) inappropriate land use.

The literature quoted above is part of volumes of research that point to the rise and the increasing complexity of environmental problems in urban areas.

A number of factors have added to this complexity. The cities of fast-growing economies are going through a cultural transition and, in the process, face the same environmental problems as those of the low-, middle-, and high-income societies put together. Researchers like Gordon McGranahan and Peter Marcotullio have extensively written on this matter. The drive for decentralization is another factor. Decentralization, which involves the transfer of responsibilities in urban environmental management from the central line agencies to the local governments, has not always been accompanied by the financial autonomy of the local governments. This situation has forced cash-starved local governments to look for other partners, such as those in the private sector. International development organizations have also become more actively involved, relentlessly pushing for the privatization of urban utilities. New players coming to the scene are international utility companies offering their services for the provision of urban environmental infrastructure and services—a phenomenon that may be related to globalization, trade and investment.

Against this backdrop of increasingly complex urban dynamics, new concepts and approaches are needed to deal with environmental issues/problems. This paper revisits the Urban Ecosystems Analysis as one such approach, highlights its merits, and points to new ways through which it can be organized, interpreted and applied.

Urban environment has been viewed by many as an ecosystem. For Botkin (1997), the view of the city as an ecosystem already implies a diverse habitat of humans and other species and a value in this diversity, which would be held up by public health experts, and urban designers and nature-lovers (Gilbert 1989). For others, the assertion that there is a systematic interrelation of its parts implies that each small dynamic adjustment at one point will make a difference in the whole city. Based on this idea of the systems approach, it is possible to envision a coherently functioning and efficient ecological city (Tjallingi 1993).

Most urban ecosystems research can be divided into two main groups. First is the work of sociologists that uses principles of ecology as an analogy in understanding the processes of communities and cities. The second category of literature involves a more physical and direct application of principles of ecology to the natural environments in cities. Not surprisingly this line of research is mostly followed by the natural scientists. What follows is a brief synthesis of the two.

Advent of Urban Ecosystems: Metaphoric use of Principles of Ecology by Sociologists

In the 1920s and 1930s, the Chicago School of Sociology applied principles of ecology to social theory with the objective of studying the community as an entity. According to Vasishth (2002), the founding sociologists of Chicago School derived their urban theory from the hard sciences, particularly ecology and evolution. They used work from animal ecology and cell physiology to understand the role of competition and cooperation as mechanisms of change and progress. They were the founders of the study of society through efforts to empirically measure and map urban patterns and processes using principles of ecology.

In *The City* (Exline et al. 1982), the authors revisited the ecological metaphor of the Chicago School. The writers of the book explained that in addition to the morphology of cities, a myriad of political, social, behavioral and political processes constantly interact to shape the urban areas. It is important to understand those interrelationships through the use of systems analysis and ecosystems concepts.

Exline, et al. (1982) rightly put forward a general warning in the use of ecosystems analogies. First, elements of an urban ecosystem may have a much higher degree of autonomy than those of a natural ecosystem. Second, in urban ecosystems cultural settings are of utmost importance. Third, it is much more difficult to explain the emergence of certain spatial patterns of urban ecosystems.

In his work *The City as an Ecosystem,* Ian Douglas (1981) criticized the analogical views of the urban ecosystem in which the city was seen only metaphorically as an ecosystem, dissociating socioeconomic systems from natural processes. These analyses were done by recent scholars who adopted Wolman's (1965) concept of urban metabolism. Mostly these analogies included some kind of interpretation of social and economic systems through organic metaphors and process-oriented terminology derived from ecological sciences. A landmark study along this line of approach is the work done in Hong Kong by Boyden (1981).

The sociologists continue to apply principles of ecology in a metaphorical way for understanding spatial patterns and sociocultural processes in cities. Some sociologists are still stressing the utility of the Chicago School's metaphoric use of ecosystem approach (Vasishth 2002). To them, an urban ecosystem stands for the practice of comparing cities to biological ecosystems. But their broad-strokes treatment of the issues falls short of what the policy makers need.

An urban ecosystems approach is more useful in understanding the linkages between sociocultural and biophysical/environmental processes than in trying to explain the urban settlement/spatial pattern or the historical development of urbanization itself. The social scientists' metaphorical use of ecology is problematic as human societies differ from natural ecosystems. Humans accumulate knowledge and other resources, thus their tremendous potential to alter their environment.

Urban Ecosystems and Natural Processes

Landscape ecologists have devoted considerable attention to the urban ecosystem in recent years because of their concern with understanding the ways in which humans can continue to alter such systems (Alberti 2000). Urban ecosystems have been understood by ecologists as ecosystems that have been profoundly altered in their processes and functions by human habitation and development (Douglas 1981). Thus, the natural processes that occur within them have been seen

to behave in very different ways from the natural processes that are present in non-urban areas. Yet these processes still exist, and provide essential services to urban dwellers (Bouland 1999). A number of studies have concentrated on examining the change in natural processes that occur along the rural-urban gradient. Other studies concentrate on how these natural processes can be restored (Givoni 1991) so that the hazards and adverse health effects of the urban ecosystem processes can be mitigated.

William Burch, Morgan Grove and Steward Pickett have been at the forefront of the research on urban and human ecosystems approaches, emphasizing the use of landscape analysis and spatial heterogeneity. They argued that it was appropriate to use principles of ecology in a metaphoric way in the 1920s and 1930s because at that time city and community growths were the main concerns. But now that revitalization and environmental concerns are a paramount agenda, these researchers recommend the use of an integrated approach that can address development and dynamics of spatial heterogeneity and the influences of spatial patterns on cycles and fluxes of critical resources (both physical and social e.g. energy, materials, nutrients, genetic and non-genetic information, population, labor, capital, organization, beliefs and myths) (Grove 1997). Burch and his students have followed this approach under the umbrella title of "biosocial" for years. The central aim of this kind of approach is spatial measurement, classification and analysis of the sociocultural and the biophysical processes. They have also highlighted that watershed models can be adopted for the purpose of human/urban ecosystems analysis.

Although the work of the above-mentioned authors is extremely valuable, questions still remain. It seems that there is a general lack of emphasis on the problem/issue orientation which is of relevance to policymakers. It also appears that the social and the natural scientists differ in their use of the urban ecosystems approach. While some of them emphasize integration of biophysical and sociocultural concerns, their models in reality are skewed to lean towards their own respective fields. However, it must be accepted that these works are a useful basis of our description of how urban ecosystem analysis can be applied to meet the needs of urban policy makers.

UNU/IAS Urban Ecosystems Concept

A complete Urban Ecosystem Approach has yet to be developed and is unlikely to be in the future a single system or as a fixed set of tools applicable to the full range of environmental problems, policies, plans and program evaluations. However, the most likely future form of Urban Ecosystems applications will be an innovative compilation of guiding principles, methods, tools and techniques. Such methodologies compiled must follow the underlying principles of an ecosystems approach and must be appropriate to the issues being explored, the resources and data available.

It is important to understand the nature of inputs that urban policy makers/managers need to reduce the negative environmental impacts of their decisions. They often need to know the linkages of the environmental problems the cities face so that they can take the most effective measures in mitigating them. They also need to know the environmental impacts of the proposed policies, plans and programs in various sectors. The urban ecosystems analysis proposed in this paper can help them in both instances by answering their specific questions related to the environment.

Strategic Environmental Assessment (SEA) is a commonly used tool in evaluating environmental implications of proposed policies, plans and programs. As of now, SEA is still in its early stages wherein methods of Environmental Impact Assessment (EIA) are used for conducting SEA. These methodologies are not suitable for evaluating policies, plans or programs. Hence, SEA remains deficient in terms of methodologies available for it. At UNU/IAS we believe that urban ecosystems analysis could be a powerful methodology for conducting SEA.

In recent years environmental data and tools have dramatically increased, making possible the conduct of complex, holistic analysis which an ecosystem approach requires. Apart from a growing concern in environmental protection, there are three other factors behind the sudden explosion of information resources. First, computer modeling and simulation tools are getting more sophisticated and more readily available. This is partly due to availability of fast and cheap computers and an exponential growth of computer applications that include modeling tools. Two, in recent years Geographic Information Systems (GIS) has

emerged as a powerful tool for conducting spatial analysis. GIS is the basis of environmental modeling. Third, the availability of environmental data has increased over the years. Substantial amounts of environmental data including GIS layers are now available on the Internet.

Popular GIS packages such as ARCINFO and ARCView from ESRI (Environment Systems Research Institute) are now available in powerful and relatively inexpensive desktop versions. Moreover, they now include modeling capabilities and several specialized planning-related modules that can be added to the basic software. ArcView now comes with an easy-to-use programming language called "Avenue" that can be used to build models in the desktop GIS. A number of third-party models have been developed using Avenue. Also, the new software packages are easier to integrate or link, as nearly all of them use Microsoft Visual Basic as macro language. Not only Microsoft's software has this capability but other developers (including ESRI) now also include this aspect in their products. In short, better software products (easy to use and with more modeling capabilities) are now available and they are easier to integrate. So the hurdles in the use of computer tools for solving complex urban ecosystem problems have been reduced considerably, so much so that there is a considerable choice for building innovative 'blends' of computer tools for application in practice.

As pointed out earlier, the availability of resources on the Internet also opened possibilities for the ecosystems approach. A surprisingly wide range of data and models is now available on the Net at nominal cost or even free of charge. The resources available on the Web are expanding on a logarithmic scale. At this point in time, there is more available on the Net that could serve as individual components of an urban ecosystem methodology than ever before.

One of the main lessons here is that the professionals conducting urban ecosystems analysis need to have an adequate background on both the social and natural/environmental sciences. They also need to have what may be called "advanced computer literacy." These professionals must have a solid hands-on experience of spreadsheets, database management, basic GIS functioning and basic modeling. They too should have a good grasp of a number of other computer tools like field-specific substantive applications (related to the environment, or transportation, e. g.) such as GIS-based modeling and remote sensing methods. They must also have some knowledge of the web/internet technologies as a good resource of data. Unless professionals have an understanding of principles, methods and tools of social and natural/environmental sciences and hands-on skills of several important computer tools, meaningful urban ecosystem methodologies cannot be developed.

Concepts, Principles, Methods, Techniques and Tools for Building Urban Ecosystems Methodologies

A critical element in the approach outlined above is a comprehensive compilation of concepts, principles, methods, techniques and tools from which an Urban Ecosystem Methodology can be selected to analyze a particular urban environmental problem. These principles, methods and tools will have to come from social sciences, natural/environmental sciences, systems theory, spatial analyses and others.

The idea of having methods, techniques and tools has inspired interest of some scholars such as Exline et al. (1982) and Grove (1997). Vasishth (2002) employed methods to describe a city as layered, overlapped, and nested arrangements of subsystems, systems, and supra-systems organized in hierarchical arrangements. However, as of now, no comprehensive compilation of such entities exists. By and large, they remain scattered in the vast literature across related fields. The UNU/IAS is in the process of compiling an array of these entities. This report, however, highlights only some of them.

Systems approach: The systems approach is helpful in looking at the linkages a particular environmental phenomenon has with the social and the natural systems. The systems approach offers a hierarchical method of clarifying the relationship of each part to the whole system.

Ecosystems (biological): Some of the principles in this category are balance, competition and ecological process of invasion, succession and dominance. Hierarchies, patchiness and perturbation are some other underlying principles of ecology. Others include resilience, resistance, persistence and variability.

Spatial analysis: Principles such as spatial heterogeneity and scale differentiation, methods such as landscape, watershed analyses and urban land-cover models and tools such as GIS and Remote Sensing fall under this category.

Material flow analyses: Flows of materials and energy, metabolism studies, ecological footprint studies.

Social analysis: Principles such as social differentiation or morphology, social identity, sociocultural hierarchy, access and allocation of resources such as wealth, power, status and knowledge, and methods of rapid rural appraisal, surveys etc. Tools such as transects, flow diagrams, decision trees and Venn diagrams, etc.

The above-mentioned list is indicative but not exhaustive. It is our objective to bring together scientists in various related fields in pooling concepts, principles, methods, techniques and tools that can help in formulating urban ecosystems methodologies. There have been some initiatives in the past that can serve as something to build on (Lattif 1983) but a lot more needs to be done.

Urban Ecosystems in the Context of Scale and Agendas for Different Income Levels

An ecosystem is a system formed by the interaction of a biological community with its chemical and physical environment. An urban ecosystem is an ecosystem dominated by human-built structures; and the ecosystem services are the materials, energy or information that people obtain from ecosystems for survival or as amenities to enrich their lives. The study of urban ecosystems began in the 1960s. Recent years have seen increased work in this field as indicated by a growing number and diversity of studies within the scope of urban ecosystem analysis. After review of literature in this field, we identified three groups: (1) health, environment, and the city; (2) the city as an ecosystem; and (3) the city as a modifier of ecosystems.

Urban ecosystems and health: One extremely important goods and service-related issue of urban ecosystems is their ability to provide "healthy" environments for the natural ecosystem, as well as for their citizens (Fitzpatrick and LaGory 2000, McMichael 2000). Those exploring the issues of health and cities are increasingly resorting to an ecological or ecosystems approach.

In the least developed cities and the poor neighborhoods in cities of the developing world, health, water, and sanitation, also known as the brown agenda, are priority concerns. Household sanitation, access to water, and pollution of waterways and water sources with human excreta and other wastes are the most important environmental issues in these cities and neighborhoods. Further, while primarily a rural issue, indoor air pollution may affect tens of millions of people in Third World cities (Satterthwaite 1995).

The city as an ecosystem: Understanding the city as an ecosystem began with two different, but related types of studies. On one hand, urban metabolism research generated a holistic view of the city as a consumer and digester of resources and a creator of waste products. On the other hand, urban ecologists began to explore the city as a natural environment (Hough 1990, Beatley 2000).

Urban metabolism started as an organic analogy of urban processes. Abe Wolman suggested that in order to overcome water shortages and water and air pollution, the city should be viewed as an organic body with metabolic processes (Wolman 1965). As such, inputs and outputs could be measured to form the basis of public economic policies.

The UNESCO/MAB's first effort towards understanding urban metabolism and cities was a Hong Kong seminal study by Boyden and Celecia (1981). Their approach was to look at urban settlements as ecosystems, examining the complex interactions that take place, rather than to study specific problems in isolation. This technique is illustrated by the flow of important materials into and through Hong Kong. Studies along these lines include those that explore the energy, water, and nutrient balances of cities, along with the flows of waste materials, among others (Douglas 1983).

The other trend in urban ecosystem research concerns "urban ecology." This concept, based on the notion in biology of the interaction between living things and their environment and the normative values related to the "green city" as opposed to the Chicago

School's sociological approach, suggests that urban environment has been profoundly altered in its processes and functions by human habitation and development, but at the same time, biotic and other ecological processes still exist there (Douglas 1981). This perspective offers ecologists the opportunity to address the practical problems related to the anthropogenic impact on ecological systems, and also provides opportunities to examine fundamental ecological questions concerning the structure, function, and organization of ecosystems in general (McDonnell and Pickett 1991).

The city as modifier of ecosystems: The "global" city literature that emerged in the mid-1980s (Friedmann and Wolff 1982, Sassen 1991) suggests that cities are increasingly linked to each other through flows of goods, services, investment, finance, people, and knowledge. At the same time, these global cities are also linked with and are increasingly impacting on ecosystems elsewhere. Folke et al. (1997) found in their study of northern European cities that the 744 largest cities' consumption accounted for 25 percent of the world's annual sea catch. This important finding prompted these scholars to warn that the "web of connections linking one ecosystem with the next is escalating across all scales in both space and time. Everyone is now in everyone else's backyard."

Since cities, particularly those of the developed world, cannot be self-contained, "sustainable" units, they should know what their ecological footprints are and contribute to reducing them. Cities are a key to promoting global sustainability; yet we are only beginning to understand the ways in which their activities impact the local, regional, and global ecosystems.

The classification of urban ecosystems described above is a cornerstone in the analysis of urban environmental issues.

The basis of the urban ecosystem assessment framework: the urban environment transition model

The "environmental transition" theory suggests that wealth (in terms of GDP) can be used to measure the environmental performance of cities (see for example, McGranahan et al. 1994). Current studies on the relationship between economic growth, urban environmental issues and urban sustainability call for an investigation of, inter alia, the effects of varying levels of wealth on the urban environment and the implications of these complex relationships on governance. A recent study has suggested that "affluence is neither unambiguously harmful nor unambiguously beneficial to the physical environment" (McGranahan, Songsore and Kjellen 1996, 105). Subsequently, scholars theorized a staged relationship between environment and urban development where some environmental conditions improve while others worsen. For example, Satterthwaite (1997) suggested a five-stage model, while McGranahan and Songsore (1994) and Bai and Imura (2000) proposed a three-stage model. Notwithstanding the debate over the number of stages, the transition process has yet to be fully explored.

International interest in urban environmental issues in developing countries is a relatively recent phenomenon that was spurred by a series of reports and research findings during the late 1980s and early 1990s (Satterthwaite 1996). Urban environmental scholars, unconvinced with the assumption that wealth will ultimately bring cleaner environments, began work on further enhancing the environmental Kuznets' curve relationship. In a recent work, Gordon McGranahan and his collaborators (McGranahan et al. 2001) presented a persuasive argument concerning the relationship between development, affluence, and the urban environment, claiming that urban environmental burdens tend to be more dispersed and delayed in more affluent settings. Dividing cities into three income categories, they argue that the dominant environmental problems in low-income cities are localized, immediate, and health-threatening. The environmental challenges in middle-income cities are citywide or regional, somewhat more delayed, and a threat to both health and ecological sustainability. Finally, affluent cities deal with global, intergenerational, and environmental threats to ecological sustainability.

This model can form the basis of a framework on which studies of urban ecosystems can be organized. Further, because of the incorporation of scale and the focus on environmental issues at varying levels of income, it can be used to integrate urban ecosystem assessments into larger assessment efforts.

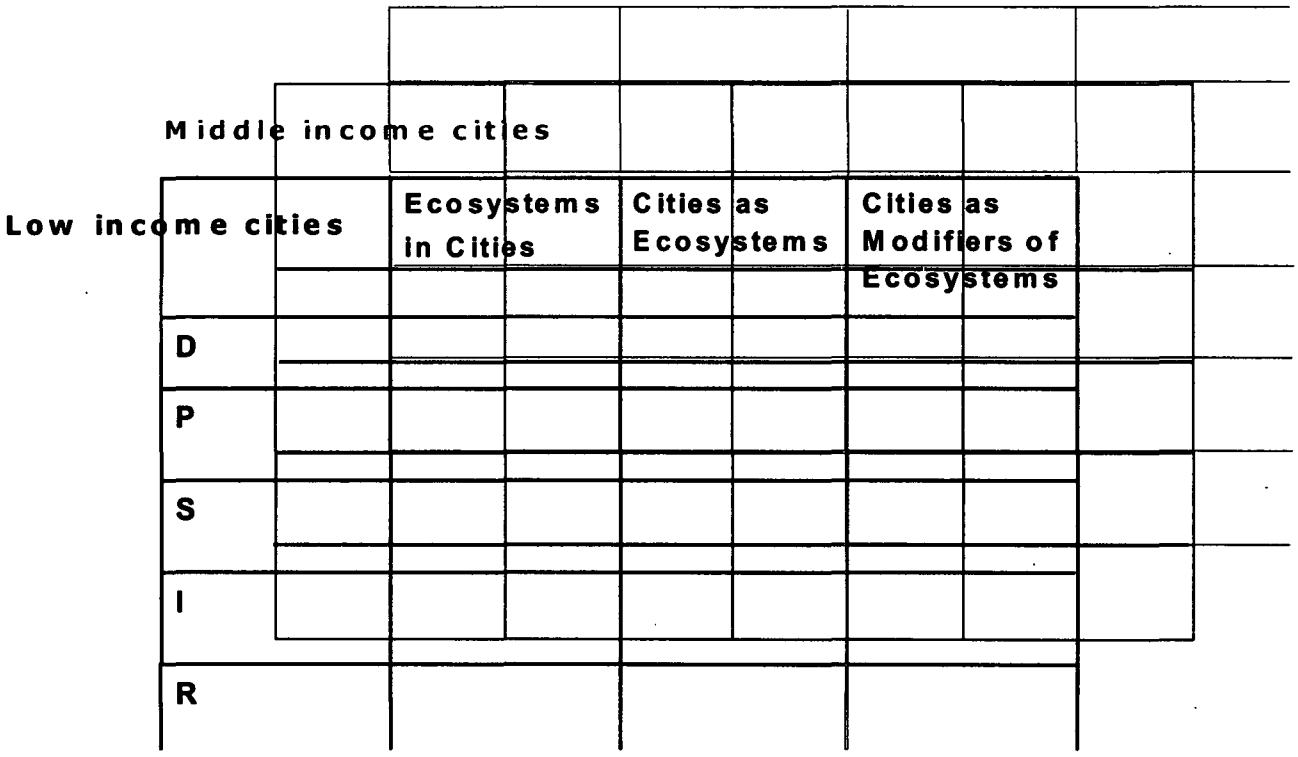
An important understanding that emerged from the above discussion is the brown, gray and green agenda for the cities. Along the path of development, cities first grapple with issues of the so-called "Brown Agenda" which encompass the conventional environmental health agenda, including concerns for poor housing, lack of basic services, hazardous air and water pollution, and solid wastes. Once the cities overcome these issues, they encounter the problems of "Gray Agenda," which are somewhat long-term, delayed threats to health and ecological stability. As cities become more developed, they tackle "Green Agenda," concentrating on the contribution of urban-based production, consumption and waste generation to ecosystem disruptions, resources depletion and global climate change.

Figure 1 presents a framework that demonstrates the directions of urban ecosystem research might go. It defines the parameters that form the bases for assessment and grouping of cities into socioeconomic levels. This framework will form the basis for further discussion. This framework highlights that an Urban Ecosystem Assessment is a 3-dimensional, multilayered matrix using environmental indicators to assess the urban ecosystem, while taking into consideration the different income levels of cities.

This framework makes use of the "Driving-Force-Pressure-State-Impact-Response" (DPSIR) structure. The DPSIR Framework provides an overall mechanism for analyzing environmental problems. The driving forces are industry and transport etc.; the pressures on the environment could be polluting emissions; the state of the environment is the quality of water, air and soil; impacts are that of pollution on human health ecosystems; and responses are various policy measures such as regulations, information and taxes to mitigate those impacts. This Driving-Force-Pressure-State-Impact-Response (DPSIR) framework helps in organizing the data and facilitating data analysis.

Conclusion

The accelerated growth and the increasing complexity of urban environmental problems warrant the development of a more comprehensive, holistic approach for analysis. Urban Ecosystems Analysis meets this important criterion. However, in order to be useful, the Urban Ecosystems Analysis will have to satisfy the requirements of policy makers. The research initiative at UNU/IAS does this by presenting a new interpretation and the prospects for application of the Urban Ecosystems Approach.



An Urban Ecosystems methodology is envisioned to be an innovate compilation of guiding principles, methods and tools selected from a comprehensive array of these entities. This compilation is essential to the analysis of the environmental problem/issue.

In order to put the Urban Ecosystems Analysis in the proper context of scale and city income levels, a three dimensional framework has been proposed. This framework has the underpinnings of urban environmental transition theory and helps in determining the relevant environmental agenda for a particular environmental issue at a particular location.

There exists a close collaboration between UNU/IAS and the Millennium Ecosystems Assessment (MA). Proposals regarding urban issues have been made to MA. Those recommendations have been taken favorably and now UNU/IAS, UNESCO-Man and Biosphere and WHO-Healthy Cities initiative on Urban Ecosystems are the chief contributors to the urban theme of the MA.

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CHANGES OF URBAN REVITALIZATION POLICIES AND PROJECTS IN JAPAN

YOJI TAKAHASHI

Introduction

SINCE urbanization started and accelerated parallel to economic growth, it resulted in population migration as well as the concentration of many urban functions from the rural to the metropolitan area. Tokyo, Osaka and Nagoya metropolitan areas have faced serious problems such as housing shortage, traffic congestion and destruction of green area caused by overpopulation and excessive social and economic activities. On the other hand, population in small local cities declined, resulting to limited industrial accumulation. The government has tried to correct the imbalance between metropolitan areas and rural areas since the end of World War II. Revitalizing local cities, stopping the outflow of the population from rural areas, and correcting the overpopulation of metropolitan areas have been the government's principal and primary goals. The objective of this paper is to review the changes of urban revitalization policies and projects aimed at addressing the imbalance between metropolitan areas and the rest of the country, and also to evaluate how land readjustment projects and urban redevelopment have been useful in revitalizing cities, especially commercial and business districts.

Urbanization and Population Migration

Urbanization of Japan accelerated since the 1950s and most of the migrants were concentrated in the metropolitan areas of Tokyo, Osaka and Nagoya. From the late 1950s to the early 1970s 400,000 to 600,000 people migrated yearly to these three areas, which constituted only 10.4 percent of the total land area of Japan. The social migration was closely related to the level of economic growth and the rapid industrialization required a large quantity of labor force supplied by the inflow of young migrants from rural areas. Although rapid economic growth continued until the early 1970s, the oil crisis of 1973 caused a shift in the Japanese economy from rapid economic growth to stable growth. The economic structure has been transformed from the heavy and energy-consuming type of industry to machine-electronic and energy-saving type of industry.

Migration into the three metropolitan areas was intense during high economic growth period, but it started slowing down at the end of the 1970s. Most people already settled into regional core cities such as Sapporo, Sendai, Hiroshima and Fukuoka. The national population growth rate is registered at 12.8 percent during 1965–1975, 8.1 percent during 1975–1985, and 3.7 percent during 1985–1995. On the other hand, the three metropolitan areas posted 24.4 percent, 9.3 percent and 5.6 percent growth rates during the same periods, respectively. As of 2000, more than 72 percent of the entire population lived in cities, from only 37 percent in 1950. The total population of the three metropolitan areas reached 62 million, one half of the nation's population.

Population migration into urban areas brought serious problems like traffic congestion, housing shortage and environmental degradation. Furthermore, this trend caused the decline of rural communities due to aging and insufficient job opportunities. In an attempt to have balanced development all over Japan, the imbalance between metropolitan and rural areas soon became serious problems.

The government has tried to stop the population outflow from rural areas by building highway, bullet train and harbor systems and industrial development projects. At the beginning of the 21st century, however, the population of Japan reached its peak and overpopulation began to ease in the metropolitan areas. At this point, Japan changed from an urbanizing and growing society to an urbanized and matured society.

National Development Plan and City Planning

Comprehensive National Development Plan

The city planning system was not enough to deal with the problems caused by rapid urbanization in the metropolitan areas. To alleviate the regional problems and to address the issue of balanced development between metropolitan and rural areas, a Comprehensive National Development Plan was prepared.

The Comprehensive National Development Plan (CNDP) 1960–1970

The Cabinet decided to formulate the plan during a meeting in 1962. The plan's objectives were: 1) to relieve regional disparities in development, 2) to disperse capital and human resources from the metropolitan areas to rural areas, and 3) to use natural resources effectively. Core development areas were identified in order to disperse industrial development throughout the country. Transportation and communication infrastructure were developed to strengthen the access to the existing core areas of development. Although the plan was successful in dispersing industries from metropolitan areas to regions along the Pacific Industrial Belt, the rest of the regions had been left undeveloped and faced the same outflow of population as before.

The New CNDP 1965–1975

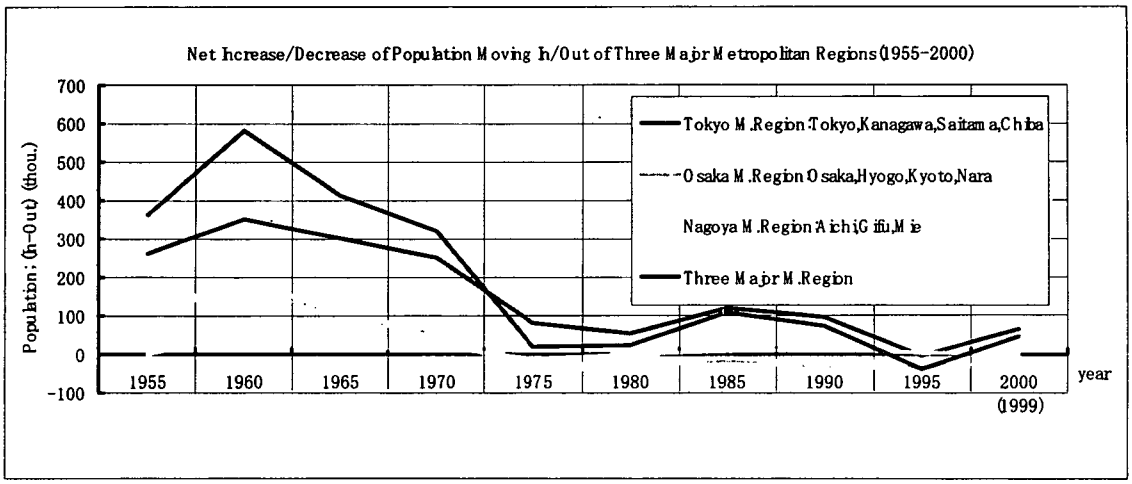
The new plan, which was decided in 1969, aimed 1) to preserve and protect natural environment and 2) to balance and expand development throughout the country. To this end, the Shinkansen (bullet train) network and an expressway network were planned and promoted to relieve inequality in regional development. But the second plan was discontinued after the oil crisis. In reality, industries and population concentrated in the metropolitan areas from 1965–1975, and the income disparity between urban and rural areas widened.

Table 1. Population of Urban and Rural Area

		1945	1950	1955	1960	1965	1970
urban	population	20,022	31,366	50,532	59,678	67,356	75,429
	share (%)	(27.8)	(37.3)	(56.1)	(63.3)	(67.9)	(72.1)
rural	population	51,976	52,749	39,544	34,622	31,853	29,237
	share (5)	(72.2)	(62.7)	(43.9)	(36.7)	(32.1)	(27.9)
total		71,998	84,115	90,077	94,302	99,209	104,665

		1975	1980	1985	1990	1995	2000
urban	population	84,187	89,187	92,889	95,644	98,009	
	share (%)	(75.9)	(76.2)	(76.7)	(77.4)	(78.1)	
rural	population	26,972	27,873	28,160	27,968	27,561	
	share (5)	(24.1)	(23.8)	(23.3)	(22.6)	(21.9)	
total		111,940	117,060	121,049	123,611	125,570	

Figure 1. Population Moving In/Out of Three Metropolitan Areas



The Third CNDP 1975–1990

The third plan of 1977 reflected the shift in economy from rapid growth to stable growth. The objectives of the third plan were: 1) to enhance the city's localities and characteristics, and 2) to improve living environment. During this period, Japanese economy took second place in the world in terms of Gross National Product, while the needs of Japanese people improved from mere higher income to better environment and better quality of life. This is the reason why the goal of the third CNDP has changed drastically compared to previous CNDPs.

The Fourth CNDP 1985–2000

The plan of 1987, aimed at distributing population and urban functions into other cities, was adopted under the circumstances that population and urban functions were again concentrated on the Tokyo Metropolitan Area as before. The government took the initiative of developing transportation and communication infrastructure all over the country to strengthen the relationship among all core cities. However, the Japanese economy experienced a depression since the beginning of 1990s and the government had some difficulty in carrying out these projects according to plan.

The Fifth CNDP of 1998 (for period 2010–2015)

The plan was meant 1) to rebuild the nation from a single core and axis pattern like the Pacific Ocean Axis to a multi cores and axes pattern like the Tohoku Axis and Japan Sea Axis, 2) to renovate metropolitan areas and revive not only Tokyo but the whole nation as well, and 3) to develop transportation and communication infrastructure that will revitalize rural areas.

Problems and Policies in the Metropolitan Areas

Rapid migration has resulted in the so-called overpopulation problems in the metropolitan areas, such as housing shortage, long distance commuting, shortage of green and open spaces, air and noise pollution. In metropolitan areas, many housing and industrial development projects were planned and implemented by both public and private sectors. Population in the Tokyo metropolitan area increased from 21 million in 1965 to 27 and 30 million in 1975 and 1985, respectively. Strong demand for housing and industrial lots has brought about extensive conversion of farm and forest to residential and industrial lots. Urban sprawl in the metropolitan areas had been so serious that the control of the disorderly expansion of the city's boundary was an urgent and important issue.

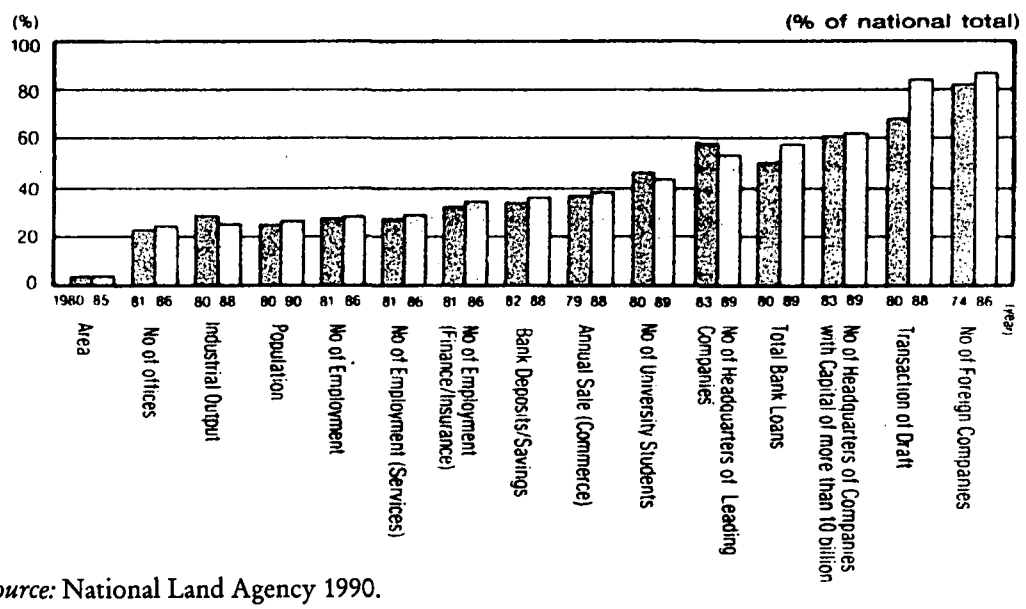
Every year, about 20,000 hectares of land was converted for urban land use throughout the country, which often caused the severe destruction of natural and urban environment.

The City Planning Law was amended to introduce more regulatory measures on land development control in 1968. Though the three metropolitan areas had experienced rapid population migration growth before the mid-1970s, the Tokyo metropolitan area alone continued to experience population migration even after the late 1970s. Real estate prices had soared in these areas, mostly in Tokyo, and commercial areas, even in provincial cities, until the collapse of the bubble economy. Large-scale development and/or redevelopment projects have been implemented such as residential development projects in the suburban areas like Tama Newtown or Kohoku Newtown; reclamation projects for industry like Chiba Coastal Industrial Zone, and business & convention complexes like MM21 and Makuhari.

In the beginning of the 1990s, Tokyo had become one of the most important financial cities in the world, equal to New York and London. Many foreign companies expanded business to Tokyo. Big Japanese enterprises located their head offices in Tokyo as well. The financial and information industries were concentrated in the central part of Tokyo, like Chiyoda, Chuo and Minato wards. After all, Tokyo attracted enterprises and employees again and invited more urban functions such as information industries, higher educational institutions, foreign enterprise branches, financial functions, international commerce functions. The problem was that the administrative, financial, international functions of the nation were too concentrated in the central part of Tokyo. Due to the powerful attraction of Tokyo, the rest of the country was expected to lose its vitality.

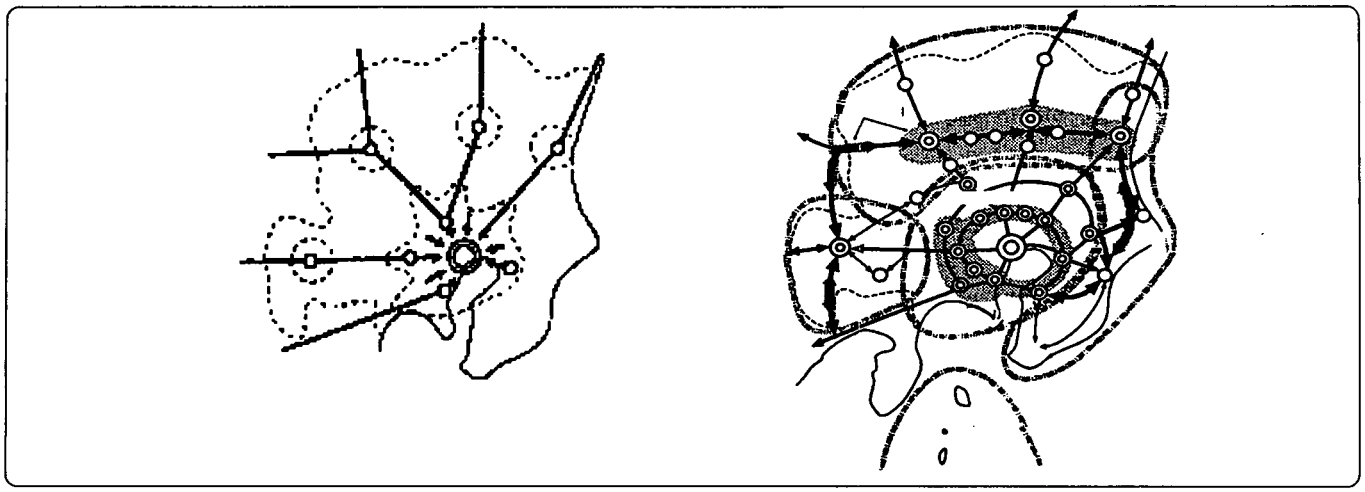
Tokyo Metropolitan Area has extended its boundary to almost fifty (50) kilometers in radius, having a population of nearly 32 million in 1990. It became clear that the existing single core structure of Tokyo Metropolitan Area should be changed to a multi-core center structure in order to solve these problems immediately. The government made plans to disperse central administration functions such as national government offices, head offices of big enterprises, information and cultural facilities. The plan designated five business accumulation cities 30–50 kilometers away from the central part of Tokyo, such as Yokohama-Kawasaki, Chiba-Makuhari, Tsukuba-Tsuchiura and Tachikawa-Hachioji, connected to each other by the Tokyo Metropolitan Area Central Ring Road and several radial expressways and railway systems.

Figure 2. Concentration of Urban Function in Tokyo Metropolitan Area



Source: National Land Agency 1990.

Figure 3. Multi-Core Centers Structure-Tokyo Metropolitan Area

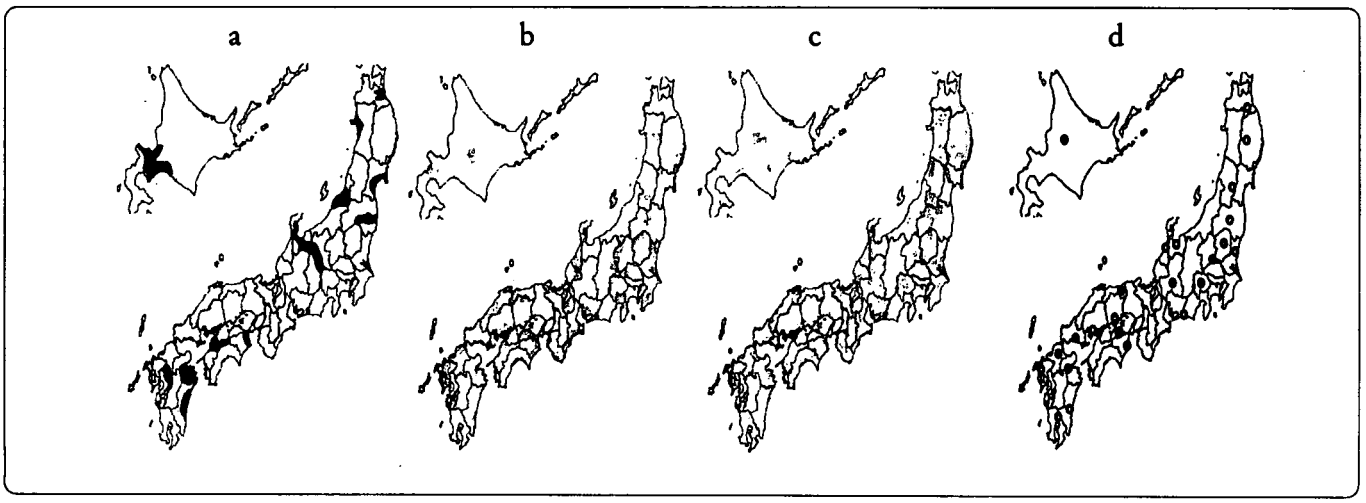


No matter how the Tokyo Metropolitan Area is reformed into multi-core centers, Tokyo is given too much weight compared to the rest of the country, in terms of balanced national land planning. Therefore, the government made a plan to transfer some national functions, such as the national Diet and the central government organizations, to a new city that will be built 300 kilometers away from Tokyo as the new capital of the nation. The government chose three (3) sites, namely: Tochigi-Fukushima, Gifu-Aichi and Mie-Kio, as the new capital. The move is expected to minimize the risk of big earthquakes and to correct the imbalance between metropolitan and rural areas.

Problems and Policies in Rural Areas

Social migration has caused serious depopulation problems in rural areas, such as the "decay" of commercial and business districts, financial difficulty of the public transport business, and less job opportunities. From 1962 to 1964, the New Industrial Cities Construction Law and the Specified Areas for Industrial Reorganization Law were enacted in order to relocate heavy and chemical industries from the metropolitan areas to rural areas. But these projects were not effective in reviving rural areas so they were designated in distant areas from existing core cities. These core cities were usually equipped with harbors

Figure 4. Industry Relocation Programs



convenient for transporting materials like iron ore, oil, steel and chemical goods and products. After considering strong requests from local areas, 22 regions —corresponding to one-third of the nation—were designated for the projects (Figure 4.a). After all, the government failed to accomplish some projects due to insufficient investment.

In 1970, the Industrial Relocation Promotion Law was enacted, prohibiting the establishment or renewal of factories and universities in Tokyo and Osaka metropolitan areas, in order to encourage relocating these facilities to designated rural areas. The government prepared attractive incentives to support this law like tax reduction, subsidy and grants. In the late 1970s, the Japanese industrial structure changed from heavy and chemical type to electronics and machine type. Inland industrial estates linked with the highway network had an advantage over coastal industrial estates equipped with harbors. Then the concept of a new industrial estate, the so-called Technopolis, was introduced to give way to the most advanced industries like electronics or biotechnology in rural areas (Figure 4.b). These industries, however, were capital-intensive and did not produce enough employment in rural areas. Nonetheless, these projects have served their purposes in terms of revitalizing the surrounding area. Some of them, however, were not successful because of their distant location from metropolitan areas or mother cities.

The government has formulated industry relocation programs repeatedly to revitalize rural areas. Among these programs were the Relocation of Advanced Industrial Functions and the Development of Local Core Facilities for Industrial Business even after the 1980s (Figure 4.c). In 1991, the Local Core City Development Law was enacted to ease concentration of the nationwide functions in Tokyo by transferring them to other designated cities (Figure 4.d). Contrary to expectations, relocation policies were not so effective in reviving local cities or rural areas due to the strong attraction of metropolitan areas, especially Tokyo.

It was estimated that the population will peak up to 126 million in 2004 to 2006, then decrease rapidly up to 100 million by 2050. Almost every city might experience a reversal flow from a period of population growth to decline. In addition to this, Japan has stepped into the aged society and the ratio of old people in 2050 will have reached more than 30 percent in comparison to 8 percent in 1975 and 15 percent in 2000. It is predicted that the tendency of population inflow and functions accumulation to the metropolitan areas will become loose. Urban problems in the metropolitan areas will shift from 'coping with overpopulation or expansion of its boundary' to 'preparing for an aged, matured and decreasing society.

New Policies for Urban Revitalization

Present Situation of Japanese Cities

After the Plaza Agreement in 1985, the Japanese government opened domestic markets more to realize the nation's policy of liberalization and internationalization. In line with these policies, Japan has been struggling to reform the nation's system from a centralized, administrative and regulated society into a localized, privatized and more market-oriented society. Many social regulations were eased or abolished in many fields of the society and the government expanded expenditures for social capital and money supply to the market. This is to keep the Japanese promise to stabilize world economy. As a result of these policies, the monetary overflow from banks was shifted to the real estate and stock markets starting from the second half of 1980s.

Finally, as a result of the collapse of the bubble economy in the end of the 1980s, the price of land and stocks slumped sharply and many projects—whether public or private—have been abandoned. Simultaneously, Japanese enterprises had shifted their investment from domestic market to Southeast Asia and China, looking for less expensive labor forces. As many enterprises relocated their factories from Japan to foreign countries, a large amount of vacant lots have been yielded even in the metropolitan areas.

In 2000, more than 92 percent of the national population lived in city planning areas and 64 percent in the densely inhabited area. In other words, one-half of the people lived in the metropolitan areas. But the trend in metropolitan area expansion has been suppressed since the end of the 1990s. Therefore, urban

renewal of existing built-up areas is more important than new development in suburban areas of the metropolis.

Policies for Revitalization of Commercial and Business Districts in Local Cities

As the motorization in Japan progressed and reached almost the same level as that of the EU, the car was placed as the most popular and important transportation mode especially in local cities. Road networks and parking spaces were not enough to meet huge traffic demand in existing commercial and business districts, since these cities formed their urban structures before the motorization started. Large-scale retail shops have opened in the suburban areas, equipped with enough parking lots to meet transportation demand of the large commercial market, along with bypaths of trunk roads or next to interchanges of the highway network. The existing commercial and business districts in local cities declined in prosperity due to the relocation of retail shops from CBDs to suburban areas. Local governments could not control these commercial activities. Most of the commercial and business districts in local cities have been defeated by large-scale retail shops in the suburbs, where customers can easily take their cars and park.

To cope with the decline of existing city centers, the government enacted "The Law for Revitalizing Central Commercial and Business Districts" in 1998. At the same time, the Law regarding the Location of Large-Scale Retail Shop was enacted, allowing anyone to set up large-scale retail shops in the suburbs. In addition to this, the City Planning Law was amended to give local governments a free hand to undertake more independent and original city planning than before.

Municipalities are expected to formulate plans for reviving their city center districts. In these districts, revitalizing committees must be established as the key body to execute renewal policies related to improving the quality of shops. The plan often depend on projects like land readjustment or urban development, which provide more efficient road network and parking spaces.

Kitakyushu, for example, was established by combining five cities in 1963. It had been trying to reform itself from a steel industry city to an advanced technology oriented industrial city, specifically as an Asian industrial communication hub. Kitakyushu faced decline after losing to Hakata, a prefectural city, which is located almost 70 kilometers away from Kitakyushu. For revitalizing Kitakyushu, they have constructed a highway network that will link the existing five city cores and they have a plan to extend the length of a runway of Kitakyushu Airport to open international regular service flights. Kokura, one of the five existing cities, was identified as the center of Kitakyushu. Urban redevelopment projects and the Kitakyushu monorail system were completed. In Wakamatsu, which is also one of the five cities, they implemented such projects as the Science and Academy Town Project, the Cultural and Historical Reservation Project, and the Natural and Recreational Project.

Table 2. Laws for Revitalization of Local Cities

THE CITY PLANNING LAW
❑ more flexible land use control by municipalities
❑ the deregulation of power from the national government to local government
THE LAW REGARDING THE LOCATION OF LARGE-SCALE RETAIL SHOP
❑ the abolition of the regulation against the opening of large-scale retail shops
❑ the assessment of environment and traffic problems caused by large-scale retail shops
THE LAW FOR REVITALIZING CENTRAL COMMERCIAL AND BUSINESS DISTRICTS
❑ the procedure of making up the revitalizing plan for local city centers
❑ the necessity of the town management organization in each area
❑ the taxation and financial support menus
❑ the incentive policies for the participation and investment by private sectors

Urban Revitalization Policies for Economic Recovery

Revitalization policies for cities can be effective in recovering from economic recession by introducing private and public investments. Since urban revitalization projects are generally feasible and profitable, they are now regarded as one of the most effective policies for economic recovery. The objectives of urban revitalization are: 1) to prevent expansion of the city boundary and to build compact cities, 2) to construct safer cities, lessen or eventually remove traffic congestion and accidents, 3) to construct sustainable and environmental cities, and 4) to prepare spaces for new industries.

As a first step, the government has designated 17 districts, with a total of 3,515 hectares, in three (3) metropolitan areas, where private sectors can carry on business freely, exempt from ordinary regulation. In these designated districts, private sectors can propose urban revitalization plans to the local governments in cases where more than two-third of landowners agree with the plan. In 2002, the City Planning Act was amended, encouraging private sectors to invest in these projects in the metropolitan areas. Once the plan is accepted by the local city planning committee, the existing legal city plan can be changed to a new plan proposed by the private sector.

Urban revitalization plans differ from one another and are identified accordingly, such as an environment special district, an information industry special district, an education special district, or a medical special district.

As for Otemachi-Marunouchi-Yurakucho Area, it used to be the oldest and the most important business core in Japan and the Tokyo Station, which is the hub of the Japanese railroad system, is located in this area. The revitalization plan of this area aimed not only to transform low-rise buildings into high-rise intelligent ones to restore its position as the most important business and commercial center in Japan, but also to landscape the area to make it one of the most attractive CBDs worldwide.

Measures for Urban Revitalization

Issues and Needs of Urban Development

Urban development was undertaken by redeveloping urbanized areas, particularly after World War II, and by developing housing and industrial estates in new urban areas. Although the construction of urban infrastructure such as roads, parks, sewerage, etc. has been actively carried out by the government, many urban areas still require further improvement because of low standard infrastructure. An extreme change in the recent economic environment and industrial structure after the 1990s brought new issues. Lands that were used for factories and railway switchyards became idle, and commercial and business areas in local cities declined in competition with new large-scale commercial developments in the suburbs.

As far as measures for urban development are concerned, land readjustment and urban redevelopment are the most popular and important ones, based on the legal city planning process.

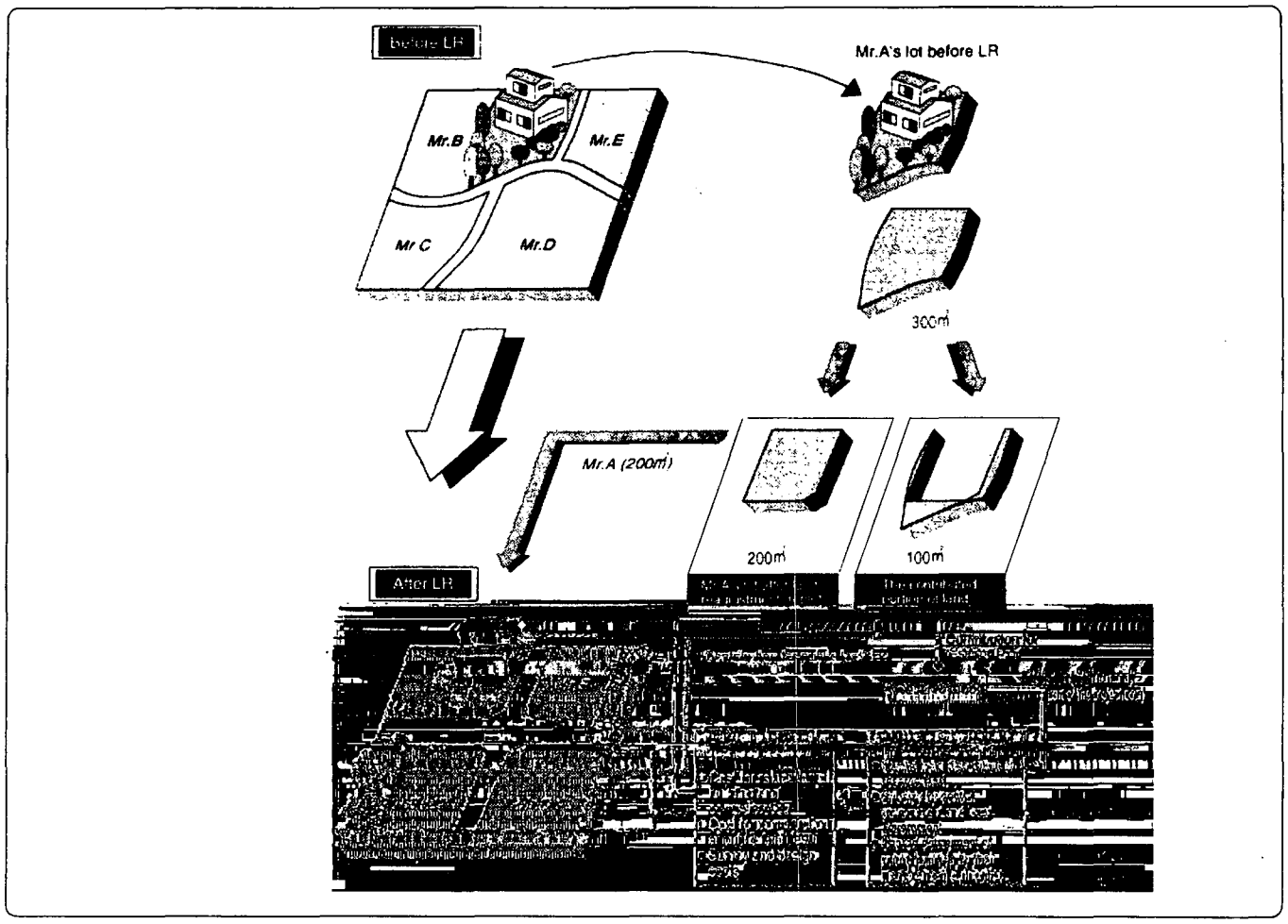
Land Readjustment Project

The conceptual framework of a land readjustment project is shown in Figure 5, involving a number of unique concepts such as replotting, contribution, etc. Since landowners and leaseholders equitably contribute a portion of their land in a land readjustment project, a replot—a building lot after land readjustment—becomes smaller than the lot before land readjustment. However, urban infrastructure developed under land readjustment boosts land values with the enhancement of efficient or effective utilization of building lots. This is called an increase in land use value between original building lots and replotted lots.

Below are the characteristics of land readjustment in comparison with land acquisition method:

1. Land readjustment project is a measure to construct urban facilities and building lots regardless of size, area, existing or new

Figure 5. Concept of Land Readjustment Project



development. Land readjustment project is one of the most effective measures to revitalize the project area.

2. Each landowner and leaseholder shoulder land and development expenses fairly. The benefit derived from the development is also fairly distributed among them.
3. Landowners and leaseholders both actively participate in the project and can express their views on the project.

Urban Redevelopment Project

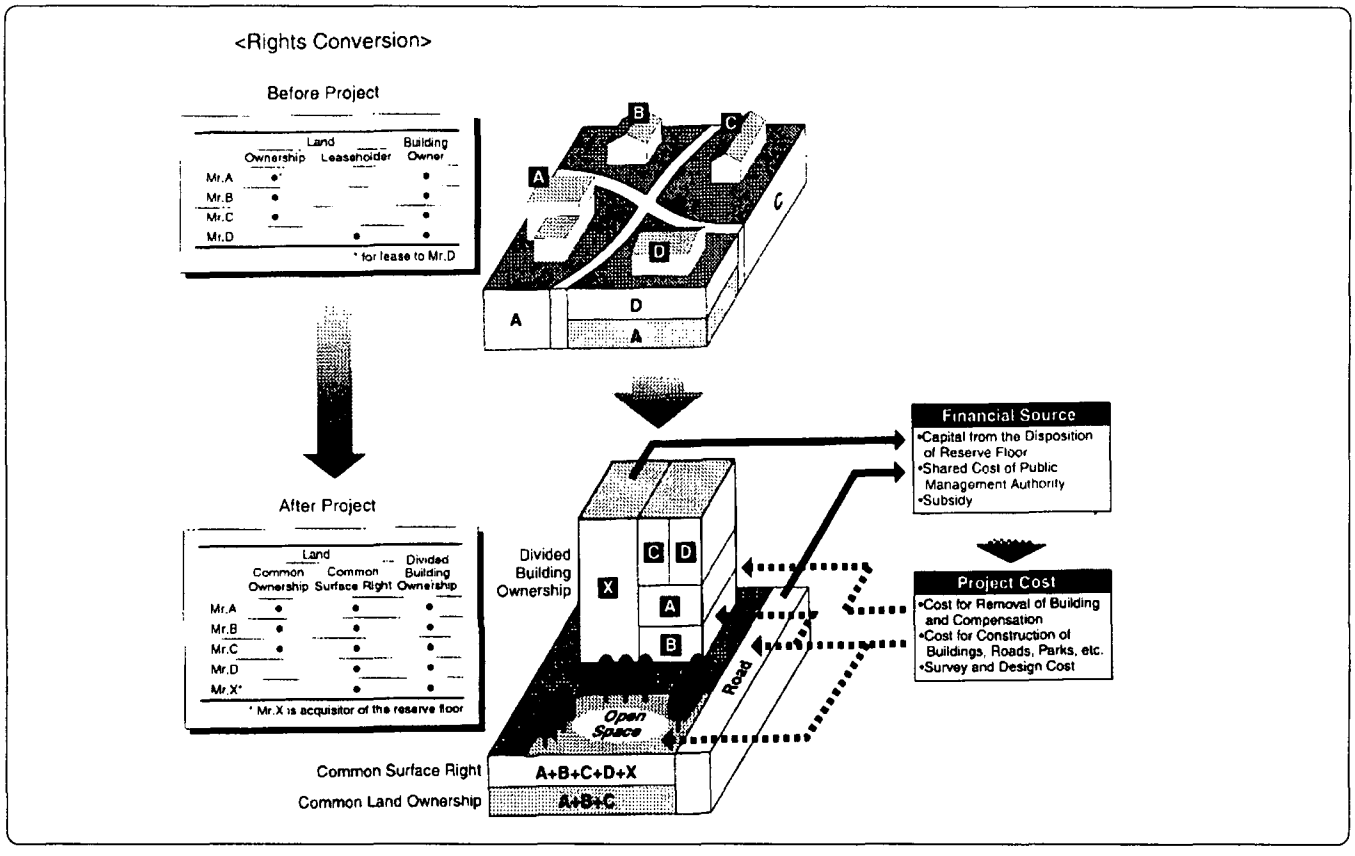
Urban redevelopment is implemented through right-conversion as shown in Figure 6. After the project, land and/or building owners receive rights on certain portions of floors within the renewed buildings or building site, depending on their previous tenure. By constructing high-rise buildings, the redevelopment project provides buildings, roads, parks, plazas and other public facilities in an integrated manner.

Below are characteristics of urban redevelopment in comparison with land purchase measures:

1. Urban redevelopment project, which is considered to be one of the most effective revitalization measures, is an integrated arrangement and/or renewal of buildings, building sites and public facilities.
2. Landowners and leaseholders both participate in the project and express their views on it. They can remain in the project area even after the urban redevelopment.

Anybody can participate in the project and acquire the floor for commercial and business activities.

Figure 6. The Concept of Urban Redevelopment Project



Concluding Remarks

Reviewing Japanese redevelopment or revitalization policies and projects, it is possible to summarize factors that might decide the success or failure of plans and projects.

1. Regional development policies have two aspects: a) how to correct regional imbalance throughout the country, and b) how to develop areas efficiently and effectively where plans and projects are feasible enough. The first aspect persuades us to put investments into slow economic functioning areas. The second aspect encourages us to invest in areas where necessary and sufficient conditions are provided in advance. The development or revitalization policy or project should be based on economic rationality but should not be highly influenced by politics.
2. The plan and project should focus on appropriate areas and sectors, and must apply the most realistic and effective methods. The relationship between national and local government is not always good enough for a project or plan to be achieved. The leadership of decision makers and administrative organizations are very critical in and essential to the success of the plan or project.
3. The private sector plays an important role in the project. It is extremely important to have good cooperation between public and private sectors, especially throughout the duration of the project. Any project that is not attractive to the private sector might have very little chance of success.
4. Redevelopment or revitalization projects usually have fairly long project periods, sometimes even extending to a few decades. In general, longer project periods have higher risks. It is advisable to limit the project period to minimize the risk.

5. As physical planning is not enough to develop the area, the project should not be limited to physical development such as roads, harbors, airports, railways, parks and sewerage. Redevelopment projects usually focus on physical planning but revitalization projects cover both physical planning and economic/social aspects. In this light, revitalization projects might be more effective in yielding employment, investment and sales than a redevelopment project.
6. Cities—particularly primal cities in developing countries where there is rapid population and industrial growth—must cope with the spread of suburbia and city squatters by investing in roads, sewerage and parks despite meager resources. In these areas, it is necessary to prepare the minimal level of infrastructure as a first step. The need to control and orderlys construct the whole city through physical development projects or land use regulation is usually stronger and more urgent than the need to implement revitalization projects in restricted areas. It is evident that economic and social programs are important in these cities but that the programs should cover the entire city than be limited in particular areas.
7. Consultation with the public—landowners, building owners, store owners, residents, transport companies—is significant in reaching an agreement for redevelopment and revitalization. The more time spent in consultation, the smoother the project would be.

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COMPREHENSIVE ENVIRONMENTAL RENOVATION AND REDEVELOPMENT: LOW-COST URBAN REVITALIZATION APPROACHES IN DANZHOU CITY, HAINAN PROVINCE, CHINA

LIU XINLIANG

Background

HAINAN, the second largest island of China, with a total land area of 3.39 million hectares and a population of 7.87 million (March 2001), is also the largest special economic zone in China enjoying preferential policies and special legislative powers granted by the central government.[1] It is located in the southernmost part of China, the tropical zone, and is close to Hong Kong, Macau and Southeast Asian countries.

A major breakthrough in Hainan's development occurred in April 1988 when it was declared an independent province and a special economic zone. It used to be one of the poorest regions in China until the mid-1980s. In 1983, agriculture still dominated the prefecture's economy with a 68.9 percent share of the total industrial and agricultural output, compared with the national average of 29.8 percent. Although the island was established as a special prefecture in 1983, the rates of foreign capital use and industrial growth lagged far behind the other four Special Economic Zones (SEZs) between 1983 and 1988, owing to its lack of infrastructure and a low level of overall development. However, progress has been made since 1988; total GNP increased from 5.73 billion RMB[2] in 1987 to 38.953 billion RMB in 1996, including the primary industry output of 14.354 billion RMB, secondary industry 8.132 billion RMB, and tertiary industry 16.467 billion RMB. Percentage of primary industries decreased from 50.05 percent in 1987 to 36.85 in 1996. Meanwhile, share of tertiary industries jumped from 30.94 percent in 1987 to 42.27 percent in 1996.

Hainan Province has experienced rapid urbanization in the past few years. Because Hainan is the youngest province in China, its base is very poor. Urbanization level in 1978 was 8.23 percent—lower by 9.69 percentage points than the average national level. In 1998 when Hainan Island became a separate province of China, urbanization level was at 16.99 percent, still 3.7 percentage points lower than the average national level, 11.36 percentage points lower than that of developing countries, and 48.6 percentage points lower than the rate of developed countries. By the end of 1998, Hainan had an urban population of 2.05 million, with an urbanization level of 27.3 percent (which is lower than the country's urbanization level of 30.4%), and urbanization rate of 39 percent. The growth rate of Hainan Province's urbanization had averaged 0.92 percent per year for the past twenty years.

Towards the end of 1998, Hainan was divided into administrative divisions: 2 district-level cities (Capital City Haikou and Sanya City), 7 county-level cities, 4 counties, and 6 autonomous counties. Danzhou, one of these 7 county-level cities, is the third biggest city in the province with a total land area of 3348.01 square kilometers and a total population of 750 thousand.

The beginnings of Danzhou City's development can be traced back to the early 1990s. In 1992, the wave of urbanization and development sweeping the surrounding regions, particularly in the real estate and tourism sectors, started to be felt in Danzhou. One hundred forty kilometers away was the Capital City—Haikou—the most developed industrial base among the cities and counties of Hainan Province. By the end of year 1993, the Master Plan for Nana Town of Danzhou City was approved and soon after implementation began. Construction of a center avenue in the planning area named Nana Center Avenue, which was 7.5 kilometers long and 60 meters wide, commenced. The center of the town, where a new municipal building

was to be built, was transferred to the new planning area. A new spring tourism development resort district named Lanyang Spy Resorts started to thrive.

But at that time, Nana Town was still small, with an urban population of about 50–60 thousand and a built-up area of about 3–4 square kilometers. The town developed along the national road, intersected by the 2-km. Renmin Avenue and the 800-km. long Jiefang Street. The road was not designed for urban utilities and had no sewerage system. Temporary structures and *pedicabs* (or cycle rickshaws) congested the sidewalks and traffic lanes, causing traffic jams everyday. There were almost no public facilities such as postboxes and power and telephones line cluttered the streets. Most of the buildings were old and lay in a state of abject neglect. To sum it up, the environs of Nana Town at that time were "dirty," "congested" and "poor." Lack of hotels and the poor condition of infrastructure facilities became a main constraint to attracting investment. The investors did not even like to stay in the town overnight.

Against this bleak backdrop, the government of Danzhou City thought that urban revitalization might just be the alternative development strategy for Nana Town which at that time lacked funds for new town development. A few leaders had actually lobbied for the adoption of the new town development concept, but after several deliberations, the proposal for revitalization prepared by the planning bureau of Danzhou City was approved. An urban revitalization strategy, which did not entail huge government expenditure, was developed. The main sources of investment would come from the local people and enterprises only.

Implementation Process

The city government, which considered the environmental renovation and redevelopment program an important development strategy, created an organization in charge of implementing the program. The Comprehensive Environmental Renovation and Redevelopment Office (CERRO) was composed of representatives of all the government bureaus and officials of the city government. I was appointed as vice director of this office to manage the day-to-day affairs. A total of 30 thousand RMB was allotted as operations outlay.

Planning in Advance

Before the implementation of the CERR Program, the government emphasized the significance of planning. Almost 20 planners, architects and engineers gathered together to draw up the plan. To facilitate the implementation of the plan, programs were drawn up with the following objectives:

a. to show the commercial prospects and potential of Hainan to prospective local business and enterprise locators;
b. to develop investment incentives favorable for the locals/residents;
c. to formulate an action plan for both the implementors and stakeholders;
d. to conduct a feasibility study of the projects related to the comprehensive development program in Nana Town.

Mobilizing the Local People and Translating the Plan to Public Action

Mobilizing the residents became the hardest part of the program since the people would be investing their money in the program. Several mobilizing conferences were held during the implementation process, participated in by members of CERRO, owners of enterprises and organizations along the Renmin Avenue and Jiefang Street, leaders of street residents' authorities (the lowest administration authority in China), and representatives of the residents. All the participants gave their reactions to the projects, articulated their problems and issues, and formulated a resolution plan with the help of CERR office and City Government. At the start of the implementation, groups of CERRO, including leaders of the Street Authorities, visited all the residents along these two streets countless times, to explain the guidelines and objectives of the program. The program was at one time described as "asking money to buy new clothes for oneself."

The Main Projects and Investors/Responsible Agencies

After Phase I of the program which lasted almost a year, projects were identified and implemented by relevant agencies in the public and private sectors. An estimated 30 million RMB worth of investments were spent, compared to the operation outlay of only 30 thousand RMB from the city government. The main projects and their implementers were:

Project	Investor(s)/Agency(ies)
1. Decoration and maintenance of old buildings (including the billboard) along the 3-kilometer street as part of the plan prepared by CERR Office.	Residents and concerned entities/agencies
2. Clearing of sidewalks along the two streets, including dismantling makeshift structures occupying the sidewalks.	Business operators
3. Renovation of all electric supply and distribution lines, telephone and TV cables, and water, drainage and sewerage systems. Concerned agencies and companies shouldered the costs since the old lines could no longer satisfy the needs of the residents, and the improvement and upgrading of these infrastructures would increase their services/ incomes to a higher level.	Companies and agencies in coordination with city government and the CERR Office
4. Installation of traffic facilities such as traffic signposts and railings.	Traffic administration agencies using part of their annual budget
5. Development of street parks, trees, and mini-gardens.	Business operators
6. Installation of other public facilities such as the postbox, public telephone booths, fire hydrants, etc.	City government from its annual maintenance budget Concerned government agencies and private investors
7. Construction and maintenance of four bus terminals in the eastern, western, southern, and northern parts of the city outlying these two streets and the creation of a new bus route.	Private companies in partnership with local government which can afford the land (except for some park lots in the streets)
8. Construction of new buildings, hotels, markets, replacing old, decrepit buildings, with the consent of the owners, to help attract investment and create new jobs.	Private companies

The Environmental Renovation and Redevelopment Movement in the National Level

Results became evident a year after implementing the Environmental Renovation and Redevelopment Program. Nana Town became a vibrant town attracting investments which in turn spurred the overall development of Danzhou City. After a conference was

held in Danzhou City where the experience of such urban revitalization was showcased, the program was replicated in other parts of the province.

Similar pioneering practices in urban revitalization in other areas of China pushed the national government to establish a movement named Environmental Renovation and Redevelopment under the executive authority of the National Construction Department. Specifically, it should be stated that the former name of Danzhou's Program was Comprehensive Civilization-Street Renovation and Redevelopment Program. For easy execution, a series of guidelines were designed by the national authority for the formulation of plans similar to Danzhou City's CERR plan and as basis for comparison and assessment. In 1995–1996, Danzhou City was awarded the honorable title of the State Excellent City in Environmental Renovation and Redevelopment. This strategy was also adopted in Li and Miao autonomous counties. In 1998, Qiongzhong County was awarded the State Excellent County in Environmental Renovation and Redevelopment.

The significance of Environmental Renovation and Redevelopment Approaches for the urban revitalization and even in the context of comprehensive development of the regions lies in the fact that the approach entails low cost and is replicable in other localities. But one should remember that the key to the success of any plan or innovative policy is on its easy translation into public actions and its objectives and applicability across different localities.

Notes

[1]In late 20th-century China, any of several localities in which foreign and domestic trade and investment are conducted without the authorization of the Chinese central government in Peking. Special economic zones (SEZs) are intended to function as zones of rapid economic growth by using tax and business incentives to attract foreign investment and technology.

The first four special economic zones were created in 1979 in southeastern coastal China, and consisted of the small cities of Shenahen, Zhuhai, and Shantou in Guangdong Province and Amoy in Fujiang Province. In these areas, local governments are allowed to offer tax incentives to foreign investors and to develop their own infrastructure without the approval of the central government. Business enterprises make most of their own investment, production, and marketing decisions, and foreign ownership of such ventures was legalized. Though they began as little more than small towns, the new SEZs soon attracted foreign investment and became boomtowns, with rapidly expanding light and consumer goods industries and growing populations.

Encouraged by the zones' success, the Chinese government in 1984 opened 14 larger and older cities along the coast to foreign trade and investment. These "open" cities offered foreign investors much the same incentives as in the special economic zones, but their corporate income taxes were higher. In 1988 Hainan Island was made a separate province and a special economic zone, and in 1990 the city of Shanghai-Budong became a special economic zone with policies even more flexible than those already in force in the original four SEZs. In 1992 the Chinese government decided to adopt some of the same policies in 23 major cities in inland China, including many provincial capitals, in hopes of encouraging foreign investment in them.

[2]RMB is the Chinese Currency, 1.0 U.S.D=8.277RMB presently.

URBAN REVITALIZATION 21: MAJOR CHALLENGES IN AN AGE OF GLOBAL CONFLICT, CLIMATE CHANGE AND FOSSIL FUEL DEPLETION

PETER DROEGE

WE live in a rapidly urbanizing world, to a large extent due to the overwhelming role of fossil fuel, its economic influence and technological power. Because of this fossil fuel dependence, cities and city regions are central and fertile settings for effective urban revitalization policy, programs and projects, focused on an energy dimension. Cities are not only powerful potential markets for the introduction of renewable energy technologies but also the national and regional seats of political power, and the core settings of cultural discourse and technological innovation. They form the very frameworks for development: local government, planning structures and the powerful civic organizations that are so important in many cultural contexts.

Cities are both local expressions and integral elements of larger settings: their fates are inseparably embedded in regional, national and worldwide energy networks, systems and chains. But this dependence should not lead to a sense of complacency and resignation: there is a great deal that can be accomplished within cities, from individual and neighborhood decisions to building regulations and municipal power management policies. Cities face extraordinary opportunities in their gradual but inexorable change from the risky and costly systems of fossil power reticulation to a world of sustainable, affordable, diverse and ultimately ubiquitous energy management. There is choice in modes of operation and levels of technological sophistication.

By pursuing energy reform strategies in keeping with globally sustainable greenhouse gas emission levels, local urban leaders can act globally by helping achieve greater equity and justice in international development. There is much to be done in this area: our cities precariously exist on borrowed time, awaiting much-needed technological reform in order to limit substantial future risks and capture powerful innovational opportunities.

Cities, towns and other urban communities are increasingly regarded as settings for coordinated policy implementation efforts aimed at global renewable energy technology introduction and carbon emissions reduction programs. However, substantial organizational and cultural barriers militate against immediate, wider change. Among these loom large the subsidiary regard in which cities are held in the traditional hierarchical frames of international arrangements that deal with global issues. Another challenge is the short planning horizons and political uncertainties that prevail at the local level. In terms of policy development, measurement techniques and planning reality present an extraordinary, even paradoxical gulf between the global nature of greenhouse gas impacts and fuel depletion prospects, and the local reality that represents both final impact and original source of globally experienced changes.

The Urban Setting

Two major dangers confront the world's cities and city regions well within this coming generation: fossil fuel depletion and man-made climate change. There is little disagreement in the current literature that if these are not swiftly and effectively met their impacts will deeply affect all industrial, world and mega-city systems and hit hard the fast-growing, major urban agglomerations of the developing world, along with their economies.

Sustainability: Challenges of Discourse

Much of relevant literature discuss urban sustainability in terms of a diverse set of disparate phenomena: air pollution, soil pollution, water contamination, noise, crowding issues and biodiversity.

In *The Granite Garden* Ann Whiston Spirn has trouble grasping the chains of fuel dependency. Her final chapter on the "Urban Ecosystem" deals in part with the difficulties architects and other urban professionals have in becoming professionally knowledgeable about or even aware of environmental impacts of their work. Here she decried the absence of a sense of 'connectedness,' or a systematic understanding of urban ecological dimension, yet shied away from drawing out a theory of impact hierarchies, eco-damage chains and hence the root causes of urban environmental crises. In the end, she called the 'complexity of the urban ecosystem ...bewildering' (Spirn 1984, p. 239). Urban sustainability discourse and concomitant urban practice today very much operate in a conceptually nested sense. Since the 1970s and 1980s the prospects of fuel depletion have only slowly and indirectly begun to enter general urban planning discourse and development frameworks largely as energy efficiency and conservation issues. In part due to the stark disciplinary divisions involved, relatively few texts dared to cross boundaries and make clear observations on the historical 'fossilist' condition of cities in the late 19th and throughout the 20th century. One example of these is David Morris' 1982 manifesto, "Self-reliant Cities."

In terms of climate change, communities in the 1990s begun to recognize that all greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions are directly or indirectly generated locally, through production or consumption. This has provided a boost to the role of local places in the debate since GHGs can be allocated and made understood locally and hence form the basis for specific policies, programs, plans and projects.

Despite many significant hurdles, and an obvious limit on local action imposed by larger energy decisions and dependencies, energy issues have begun to take center stage in the reality of an increasing number of cities and towns around the world. Some pioneering communities have begun to embrace locally, nationally and regionally supported programs, and many have come to realize that the agenda for action is both important and extensive due to the central significance of cities in national economies. It is here where a growing number of new urban action and development initiatives are being readied to link local agenda and national frameworks to international challenges and resources.

Major Urban Energy Issues

Due to their structural fossil fuel reliance, most current capital outlays in new buildings, infrastructure and other urban facilities risk facing early obsolescence, since urban areas or systems elements inherently based on fossil fuel may well be rendered dysfunctional well before the end of their life. All basic urban communication infrastructures, such as roads, rail, air, sea ports and telecommunications have been nurtured in a world of near-absolute fossil fuel dependency. If global communications are to be sustained beyond the middle of this century, they must be powered by distributed, ubiquitous and redundant renewable power supply systems.

More significantly, the form of energy dependence has triggered a long chain of other environmental damages, a fact recognized in the 'energy circuit' approach towards urban ecological sustainability measurements.

Fossil Fuel Depletion and Cities

Fossil fuel use increased fivefold over this past half century, from 1.7 billion tons of oil equivalent in 1950 to 8 billion tons in 1999, providing 85 percent of the world's commercial energy. The majority of this energy is used either within cities, or for transport from and to cities (Girardet 1999).

Most contemporary fuel sources are due to expire well within this century as widely available and predominantly peacefully contested sources, and much of this reality will become globally pervasive within these next decades. National and international governmental sources estimate that oil will expire by 2050—the depletion of the more easily accessible supply sources is likely to take place already between 2020 and 2030 (Scheer 1999). Given rising use rate scenarios natural gas is likely to evaporate as commercially

available source by 2040. The oldest, yet logistically and environmentally most problematic source of industrial fuel supply, coal, is expected to expire well before 2100, provided no large-scale efforts of energy fuel substitution is pursued to stretch its deposits.

Uranium supplies are also estimated to reach depletion levels by the mid-2030s, even if the daunting cost, security, safety, disposal and public acceptance dilemmas did not weigh so profoundly against their use. Nuclear fusion still struggles with enormous conceptual and technical flaws, and the problems associated with huge financial, environmental and political costs.

This outlook is as troubling as it is underemphasized in its public significance. Fossil fuels are the life blood of modern economies and the foundation of their petrochemical, transport and industrial production systems. Hence they also sustain the spatial centers of global civilization: cities and city regions. The paradox is perplexing but probably can be explained by the daunting magnitude of the problem. While the modern city in its history, form and growth dynamics is inconceivable without these fuels a persuasive agenda to deal with the prospects equitably, humanely and positively still eludes global and local planners alike.

Mechanisms of Denial

Urban dwellers are generally thought of as risk-averse, even timid creatures. Yet urban civilization as a whole is consciously embarked on a high-risk path, defiantly accelerating business as usual in the face of impending doom.

The single most important means of maintaining a high-risk societal posture is collective denial. Several denial mechanisms suppress the urge to take up action. They are based on a belief in salvation by technological innovations yet to come; on a relegation of problems and their resolution to others, most frequently the developing world or to future generations; and on the localization of global problems. This last mechanism creates delusions of meaningful action that can be summarized under the motto 'think globally, act locally.'

All modern cities have mushroomed on their rich fossil nutrient supply, and especially voracious and dependent are the largest, most rapidly growing urban agglomerations. The very logic of their global rise and regional spread is founded on the availability of powerful, centralized and inexpensive fuels: coal, petroleum and natural gas—yielding fossil urban structures and patterns based on fossil transport, fossil construction machinery and fossil industrial systems and manufacturing processes. Intensive economies and labor markets clustered around the centralized and networked city regions, anchored by heavy investments in infrastructure: power, transport and communications. This has boosted the primacy of cities over—and ultimately detachment from—agrarian hinterlands.

The new cities of the 19th and 20th centuries— and the very cultures they engendered—were a product of the rising combustion economy. London exploded with coal-fired power, and Lewis Mumford called the phenomenal urban transformations taking place in industrializing countries between 1820 and 1900 'Coketown,' or 'Paleotechnic Paradise.' Today, a rising car dependency in most cities combined with the rise of the electrified ocean of suburban households under spreading continental power grids delivers the accelerating decline in what we today regard as urban sustainability.

It is appropriate to refer to contemporary urban constructs as fossil cities. The logic of global urbanization becomes transparent when considering the ready availability of inexpensive fossil power for all urban infrastructures: building construction, lighting, air conditioning, computing, telecommunications and massive freight and human transport systems on surface, sea and air. These new bundles of infrastructure at once link cities globally and drain their regions. As a consequence globalized urban systems are inherently more vulnerable to the inexorable decline of global fossil fuel supplies than those that rely more on their local and regional human and land resources. Yet prevalent international aid ideas still nurture the credo of developing countries and their sprawling cities moving through the bygone stages of fossil electrification based on the by now antiquated power plants

and continental grid schemes that the industrial world has moved through in the past 150 years.

While a few local urban systems may seem relatively safe from a terminal fossil fuel shock through their reliance on hydroelectric, nuclear or bioenergetic power, no currently utilized alternative energy source alone can keep operational the vast majority of cities. The only viable option to secure the continuity of urban civilization in this century is a system-wide turn to a broad portfolio of renewable energy sources based on an overwhelming availability of solar, wind, wave, hydrogen based and other renewable forms of energy. The alternative to this path lies in a massive military build-up as is already being prepared by some leading economies. A global and open escalation of the simmering war over regional fossil resources, currently contained largely in local and regional conflicts is inevitable without a broad and worldwide introduction of renewable energy sources. Cities and city dwellers would bear the brunt of such conflicts. However, the impending evaporation of fossil fuels is not the only threat to the survivability of the modern global urban system.

The Fossil Machine Age and the Form of the Built Environment

As a cultural, economical and technological system the form of the built environment is fundamentally determined by the nature of its fuel supply. Fossil fuel powered industrial transformations that underpinned broad urban structure changes were celebrated by the leaders of the great Modern design movements, since the beginning of the 20th century (Droege 2000).

Italian Futurism, Constructivism in the early Soviet Union, De Stijl in the Netherlands, the Bauhaus in Germany, the declarations of the International Modern Architecture Congresses (CIAM-Les Congrès Internationaux de l'Architecture Moderne 1928–1956) and the International Style that spread from the United States throughout the industrialized world. The fossil machine age is an outgrowth of earlier stages of the Industrial Revolution when water power was a main driver of textile mill operations. Boosted by the industrial application of coal and electricity it gave rise to Frederick Winslow Taylor's (1856–1915) and Henry Ford's (1863–1947) ideas about the mechanization of manufacturing (Gideon 1948). In their wake, the increasingly urban and automated global production-consumption systems of the advanced industrial age boosted global power use at an exponential rate. But industrialization as powered by electricity, coal-fired steam engines and petroleum combustion motors also meant the rapid growth of cities, driving the search for innovation in urban form.

As far as new urban traditions are concerned, a rash of utopian premonitions spread as a result, as revolutionary as the technological changes they were triggered by. Peter Kropotkin's (1842–1921) and other anarcho-syndicalist influences on ideas about ideal communities were a direct outgrowth of this era. And so were Sir Ebenezer Howard's (1850–1928) concepts and the rise of the Garden City movement. The genesis of the Regional Plan Association of New York and its seminal plan of 1929 were of this lineage, and so was Frank Lloyd Wright's (1869–1959) Broadacre City (first described in his 1932 work *The Disappearing City*). Ludwig Hilbersheimer's (1885–1967) mass housing concepts and General Motors' 'Futurama' pavilion at the 1933 'Century of Progress' World Exposition in Chicago, boldly anticipated the gloriously car friendly cities to come. Brasilia, Canberra and all of the British New Towns are fossil fantasies come true.

Early ex-urban subdivisions sprung up as aspiring new communities along the tracks of electric tramways, while soon thereafter the combustion-engine driven vehicle created a new urban reality altogether: the new car suburbs expanding along motorways. Modern carbon culture arrived in stylised landmarks, with the epitomizing work of migrant Bauhaus architects such as Walter Gropius and Mies van der Rohe. Le Corbusier's ideas about the radical modernization of cities are by many regarded the most influential of these, brazenly calling for the razing of pre-fossil cities, as exemplified by his tabula rasa concepts: Plan Voisin, La Ville Radieuse, a famous lone pilot project for a mass housing block, Unite d'Habitation and in some realized urban projects such as in the Alsatian town of St. Dié. His plan for Chandigarh, the joint capital of the Punjab and Haryana established in 1953, looms large in the fossil city hall of fame. The introduction of this simple yet revolutionary doctrine in cities in the United States, United Kingdom and countries around the world

combined the power of the new with a good dose of basic speculative opportunism. It brought urban destruction and blight through wholesale urban renewal projects in what was identified as inner city slum areas: the neighborhoods of the poor and disenfranchised and the pre-fossil relics they inhabited.

The postwar years in Europe saw powerful expansion plans hatched among the spreading webs of electrification that crisscrossed former farmlands. The Greater London strategy, the satellite city concepts and the Stockholm and Copenhagen finger plans gave bold plan form to a wider, worldwide turn to life in cities, driven by structural shifts and opportunities brought about by the rise of the fossil fuel economy and its promises.

Yet the gleaming new vision of renewed and more orderly, healthier and socially more equitable cities did not escape the Faustian energy reality of advanced industrialization. With the burning of fossil fuel arrived sulfur dioxide, nitrous oxide and a host of other toxic gases as well as carcinogenic airborne combustion particles, creating the smog and air pollution crises of the 1960s and 1970s. Today, with the exception of the greenhouse gases themselves, these have partially conquered as hazards in the industrialized world but still plague most large cities, particularly those of the developing world. Calls for more concentrated and transit-oriented forms of urban development (Calthorpe 1993) were signs of this declining stage of the fossil-fuel economy when savings in energy conservation and fuel efficiency were identified as the cheapest, fastest and most immediately useful means to reduce emissions. Denser cities were shown to be more fuel-efficient (Newman and Kenworthy 1987). Car dependent, low-density urban structures incapable of sustaining public transport came to be understood as a major hindrance to achieving sustainable urban life. It is clear that in the long run, however, efficiency and conservation measures are not sufficient to halt the powerful worldwide rise in emissions. Massive substitutions of conventional energy technologies will be needed, such as those powering the making, operation, maintenance and upkeep of military machinery, and systems of passenger and freight conveyance with renewable systems of energy supply and use. In order for these new technologies to be in place in time to be of significant use they need to be widely introduced now. In this sense, transit-oriented development and recent attempts at recreating pre-industrial urban patterns such as 'neo-traditional design' and other approaches of 'new urbanism' are important interim measures—but fossil-fuel derived urban form phenomena in themselves nonetheless.

The nature and form of buildings, too, were deeply affected by the development and spread of the revolutionary new fuels and the industrialized manufacturing processes they engendered. As a consequence architecture changed radically in the new fossil age, logically breaking with all earlier traditions. The Modern Movement provided aesthetic and ethical refinement to mass applications in electricity, ubiquitous machinery, air conditioning, industrial steel products, advancing glass technology, mass produced curtain walls, prefabricated building systems and a number of other highly energy-intensive technologies. The new thinking about buildings, highlighted by the International Style, applied to aesthetically refined, ornament-free, skeletal, industrialized and largely corporate structures. It became the new global aesthetic of the possible as the advanced fossil age dawned in cities around the world. Buildings became disconnected from their climatic and cultural context due to the end of local resource dependency. An interest in vernacular form and regionalism emerged, as a counter-reaction and an attempt to recapture the local language of form: the regional building traditions that had been lost in industrializing change. This movement remained a stylistic artifice since it failed to address the fundamental dynamics of design and development under conditions of unsustainable energy resource practice.

In a hopeful vision, the zero-emissions house that functions without fossil energy supply, once the exclusive domain of eccentrics and university research laboratories, would become a living reality for a majority of dwellers. Yet to be addressed, however, remains the question of how to reduce the large amount of energy that is embodied in the building materials themselves, the services contributing to their making, and the energy implications of the very form and design of neighborhoods and cities. Indeed, the energy household of cities is made up by more than buildings and the infrastructures that service these. It is the sum

total of all goods and services measurably consumed in a given location.

Cultural Shifts Towards Sustainable Urban Energy Development Globalization, Urban and Regional Development and Energy Linkages

Modern globalization, as a complex set of global economic, communications and cultural changes (Sassen 1991), is very much driven by the profoundly fossil-energy mode the world operates in. Global supply lines secure oil, coal and natural gas from the limited number of highly productive fields in production. The mining, shipping and processing of the raw material and its worldwide distribution has necessitated a vast network of logistics, military management, security arrangements and diplomatic agenda — as well as specialized economic systems. Many armed conflicts are also resource wars. The specter of violent global strife over the control of regional and global fossil fuel supplies rises in the short and medium term (Scheer 1999).

The great 19th and 20th century industrialization and modernization drives accompanied the rise of a globally dominant fossil culture with its rules, values and powerful images, structuring collective and individual desire. Their unique behavioral patterns are generated by the characteristics of supply and demand in a global fossil fuel fired economy. Seen in this light, the global media, information systems and telecommunications networks play an ancillary role in the processes of contemporary globalization. The technologies of globalization are at once centralized and globally active power generation and petrochemical resource systems tethered to geographically limited and hence geo-strategically critical energy resource and mineral deposits. International trade rules and interpretations of national security are based on and very much support this global regime.

The result is a single terrestrial system, rapidly growing and fed by tenuous yet distant, even global supply lines. As a consequence, an increasing number of local urban areas is surrounded by formerly productive but now either suburbanized or relatively impoverished, disconnected rural and semi-rural regions. These new 'globalization hinterlands' are the former supply regions of pre-fossil villages and towns, now increasingly defunct, with their population streaming to the rising, brightly lit and comfortably powered, globally networked urban centers.

The deployment of renewable energy technologies has a potential to help bring about a time of differentiated globalization, marked by a distinction between largely local supplies of food and elementary goods on the one hand and the global trade in services on the other.

On the industrial side current initiatives fall into two categories; that of new technology development and market uptake of applications. Technology push and supply from the 1970s through the 1990s were limited to a number of limited-scale industry efforts and pockets of largely government-sponsored research and development projects. This history is often marked by a mismatch with market demand, especially given the powerful subsidies granted to the fossil energy sector. However, the international and domestic policy and pricing environment of the early 2000s is changing fast, heralding massive urban technological and practice changes and a natural integration of technology development and markets.

Energy, Cities and Technological Innovation

Cities face the new challenges largely without national guidance and some seek to go beyond individual technology applications, single structures or limited urban areas. They hope to translate international and national agreements onto the local level, despite the institutional constraints of the inherited sectoral systems. Increasingly, urban leaders seek to grapple with the issue of technological innovation, absolute and globally equitable emissions targets, the prospect of urban carbon trading and the pursuit of full integration with mainstream urban management systems.

The most hopeful visions describe entire cities as net renewable energy producers. This idea requires a rethinking of urban-regional alliances as well an adoption of increasingly firm industry promotion practices. The Australian city of Melbourne, as an example, is in the process of investing in renewable energy producers with the dual aim to reduce its fossil fuel dependency and to promote the development of

more advanced industries that one day will be capable of competing nationally as well as internationally.

As motivating force subsidies and selective pricing, in the absence of a true deregulation of energy markets, can provide a lasting boon for technological innovation. In a technologically advanced renewable economy energy supplies no longer exclusively depend on large, centralized supply models but can unfold in a more diverse and differentiated manner, in keeping with the contemporary culture of convergence. Indeed, emerging conditions are characterized by a blurring of conventional distinctions between production and consumption. Traditional appliance and facility users can become net energy generators, for instance through solar systems or zero-emission, renewable-source based hydrogen fuel cells in vehicles, capable of powering homes and external machinery.

Systems convergence dynamics point to a merger of information technology, telecommunications and energy systems. While some electric utilities already lease their grids for information transmission purposes, emerging technology goes much further: future energy systems are ubiquitous and pervasive. Operating on the level of individual units, be they consumer appliances, households, neighborhoods or even city-regions, the long-range energy management paradigm is grid-free, self-sufficient and renewable.

Ubiquitous energy management is a hopeful notion that in a renewable-energy based economy a myriad of small and medium-scale providers of energy services could replace the system of large-scale centralized ones. In an urban system this could operate both at the high end described, but also at low levels of technological sophistication. Possible high technology directions contain features derived from information technology and telecommunications mergers, or the blending of these new technologies with energy production and consumption modes residing everywhere, in applications from personal apparel and equipment to cars and facilities. At the lower end of the scale, in a distributed yet low-cost and low-maintenance environment, small hydropower and solar systems are seen to be capable of leveraging access to global information network for small remote communities in developing nations.

Another technological dimension of the impending energy revolution is the role the internet plays in the energy sustainability of cities. The 1992 United Nations Conference on Environment and Development has firmly associated the term sustainability with a global action agenda, connoting international processes of working towards sustainability aims, especially in an urban context. The tradition of sister city arrangements was a rudimentary beginning of inter-urban networks in particular, while activist non-governmental organizations such as Greenpeace pioneered work in global networks as means for local action, giving rise to an age of 'think locally, act globally'.

A number of international networks operate today in the area of energy and the 'sustainability' of cities, and many explore the best manner in which the nature of the internet and the world wide web can be applied to productive ends. It is good to remember that the internet itself, a vital global infrastructure, is entirely dependent on fossil fuel. It may call for a strategic action plan to base it on renewable and sustainable energy sources, through the introduction of suitably distributed, even ubiquitous power supply systems.

Finally, there is a number of ways in which the technologically sophisticated management of environmental information such as local, community or point-of-emission accounting data is crucial in the making of policy. Integration of currently available information, modes of visualization and analysis (Droege 1997), the massive networking of personal computers— these are all technologies and techniques advancing at national or international levels but remain woefully unavailable or inadequate locally.

Climate Stability in Development

Local policy environments during the late 20th century were marked by a lack of commitment to planned urban energy practice, due to the investment in existing centralized power arrangements. Another reason lies in the pervasive process management culture in many local administrative structures without clear accountabilities and in the absence of local levers, incentives and practical means of allocating or influencing emissions. As global agreements are bound

to become firmer under mounting pressures to resolve the greenhouse challenge, and as nations and trading units such as the European Union begin to establish clearer greenhouse, energy and environment frameworks, the pressure will mount to arrive at unprecedented arrangements in urban emissions and energy practice.

The most visible of current community planning models are based on relative improvement targets and selective means of accounting for greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. A number of place-based emissions allocation techniques and action approaches are currently in use. They include the United States Environmental Protection Agency's support that is made available to states in compiling GHG inventories, in producing action plans and in staging demonstration projects. They also include the pragmatic approximation system developed by Ralph Torrie and others for the Cities for Climate Protection™ (CCP) program operated by the International Council for Local Environmental Initiatives (ICLEI). And there is the system based on the behavior of large geographical units — one degree of longitude by one degree of latitude — developed by the Association of American Geographers in a program called Global Change in Local Places (Kates et al. 1998). Other systems are in development and being promoted as well. There is the potential to apply aspects of the Advanced Local Energy Planning approach developed under the International Energy Agency's (IEA) Building and Community Systems program, or the physical model of the economy developed by the Australian Commonwealth Science, Industry and Research Organization. Another ambitious model is a total-flow, end-consumption and value-based accounting system (Lenzen 1997). It also aims to compare, evaluate and advance a range of methods.

While most GHG emission sources and mitigation efforts are inherently local, their effects and most easy modes of measurement are global. However, the identification of globally diffused GHG levels carries little practical local meaning. In order for cities to become active and integral participants of any global action program, they need to opt for one or the other GHG accounting or allocation method that reliably links local practice to global aims.

An ideal method has not yet been arrived at, and in pursuing it, cities and their supporters need to apply certain performance criteria. To be informative, universally acceptable and suitable as a basis for coordinated climate stable practice such model would need to be comprehensive, precise and accurate. To be useful it has be pragmatic, affordable and easily replicable across a large number of communities or geographic units. Another challenge lies in avoiding a new information poverty barrier. It could develop were local carbon trading to be introduced as based on highly sophisticated and expensive forms of data gathering - poorer nations have less capability to cope with the technical challenges involved in measuring current emissions performance, let alone reliably monitor its progress over time.

There are a number of obstacles to a transformed urban energy practice, although none of them are insurmountable in principle. The most formidable is the fact that local governance structures are not usually geared to end-state or long-range planning, and hence the adoption of any form of long-term accountings. The effective allocation of incentives and accountabilities is difficult, too. Notwithstanding the efforts described above there is the persistent question of how to convincingly disentangle resource flows in a local government area not only for carbon accounting but also for scenario modeling purposes, and how to identify agency accountabilities for savings and reduction.

The very consideration of broad energy and greenhouse action programs opens up new dimensions for government. It provides a new development perspective and can drive regional realignments, the formation of state initiatives and industrial alliances. It can mean a new sense of empowerment and the opportunity for economic strengthening, as well as competitive advantages of a more promotional nature.

Whatever the difficulties, the benefits are promising. Governments have begun to discover that energy responses can be scaled well to local development conditions and growth options. In newly industrializing countries with interest in maintaining considerable levels of autonomy such as China and India there is a good fit with local traditions and climatic and economic conditions. Local industry could get

stimulated while environmental agendas are promised to find practical reinforcement. Comprehensive renewable energy practice on the local level directly reinforces broad quality of life aims, as well as healthy water, food and bio-diversity practice.

Besides meeting the possibly looming aim of responsibility devolution in pursuit of global greenhouse objectives, another government reform agenda item is being satisfied as well: better accountability in public service. Outcome-geared reform and strengthening of local governance in delivering on performance commitments could well be a direct outcome of an indexed and measurable sustainable energy practice. Local consensus, too, is expected to be forthcoming more easily as agendas become more clearly understood, and made visible in tangible improvements.

Structuring Urban Renewable Energy Research, Policy and Practice

In the absence of useful established patterns of practice a search is under way for new means of reconciling local government's sectorial concerns, technological opportunities and shifts in energy markets with global environmental imperatives. There is much to be done in this area, as the relatively sparse literature documents. Capello, Nijkamp and Pepping's 1999 volume on 'Sustainable Cities and Energy Policies' demonstrates in its conclusions, 'Policy Recommendations and Guidelines for Renewable Energy Technologies in Cities', how relatively embryonic the world of concepts, facts and policies still is in the inevitably arising realm of urban renewable energy management.

But there is a rising world of hopeful local initiatives, focusing squarely on comprehensive local action in municipal and metropolitan conversion to a renewable energy supply base.

Here are four examples.

Barcelona's Solar Ordinance. An increasing number of cities search for homegrown paths to energy sustainability. One of the most progressive of these is Barcelona. The city has calculated its very favorable solar energy supply potential and on 1 August 2000 introduced a regulatory system requiring households and industrial users to provide at least 60 percent of their hot water requirement utilizing solar systems. The scheme is focused, specific and practical.

European Charter for Solar Energy in Architecture and City Planning. The Charter, signed by 30 eminent architects, and developed by these under the leadership of German Architect Thomas Herzog, was released in March 1996, at the Fourth European Conference 'Solar Energy in Architecture and City Planning', chaired by then Minister for Construction, Klaus Töpfer and Dr. Hermann Scheer. The Charter was advanced in historical contradistinction to the fossil-age Charter of Athens, referred to above. It is comprehensive in attempting to deal with most physical planning challenges. The Charter focuses on the planners, the building site, the design and construction process, buildings in use—and the city as a sustainable planning challenge.

Eurosolar Guide to State Politicians: a State Program for Renewable Energy. Eurosolar has in 2001 issued a blueprint 'state program,' for the use by regional politicians in the implementation of renewable energy. It has ten focal areas or considerations: (i) the role model played by state government; (ii) the role of state energy agencies; (iii) the strengthening of municipal power companies and the reintroduction of energy supply into community hands; (iv) research and education; (v) renewables in regional development; (vi) strengthening of agriculture; (vii) the orientation of land use planning and building towards renewable energy; (viii) transport and traffic systems; (ix) investment and finance; and (x) state government awards for the exemplary use of renewable energy.

The Solar City initiative: an approach to introducing renewable energy technology in cities. The Solar City approach emerged from a new generation of International Energy Agency (IEA) research and development work, to seek citywide applications integral to the main planning agenda. It proposes that renewable energy

technologies and other means of greenhouse gas emissions reduction and absorption are to be applied in a coherent spatial and social context, as well as within a finite and community-wide time frame. This document translates the agenda into a proposed framework for the methodical introduction of renewable energy technology in cities.

It is important to work collaboratively with local institutions, to focus on the energy supply and technology side, and work within a comprehensive town planning and design strategy that includes institutional arrangements. The development of energy technology applications and emissions accounting systems along with performance targets linked to urban development and reform initiatives is the goal. Equally important are land use strategies that are based on a consideration of urban-rural linkages and value land use and transport investment choices according to their potential contribution to long-range energy and resource self-sufficiency.

From the above examples, the Solar City planning concept proposes three areas of focus. These are (a) sustainable-energy focused urban planning strategies; (b) targets, baseline studies and scenario development; and (c) urban energy technology, industry and business development.

Solar City strategies. It is important to identify local planning and development approaches that are conducive to the introduction of renewable energy technologies, within a broadly energy-conscious community development approach. To be addressed are strategy, planning tools, organizational arrangements, legislation and standards, incentive structures, public information and exemplary municipal practice.

By introducing improved ways of adopting renewable energy technologies a 'Solar City' program contributes to climate-stable practice in the building and property development industry, land-use planning and infrastructure development. It will also strengthen local governments' efforts to build enlightened community performance and household preferences.

There are five ways in which better practice in the systematic introduction of renewable energies can be promoted by cities and towns:

- direct legislation and standards;
- the provision of incentives and disincentives;
- corporate capital asset practice, power purchasing and pricing;
- institutional reform and improved strategic and general planning practices; and
- community action development, industry alliances, information and education.

Setting targets. The objective is to introduce, evaluate and enhance suitable approaches that help understand the role of renewable energy technologies in the broader urban energy context. It is important to include both renewable energy technology introduction targets as well as absolute climate-stable carbon dioxide-equivalent emissions measures aiming at a specific future date, such as 2050.

Planning methods based on energy technology introduction and emissions accounting methods may deploy backcasting approaches. This involves the development of alternative urban development growth and technology transformation scenarios, then 'backcasting' milestones for technology innovation and emissions in order to determine workable reduction rates over time.

Urban renewable energy technology, systems and industry development. The objective is to work with cities in advancing renewable energy technologies and systems, and to help promote the renewable energy industry, in a way that can serve as model for the rest of the national urban system. The emphasis is therefore to be on market-led approaches of technology system development and deployment, through pricing, investment, electricity purchasing policies, information on best practices, learning from model action and other means.

Optional paths are to be developed, evaluated and implemented, suitable for the informed and broad introduction of renewable energy technology portfolios for the use by city governments, municipal utilities, businesses, industries and households. Special emphasis is to be placed on micro-generation and distributed low-energy production in buildings, facilities and urban systems. Current, emerging and potentially competing solar and other renewable energy technologies, systems and related urban services are to be assessed for their

urban modification and city-wide, systematic introduction in ways that are meaningful to cities' development agendas—physical planning, sustainability objectives, organization, services—and their pursuit of targeted emissions reductions. Results are expected to include technology, systems and industry development options, suitable for selective and targeted implementation in general and specific action plans.

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PARTNERSHIPS IN INNER-CITY REVITALIZATION: EXPLORING CONSTRAINTS AND POTENTIALS IN PALEMBANG, INDONESIA

A. HERZOG, I.S.A. BAUD AND R. PRIHANDANA

Introduction

INNER city revitalization (ICR) has gained importance in many cities all over the world as it shifted urban development from geographical expansion of urban areas to intracity growth and development. This shift in focus is particularly important in cities in many countries of the South, as trends in population growth and per capita production in these areas dictate optimal use of existing infrastructure and a more compact city approach to complement the geographic expansion of urban areas.

In addition, it has been increasingly recognized that cities, particularly their urban centers, can perform an important function in the engineering of economic growth and global competitiveness. In many cases, however, inner city areas have been given minimum attention in planning and left unprotected from continuous deterioration processes. Such neglect has resulted in the dilapidation of the housing stock and the migration of households, along with the economic activities they generate, to areas where better opportunities are perceived to exist. At the same time, low-income families in search of cheap accommodation and job opportunities arrive and fill the void created. This process goes on, leading to further deterioration. The deterioration in one aspect—be it economic, social or physical—has tended to hasten the process of deterioration in other aspects, thus provoking a cumulative deteriorating effect on the area concerned.

Efforts at putting a stop to the deterioration and introducing improvements therefore require an approach that would involve not only one but all aspects at the same time. In short, revitalization.

The ways in which ICR has been carried out, have tended to change in time and place. With some three decades at carrying out ICR programs, many cities around the world have built up experience in it (Carmon 1999, Strange 1997, Winarso 1999, Steinberg 1996, UNCHS 1996). The urban centers devastated by World War II were rebuilt mainly by European national and local governments working in tandem. The rest were handled by functionalist planners of the 1960s and 1970s, such as in the case of the city of Rotterdam, The Netherlands.

The oil crisis of 1974 and consequently the pressures in the welfare state during the 1980s not surprisingly shifted the attention to the private sector as the major investor in ICR. The changes brought about by Reagan's and Thatcher's administrations helped not only to mainstream worldwide macroeconomic neoliberalism, but also to open room for management and planning instruments developed by the private and corporate sectors (e.g., strategic planning) in the urban planning practice (Herzog 1999). This led to a wider discussion on the realignment of state, private sector and civil society (Baud et al. 2001) and emphasized *public-private partnerships* and the use of urban development corporations as instruments to carry out ICR. In the late 1990s, this emphasis included other types of partnerships, notably, between organizations with a concern for improving or preserving the existing social fabric, such as NGOs and CBOs.[1]

This paper draws from this international knowledge in analyzing the ICR process undertaken in Palembang, a city in Indonesia currently facing problems of inner-city decay. Specifically, it seeks to answer the following questions:

1) What are the major areas of concern in ICR for different actors in Palembang?
2) What collective actions/initiatives are actors in Palemabang taking in the process of preparing for ICR implementation?
3) What are the potential areas being eyed for cooperation/partnership and where are these needed most?

The ICR efforts in Palembang will be presented as a case study. Relevant information was gathered from discussions held with the participants of a training course at the Institute for Housing and Urban Development Studies (IHS) in Rotterdam. The final part of the study has yet to be done during the last phase of the course (Follow-up) where the impacts of the training will be measured and the implementation of the participants' Action Plans evaluated.[2]

The study hopes to be able to contribute to the understanding of the system in which Palembang is immersed, highlight the impact of recent urban polices and practices upon the ICR, and recommend ways of building a process that combines good governance and integrated revitalization strategies that would help promote alliances between the different actors involved, which ultimately can generate the necessary actions towards improving the social, economic and physical fabric of urban centers.

Unveiling Concerns

Palembang has been the capital of South Sumatra since the early 1950s. The City has a population of 1.4 million and is experiencing strong growth in trade, industry, and tourism. The city, which has a rich, colorful pre-colonial and colonial history, preserves records and traditions of its unique Indonesian identity. Aside from Dutch colonial influence, the inhabitants have ancestry from several native groups including Chinese, Indian and Islamic *kampungs*.

Similar to many cities under the pressure of unplanned and rapid urbanization, misguided modernization and demographic growth, the inner-city riverfront area has undergone serious deterioration, manifest in the growth of slum areas, traffic congestion, all sorts of environmental hazards and degradation of historic built environment.

Such conditions have recently caused a number of national institutions to be concerned and undertake initiatives to create interest for urban heritage, cultural tourism and ICR. It is believed that such interest would spur efforts at addressing the current economic, social and environmental problems in Palembang's inner city. The Centre for Research and Development Tourism of the ITB in Bandung, for instance, organized an International Student Competition on the Musi River Tourism Development in 1999, to elicit new ideas for ICR by promoting tourism in Palembang.[3] Also, several reports have been prepared by outside consultants, with central government assistance, aimed at generating fresh set of ideas that would tap local initiatives. More recently, the IHS, with the support of the Dutch Government, the Indonesian Ministry of Culture and Tourism, the ITB and the URDI, implemented a tailor-made training targeting professionals from the Municipal Planning Department (Bappeda), academics from local universities and representatives of concerned NGOs.

Inner-city Revitalization: Concerns, Processes and Partnerships

Inner-city revitalization involves three major areas of concern: (a) infrastructure and building upgrading with particular emphasis on conservation of historic buildings/sites; (b) economic development; and (c) maintenance of the social fabric. Review of documents indicates that different generations have rendered varying degrees of importance to each of these areas of concern, as seen in the emphasis given to their respective policies (Carmon 1999, Hulsbergen and Stouten 2001).

In the early part, emphasis of government initiatives was on destroying old and decaying inner-city buildings (housing structures) and replacing these with modern structures. The assumption was that similar amounts of housing would become available afterwards. In the case of private sector involvement in rebuilding the concerned areas, high-profit commercial buildings and high-income housing (e.g., USA) often replaced formal

and informal social housing. The result was that the original residents were relocated forcibly, disrupting the social and economic capital existing at the time. No attention was paid to the destruction of social and economic networks and the groups of people whose livelihoods were already rather vulnerable to such interference. When governments provided new housing, the type of high-rise public housing blocks that were provided were found not conducive to the formation of new social networks and neither to the integration of economic activities into the areas.

The second generation of ICR programs in Europe and in US in the 1960s and the 1970s placed more emphasis on the social dimension (education, training, community development), combined with the rebuilding of existing housing stock, rather than its destruction. However, despite such revolutionary focus on the neighborhood level, it often remained limited to housing rehabilitation, rather than a combination of interventions (Carmon 1999). Furthermore, many programs directed at retaining the original group of residents and increasing community participation in the process, were not considered successful by the politicians of the day (Carmon 1999).

The third generation of ICR programs was based on the neoliberal paradigm that was dominant in the 1980s and the 1990s. This placed great emphasis on partnerships between government and private sector to promote both housing improvements and economic development. It is worth mentioning that in most cases initiatives of the private sector dominated the undertaking. The partnerships with large-scale private sector companies are the most well known type, such as the Docklands in London, which, despite having led to areas of high economic development, resulted in the exclusion of original inhabitants. Carmon also identifies other partnerships of a smaller-scale, which have shown a more beneficial local impact. These include public-individual partnerships, in which government supported individual (new) owners in the process of "renovating" their homes, resulting in a move back to the inner-city of the middle-class residents and gentrification of those neighborhoods. A second type is the renovation by incumbent residents, which led to similar processes without the displacement effects. A third type included upgrading by immigrants, who combined improvements of housing with injections of economic development which they themselves financed. Carmon concludes that the (large-scale) private sector partnerships contributed to economic development in the areas involved, but these have had few spin-off effects on surrounding areas, while widening the gap between rich and poor in such areas (1999).

In countries with lower GDP per capita, discussions on the main areas of concern in ICR have followed similar patterns. In the 1970s, one of the main concerns was about the provision of housing for low-income groups. Governments, international development agencies, and the banking sector (such as the World Bank) were seen as the main actors in financing and supporting such programs. The reality, however, was that the majority of low-income households in cities were self-provisioning in obtaining housing accommodations (Baken en van der Linden 1992, Turner 1976).

The economic crisis of the late 1970s in countries dependent on oil, and the later crises of the financial system and the dialectic wave of democratization in the 1980s and 1990s helped convince decision-makers that governments should move from being providers to being "enablers" of urban development (Herzog 1999). Private sector and civil society organizations were seen to have become the key actors in providing basic services, while the state ensures the legal, regulatory and economic framework that would allow for such activities, stepping in only where markets or communities were not prepared to invest (WB 1990, UNCHS 1996). This formed the backdrop for more recent discussions on other types of public-private and public-community partnerships designed to develop a higher quality of life in cities (Hordijk 2000, Baud 2000).

In the 1990s, the focus of the Habitat Agenda discussions at international level shifted to include housing finance, governance, equality and environmental issues in developing urban areas (UNCHS 1996). In practice, ICR still remains focused on upgrading physical infrastructure, conservation and re-use of historic buildings, giving much less emphasis on the economic and social development of such areas.[4] Many initiatives carried out at the city and neighborhood level could generate lessons to be learned

on the effects that ICR may provoke on low-income households in inner city areas.

Inner-city revitalization is a complex process involving major efforts in terms of financial, organizational and planning factors. It requires a shift in development planning paradigms towards building good governance, which can ultimately help to create synergy and partnerships among all concerned actors for the effective use of social, physical and economic capitals. The issue here is what can be done realistically in the context of Indonesia, and particularly in the city of Palembang.

Palembang: Major Areas of Concern in ICR

Since the 1970s, Indonesia has placed more emphasis on urban problems especially with regard to the deterioration of kampungs. With support from the World Bank, the Netherlands and other development agencies, the central government introduced the Kampung Improvement Program applying a social-economic-physical approach. Unfortunately, this effort has not been able to deal with the complexity and scope of the deterioration process in place. The recent crisis in the financial system and failure of poverty alleviation policies have posed increasing challenges for urban centers in the main cities of Indonesia. Notably, this has been seen in the uncontrollable influx of informal economic activities that has resulted in the use of every available public and private space, the degradation of local government capacity and authority to maintain and rule the cities, and the decline of private investments and capacity to maintain and accelerate economic activities in the areas. Consequently, physical deterioration, social conflict and poverty have increased in the inner part of many cities in Indonesia (Firman 2002).

Two major factors have influenced ICR efforts. Firstly, the financial crisis of 1997 has left the central government, businesses and many citizens in a tight financial situation. Secondly, the Decentralization Law No. 22 of 1999 has transferred responsibilities to local governments, which still needed to develop the financial instruments and the technical capacity to deal with such responsibilities. This context influenced the potential for ICR partnerships in Palembang.

Palembang was one of the important ports of Sriwijaya Kingdom in the seventh century. Its location on the Musi River [5] dictated the local social and economic dynamics where the population is provided a transportation network, trade commodities (fish and shrimp) and sustenance (Gunawan 1999). The city has great interdependency with 5 regencies in the upper stream of the Musi River.

Palembang forms the core of the South Sumatra Tourism Development Master Plan (1995), along with four other Tourism Development areas in the Province.[6] In the Tourism Plan, Palembang is envisioned as a riverfront city, and improvements in its innercity are designed to concentrate on developing the Musi River Corridor and a waterfront plaza, and on improving its port and pier.

Land use in the city is heavily conditioned by its physical characteristics. The major part on the north side of the river comprises mainly of residential and commercial areas. The remaining quarter of the city is on the south side of the river, and presents large heavy industry and agricultural land. The area that is not built-up largely consists of swamps, river creeks and forests.

Palembang is a regional trade area and industrial and transportation center. Corollary to such characteristics, its problems include air and water pollution, traffic congestion, and slum proliferation in the innercity. In addition, it suffers from bottlenecks in its transportation system as the river is used less for transportation than before and, currently, there is no bus terminal for the city.

Problems on infrastructure also abound: water supply is not evenly distributed in the city and is available irregularly; flooding is a major problem despite improvements in the drainage network; power supply is only sufficient to meet the minimum demand of households and offices, and need to be expanded for future economic development and city expansion (ITB 1998).

The innercity covered in this study consists of four areas around the Ampera Bridge, which connects the north and south side of the city: the Benteng Kuto Besak Waterfront District; the 16-Illir Palembang Redevelopment Areas; the Fisherman Kampung; and the Chinese Quarter and Seberang Ulu I District. Actors with a stake in the development of plans for

the inner city include government agencies, civil society organizations and various private groups.

Within government, national and provincial government ministries form an important role in the planning done at the local level as the funding for such activity comes from them. At the central government level, there is also a certain overlap in the planning process between the Central Planning Board, the Ministry of Internal Affairs and the sectoral planning made by the Public Works Department. The Central Planning Board assists local governments to prepare the Master Plan and the detailed technical planning deriving from it. The Ministry of Internal Affairs requires 5-year Strategic Plans and thematic yearly plans, on the basis of which it provides block grants for those activities. Finally, the Public Works Department carries out infrastructure development programs supported by the ADB,[7] Strategic Action Plans, and the detailed Technical Building and Environmental Plans (through which funding is obtained). Most of the consultants' studies on ICR for Palembang commissioned by the central and provincial government units presented sophisticated planning concepts with detailed implementation schemes. It seems, however, that there has been insufficient involvement from local stakeholders in the planning cycle, seriously limiting the feasibility of the resultant plans from such studies.

Another national public sector actor is the Center for Tourism Research attached to the ITB. The Center has promoted ICR recommendations for Palembang through the International Competition organized in 1998. This competition drew on ideas from Indonesian and international research and planning institutes in an exhibition held in Jakarta. This exhibition, however, was not held in Palembang itself, nor was it widely known among its local government officials or community groups.

The second group of stakeholders in ICR consists of an aggregate of four types of community groups in Palembang concerned about the developments in the Palembang Lamo area. The people who are self-employed in the area have established themselves in five organizations, three of which are "ketek" owners and drivers, and two are associations of street vendors and "pasar" traders.[8] Two of these organizations are savings and loan cooperatives, with little perspective beyond their own group activities. One (K9) constructed a temporary bazaar to accommodate trading activities in the area, with technical help from the local Public Works Department. These groups are in conflict with other shop-owners in the area, which resent the competition that has been created. This conflict is compounded by the informal "protection gangs" operating in the area. The last one (KMCM) is active in enjoining the public to demand that future ICR plans take into account the concerns at the level of inhabitants and employees. The group has particularly rejected the provincial government's relocation plans for the "raft houses" on the river. It is also undertaking a social rehabilitation project in coordination with a provincial level government office.

Another community group consists of those who are concerned about the Palembang Lamo area because of their cultural origins and professional ties. This group, however, is not extensively organized yet.[9] The third type of community group align mixed groups of professionals—public figures, university researchers and government representatives—who sometimes obtain support from government and international agencies. For example, these groups have carried out various activities in local area improvement, with the support from the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, by promoting local history and tourism, while mediating between research and development actors. This is the type of civil society group with the major potential for further developing forms of cooperation with other stakeholders.

It is worth noting the efforts of the *Yayasan Wira Bakti Utama* (YWBU), a local NGO that has been focusing on developing a City Development Strategy for Palembang, bringing together a coalition of community and professional organizations. In addition, a new NGO (KSIS) that has been set up with financial support from the World Bank Cities Alliance Program aims to facilitate the consultative process at the local government and develop realistic strategies and actions in response to community priorities and problems (Uplink Indonesia September, 2002).

The fourth type of community group consists of the residents in the inner-city areas. These communities include residents of Chinese, Arab, Malay, and Palembang origin, but are not officially organized on that basis nor on the basis of their residence. They are

not currently given substantial voice in discussions on ICR in Palembang. As owners of land and buildings, however, they have a large potential to influence the way ICR plans are carried out. There is a large group of absentee owners of historically interesting buildings, who currently show no interest in restoring these buildings due to unclear government polices on such activities and absence of financial incentives that would entice them to think otherwise. Owner-families of old houses in the area mostly say that the socioeconomic prospect of Palembang is not good enough, prompting them to live in other places such as Jakarta. Their houses are thus used by indigent relatives, some of which rent out part of the area for additional income.

Finally, there are a number of families living in raft houses and floating structures along the banks of the Musi River[10] whose major economic activities are based on fishing, small trading and boat-making. These are relatively poor families who have been attracted by the economic vitality of this major natural resource and transport system, as well as by its proximity to the densely populated inner city. They have not yet developed strong community linkages as they do not have clear possession of the area they occupy and are receiving limited public services. It should, therefore, be recognized that ICR programs need to develop the relationship between groups of building-users who have different and sometimes conflicting interests. Many government plans to relocate the floating houses have been resisted and failed for not addressing the needs of the community whose involvement has not really been solicited in the planning process.

After an attempt to relocate the raft houses in 1999, a community-based organization, *Kelompok Rumah Rakit* (Federation of Raft House Dwellers), emerged and, with the support of the Coalition of Musi River Communities and Federation of Boat Drivers, forced changes in government policies. A new plan, the Social Rehabilitation for Slum Areas (RSDK) approved for the 2002 fiscal year, aims to be more inclusive, recognizing the historic value and tourism potentials of the areas concerned (Uplink Indonesia September 2002).

On the north side of the river in the central area, major part of the land is owned by the Indonesian Army. A historic fort and several heritage buildings have been occupied with a military hospital and staff lodging and other activities. Recently, discussions regarding the transfer of these activities to other areas have started. However, the sensitivity of negotiations and the need for huge funding to carry out such a project have suggested that a rapid solution to the problem cannot be expected.

The third group of stakeholders is the private sector. The inner-city area has a diversity of private sector actors. Aside from self-employed "betek," owners and drivers, as well as small-scale traders–both the (nonofficial) bazaar-holders and the shopkeepers—there are also workers who thrive on the use of the river for transportation and fishing. The latter are under the aegis of the Port Authority, the de-concentration section of the Ministry of Communication and Transportation. A local Chamber of Commerce is in place, but has not really been able to facilitate the building of partnerships between workers and government in striving for economic development in the inner city. On the other hand, big companies like the fertilizer factory of Sriwijaya and the oil refinery around the region should also be recognized to support Palembang development. Experiences in the past have shown that large private companies are eager to support local initiatives for political and corporate image-building.

A very important economic group in the inner city, but largely disregarded in governmental planning is that of street vendors and such other informal groups. There are approximately 750 vendors trading in the CBD Ilir Timur I Distric. Most street vendors are organized in related associations, such as the *Persatuan Solidaritas Pedagang Kaki Lima (PSPK-5), Koperasi Jaya Bersama,* and *Asosiasi Pengecer dan Pengelola Pertokoan Indonesia/ AP31 Palembang*. The concentric transport infrastructure and the recent economic crises in Indonesia explain at large the concentration and increase of the activities of these informal groups in the core of Palembang. The local government tried to relocate and organize these activities by building 2 to 3-storey commercial buildings outside the central area, but failed severely. Street vendors did not agree to be relocated to multi-storey buildings where accessibility is limited. A number of reasons account for the incapacity of the city to legalize these economic activities that would have generated municipal revenues and improved the quality of public space. These include

the local government's lack of staff complement and unclear policies in dealing with street vendors, in addition to political agendas that strongly influence the governance process.

Another important group with strong political voice is that of taxi drivers. This group has decisively influenced traffic regulations in the area and, on several occasions, blocked streets for demonstrations against attempts to change traffic direction, parking and pedestrian areas.

Likewise important are the associations of *becak* drivers (pedicabs) that fight for the cause of making authorities recognize the importance of this informal transport service in Palembang. Despite national policies that ban informal transport, these associations have been successful in organizing the becak drivers, improving the quality of service and the traffic in the inner city by implementing a queuing system. One of the group's achievements is the recent *Pagayuban Abang Becak* (PAB), a buyer's cooperative that buys food by bulk, making it cheaper for its members who contribute money for the purchases (Uplink Indonesia September 2002).

Urban Planning and Management Capabilities

This constellation of social actors presents a unique diversity, the strengths (social, economic and cultural) of which can be either mobilized towards building synergy and a development vision for Palembang, or left alone in such a mixed (and sometimes conflicting) state. Depending on the organizational capacity of key actors to aggregate values, a strategic process in support of physical, economic and social improvements can be built up. This needs to be ultimately translated into the local government planning process and in the allocation of annual budget. The annual budget proposal for city development comes through three channels to the local Planning Board office as the scheme in Figure 1 shows.

Although the planning structure indicated in the figure shows a degree of sophistication, several planning and management constraints have been identified. The planning process has recently been changed to accommodate recommendations from central government and international agencies, such as UNDP and World Bank, to incorporate new vocabularies such as "strategic planning" and "environmental impact management." However, this has not served the local areas well as the local urban planning and management systems present clearly competing and overlapping functions, in addition to the highly centralized decision-making at the upper political level, that undermines the work of technical staff and community involvement. Hence, the real meaning and potentials for the localities of the use of such new urban planning and management vocabularies have yet to be discovered in Palembang.

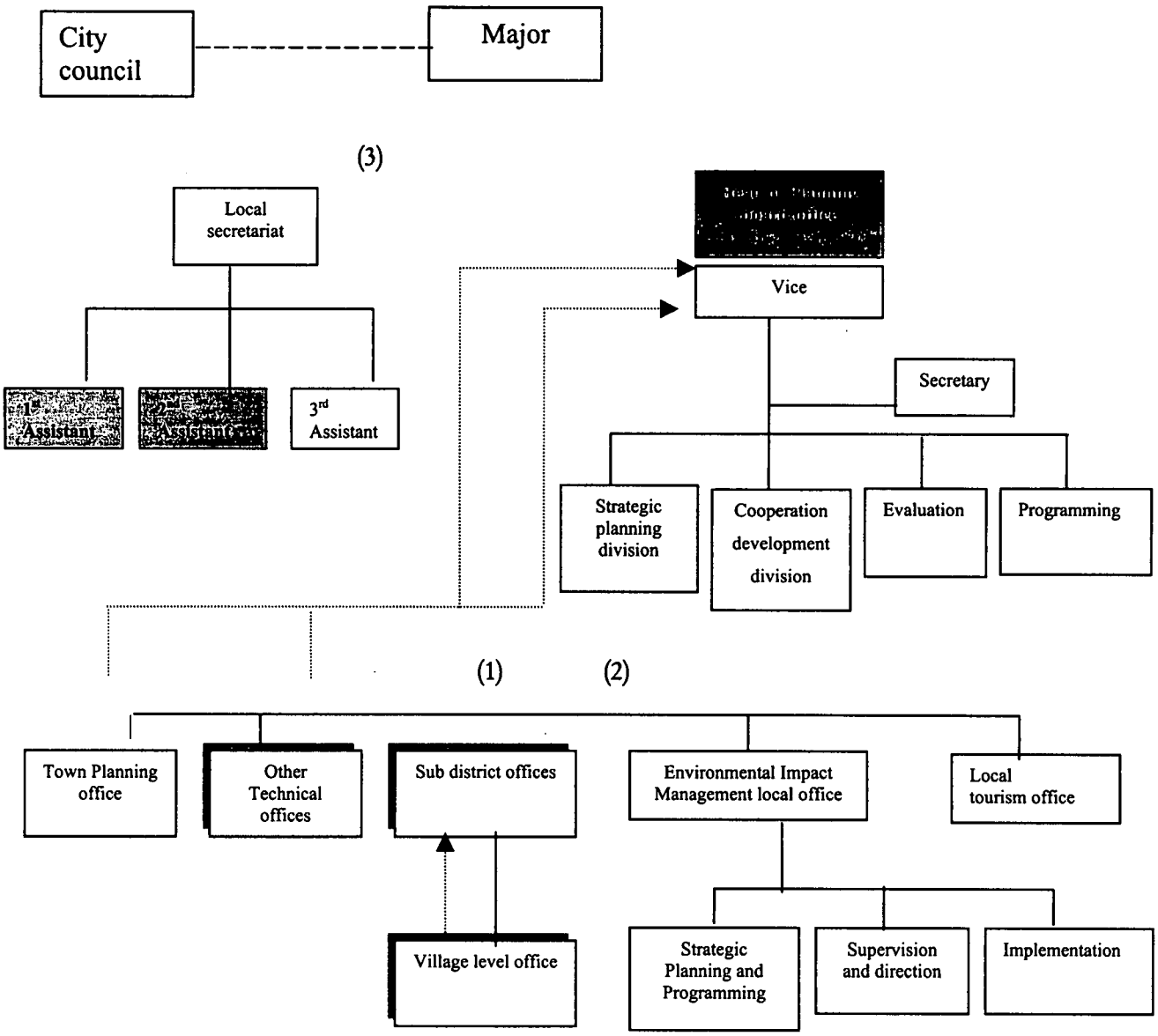
Land management in the area is also a major concern that hampers the effectiveness of the system illustrated (Figure 1). As aforementioned, the Musi River and the military compound areas are beyond the authority of local government. Complex land ownership and use is beyond the local government capacity to guide towards development.

Participatory planning mechanisms are already in place, but very often the plans proposed by the village-level offices on the basis of demands by local communities find no support in the annual budget as there are no clear procedures governing the programming of the budget schedule. Plans from the technical offices are often too disconnected with other programs that these fail to fit into annual priorities set by the planning board that has the city council consent. It is not unusual that proposals made by the technical staff and community are disregarded by top-level decision-makers.

The weak municipal finance is another major bottleneck. Plans and programs from the local government secretariat mainly cover only the routine expenses and pay roll. This routine budget requirement consumes more than half of the total revenue.[1] Despite a recent revenue increase and a completed set of regulations, there are evidences that current revenue reports do not represent the real economic vitality of Palembang due to the lack of tax data, antiquated financial procedures and equipment, inappropriate staff complement and limited enforcement of the regulations.

This complex situation creates enormous challenges to the institutional and human resources of the local government of Palembang. This has been revealed, for instance, in the local government's difficulties in

Figure 1



Note:

Structural alliance
Co-ordination alliance
Flow of annual proposal
Three institutions responsible for prioritizing annual proposals

(1) Project proposal from local communities through village and sub-district offices
(2) Project proposal from the technical officers of local government
(3) Project proposal from the local government secretariat

influencing the plans being developed at national and regional levels and, naturally, in implementing it. The local government has also not been very active in developing plans for ICR in Palembang based on the knowledge of its resources, needs and aspirations.

A shift towards a more democratic and strategic urban management practice still needs to be realized in order to maximize the use of resources, prioritize policies and build up the necessary consensus to develop concrete actions to revert the current process of social, economic and physical degradation. As advocated through the UNDP/UNCHS/World Bank Urban Management Programme, "National and City Consultations have become the cornerstone of UMP Practice and also underpin the strategic planning process that can successfully overcome the problems of Master Planning and other such technocratic approaches" (Muntaz and Wegelin 2001).

The current process of decentralization and power devolution, however, brought a unique opportunity for Indonesian municipalities, including Palembang City, to increase their management capacity regarding the provision of better urban services and, thus, influenced the development paths of its inhabitants. It has also launched the platform at the local level where government, civil society and the private sector can jointly set the priorities and necessary actions to improve the quality of life of its inhabitants.

Potential Areas for Cooperation and Partnerships

There are several major areas of tension in the current initiatives designed to promote ICR in Palembang which need to be tackled in order to obtain better cooperation and enduring forms of partnerships in ICR.

To begin with, the importance given to social, economic and physical aspects of upgrading the inner city area varies widely among the stakeholders involved, and there are currently very limited efforts to integrate these different aspects of ICR into a coherent planning process. To illustrate such incoherence in priorities, for one, the Ministry of Culture and Tourism, national research institutions, and local universities are concerned with the preservation of buildings with historic and tourist values. On the other hand, the local Planning Board is mainly concerned with the physical upgrading of buildings and infrastructure (establishing official bazaars and removing unofficial ones; improving waterfront area), and promoting tourism. Still, the technical offices of the government have each of their own sector priorities, instead of sharing and relating to each other, which means that the tourism office, the port authority and the military do not work together, but rather have parallel initiatives for ICR.

The owners of land and buildings have no perception yet about the ultimate profitability that the program demanding the upgrading of their buildings would bring them. This is attributable to the lack of corollary programs that would increase public awareness on such information, along with sector subsidies or tax incentives that would have been provided therefor.

The private sector groups, who are organized, resist upgrading of buildings and infrastructure that threaten their livelihood as they are more "conservative" in undertaking new types of investments which have not yet been proven to generate returns quickly. "Informal sector" activities are considered illegal, and are undermined rather than supported. Tourism, on the other hand, has been recognized as an area to be supported for economic development, but mainly by national level.

Interest has been demonstrated by NGOs, residents and local universities on heritage aspects, but there has been limited discussion among them on fostering initiatives in the area. In fact, negotiations have happened mainly to resolve conflicts that ensue when these groups encounter problems about local government policies. Consultation processes are not mature yet.

Improving the social fabric of the area is a major aspect of ICR (Carmon 1999) as it involves ensuring that residents feel safer, social organizations are strengthened and the neighborhood is maintained in a good state. However, this has not been achieved effectively by any of the organized stakeholders in Palembang for approximately 1 million of its inhabitants that live in precarious conditions. Only isolated initiatives are being taken when the situation reaches unbearable levels.

The new Law 22/1999 on decentralization gives local governments a central role in local issues such as ICR. Among others, local governments are expected be more proactive in holding discussions among all stakeholders. With such evolution in local government responsibilities, the role of provincial and national government ministries also requires redefinition. This is important not only in defining the ICR issues that need to be taken up, but even more importantly in financing and organizing for its implementation. Decentralization in Indonesia still needs to create new forms of trust and cooperation between central and local government.

The experience in Indonesia shows that financing and organizing is required to launch ICR at a larger scale. This implies the need for cooperation between offices of the various levels of government, civil society and international development agencies, as such partnerships provide the staging ground for small and large-scale ICR. To illustrate, if the Palembang ICR involves a plan to improve infrastructure networks in the area, it should be expected that the support of public works offices in the regional and national levels shall be needed. This is what will lead, at some extent, to government-to-government partnership and international cooperation (Suselo and Taylor 1995). On the other hand, Palembang could also look into the experience of Bandung in heritage conservation activities that has been characterized by community involvement. At the same time, Sriwijaya University could use the experience of Parahyangan University in uplifting environmental consciousness in the community and then later enjoining them to form a collective effort with other stakeholders to start taking better care of the river.

At the local level, it is perceived that a new form of "round table consultations" could lead to more cooperative ventures between the different stakeholders involved in ICR. Figure 2 shows how such cooperation may be configured among NGOs, representatives of the private and government sectors and university professionals. Over the past year, a training has been provided to representatives of these different groups. They are now therefore expected to have developed a basic understanding and knowledge of each others' capabilities which may serve as a sound basis for further cooperation in addressing concerns in Indonesia. Specifically, they can now define common areas of interest in ICR around the major aspects of physical upgrading, economic stimulation and improving the social fabric, using the same principles of the "round table consultation." By broadening awareness on common interests held by the different stakeholders, "action groups" may be structured using tested strategic methodologies in planning.

The extent to which more concrete forms of partnerships can emerge from such process will depend on the possibilities of obtaining co-financing for more integrated projects and plans that recognize the cumulative effects of combining physical upgrading with other aspects, such as those discussed by Hulsbergen and Stouten (2001).

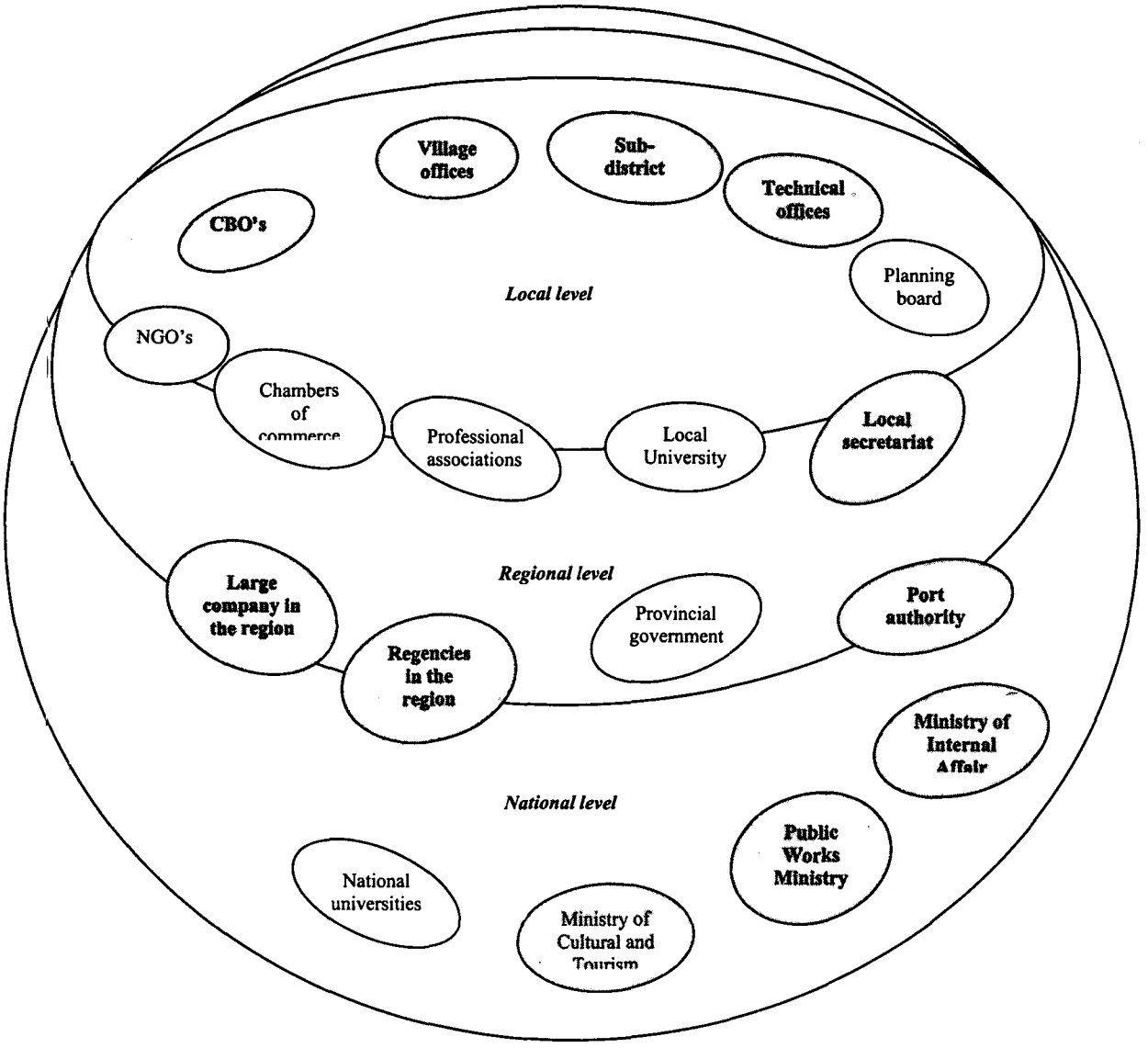
Lessons Learned for a Common Future

International discussion on inner city revitalization has widened its agenda to include other urban dimensions beyond infrastructure improvement. In many places, however, the practice of ICR still remains focused on upgrading physical infrastructure and conserving and re-using historic buildings, placing less emphasis on the economic and social development of areas. In order to overcome this, lessons that may be learned from many initiatives which are being carried out at the city and neighborhood levels should be looked into. Particularly, attention should be given to the potential roles that different actors can play in promoting a holistic process of safeguarding and redeveloping core urban areas.

In Palembang, Indonesia, the case study has provided the opportunity to better understand the existing challenges and potentials in building up routes for an integrated ICR process. It has also illustrated the need for capacity building and training beyond conventional practices and to view things from the perspective of different actors from the local and country levels. Focusing on overcoming barriers, potential role of partnerships, political environment and current ICR efforts in Palembang, the study has helped to unveil the social, economic, physical, cultural, and political contexts for action.

Similar to many cities under the pressure of unplanned and rapid urbanization, misguided modernization and demographic growth, the

Figure 2



Note: Grey are stakeholders that need to be included.
White are stakeholders that are already involved in ICR processes.

Palembang inner-city area has tremendously deteriorated, as seen in the growth of its slum areas, traffic congestion, all sorts of environmental hazards and degradation of its historic built environment. As one of the most important harbors in Sumatra, Palembang has faced strong growth in several sectors including trade, industry and regional tourism. One of the most problematic areas of the city is the core area along the banks of the Musi River, which has been degraded as a result of the uncontrolled growth of port activities. The challenge is to tap the Musi River in contributing to the improvement rather than to the degradation of the quality of life in Palembang.

The uncontrolled development of the Palembang riverside area is partly the result of the lack of organizational and regulatory capacity of the local government in managing its development. This has resulted in the growth of slum areas, the congestion due to uncontrolled water traffic and the degradation of the urban heritage. Such mismanaged process has

increasingly threatened the historic core, slowly disrupting the bases of a unique local identity. Also, it has undermined the economic potentials of Palembang's urban heritage in attracting compatible activities and private investment in the re-use of the historic fabric.

In order to break the vicious cycle of decay, the depreciation of land values, and the investment withdrawal in the area, actors from various sectors, both in the local and international community, have started to play a more proactive role in Palembang, thereby increasing the potential for the development of partnerships. Because of this, the promotion of more holistic practices that would replace the physically biased urban renewal approach has been made possible. Finally, a shift towards improving human and institutional capacities, including those of the local government and of the community, has also resulted.

Drawing on the knowledge of a group of Indonesian planners, NGOs, city council members and private sector representatives, this study has revealed a complex mapping of actors *who are involved* in current urban development and inner city revitalization discussions and activities in Palembang. Moreover, it has highlighted a constellation of social actors, including those from community-based organizations and from informal sector groups with potentials and unique social, economic and cultural capitals *that may be enjoined* to further strengthen said discussions and activities. However, these actors have been mainly disregarded by the decision making process, rather than mobilized to help pursue common objectives.

Although the process of ICR in Palembang may challenge the way some interests have been dealt with, particularly in land development and use (informal versus formal, public versus private), there is considerable room for converging initiatives and building common objectives. Some factors, however, still prevent partnerships from being established. This is evident in the lack of appropriate urban management capabilities and instruments for promoting partnerships with other social actors. Recently, efforts have been made by national and international agencies to improve the human and institutional resources of Palembang government. However, those efforts have not been well coordinated and strategically implemented. The situation of late decentralization and building local governance have not yet offered the conditions to maximize the local, national and international efforts in promoting economic, social, physical and cultural revitalization of Palembang's core area.

As a result, the ICR planning process has developed slowly and without clear short- and long-term goals. The initial partnerships that have been made, nevertheless, show that there is a potential for unlocking resources and creating synergy among different actors. This has been particularly seen in the strengthening initiatives in the fields of city strategic planning, community development, heritage conservation, and kampung improvement. Training programs, in this respect, have the potential to bring social actors together to discuss realistic strategies to face the current process of urban decay.

More efforts also still needed to build the capabilities of key non-governmental organizations and top decision-making offices in order to establish a favorable environment for more inclusive and transparent policies that consider principles of sustainability. This ultimately challenges the approach that is currently being taken in the design and implementation of ICR capacity building programs. It shows that a multi-stakeholder organization is fundamental to guaranteeing effective learning processes.

Differing attitudes, planning practices and competing interests need to be made explicit to trigger mutual learning processes for the different participants. They can then ascertain what may be held common to everyone and thereby guide the establishment of goals and processes through which ICR shall be carried out. The context of decentralization and democratization provides the opportunity to do this, but the lack of established participatory practices and human resource development policies currently make for a process of trial and error. As in the case of Palembang, major attention should be paid to capacity building and institutional development for key stakeholders in order to unlock the main factors preventing the formulation and implementation of an effective integrated revitalization process.

It can be concluded that the aggregation of values and the promotion of alliances among existing actors—both those involved in and those affected by planning processes—are keys to generating the necessary actions

towards revitalizing the social, economic, and physical fabric in the inner city areas, while promoting more transparent, equal and responsible governance practices. As shown in this particular case, training has proven to have the potential not only for improving skills, but fundamentally for catalyzing critical actions from stakeholders that have been inactive.

Notes

[1]NGOs are non-governmental organizations working for other social groups, and CBO's are community-based organizations, whose members are the direct beneficiaries of their activities.

[2]We wish to thank the participants of the course for their willingness to discuss such issues with the writers of this paper. Any mistakes remain our own.

[3]The exhibition of the results was presented at ITB in Bandung in 2001, but not in Palembang.

[4]These are what Hulsbergen and Stouten call as complementary—but often separated—areas in ICR in the Netherlands.

[5]The city's area is 303 sq.km.

[6]They are based on an integrated regional tourism concept: zoning and waterfront tourism development approaches, as well as natural and socioeconomic conservation (ITB 1998).

[7]For Palembang, the package was Bogor-Palembang UDP between 1991–1996.

[8]They are the KMCM, Kerukunan tukang ketek, Mufakat Jaya, LP4KKL, and K9 associations.

[9]They are the Palembang Heritage group and the Kerukunan Keluarg Palembang.

[10]According to the Federation of Raft House Dwellers, there are 184 raft houses in the city, only 19 of those in good state and 102 in advanced deterioration (Uplink Indonesia 2002).

[11]Including local revenue, grant and subsidies from the regional and national level, excluding international sources.

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LOCAL GOVERNANCE AND URBAN REVITALIZATION IN JAPAN

HIDEAKI HOSHINA

Introduction

Local Governance History

LOCAL governance in Japan is said to have begun with the enactment of its Constitution in 1889. However, the Japanese Local Autonomy System has been implemented since 1888 with the establishment of the local government units (i.e., Cities, Municipalities and Villages). It is through this system that the local residents have been first introduced to political participation by their engagement in the communal decision-making process, although the Mayors were appointed by the Interior Minister and the post of the assemblyman was honorary at the early stage.

Local autonomy is believed to have been earnestly granted in Japan with the enactment of its Local Government Code and New Constitution (1947) which provided for direct elections. Local autonomy is a principle of the Constitution, along with people's sovereignty, peace, human rights and parliamentary democracy.

Local Government Units

The local government units in Japan are classified into two categories: the ordinary local public institutions—prefectures, cities, municipalities and villages; and the special institutions—special wards, union of the local government units, public enterprises and administrative territories.

By definition, cities have over 50,000 population and has 60 percent of its households residing in urbanized areas. In 1999, the number of LGUs in Japan totaled to 47 prefectures including Tokyo Metropolitan Government, 671 cities, 1,990 municipalities and 568 villages.

In the years 1953, 1962 and 1965 the consolidation of LGUs, supported by legal enactments, was promoted in response to the dynamic socioeconomic changes that have emerged in the local communities all over Japan since the post war. It was evident that the traditional communal relations among residents have been transformed. Rural areas have been depopulated while urban areas were becoming overpopulated.

Entrepreneurship and Local Governance

LGU Consolidation Policy

Since 1965, the central government has been implementing the consolidation of local government units in order to enhance their administrative and financial bases and therefore improve the delivery of public services and strengthen the local economic and industrial development capacities. The local residents themselves could request the mayor and/or the *Barangay* Captain to set up a consolidation council at the LGU assembly. However, many chief executives had been found to be against the idea because of the probability of losing their post after the consolidation.

The LGU Consolidation Act has been applied in Japan in two stages. The first one was in 1889 when towns and villages of 300 households were merged into units of 500 households each, reducing 71,314 towns and villages into around 15,820 units. The second merger in 1953–1956 that focused on LGUs with over 8,000 population reduced some 9,868 LGUs to 3,472 units.

Japan is expected to enter the era of the aging society in the middle of 21st century that will require a new set of social safety nets for its senior citizenry (i.e., citizens over 65 years). The re-institutionalization of LGUs shall be indispensable to the devolution of the financial and administrative resources that will enable them to meet the future demands for social services. To implement this, a proposal being considered is the consolidation of 47 prefectures into 12 states and 300 cities to which resources shall be devolved. In addition, another recommendation to the Former Prime Minister Obuchi is to reduce 3,200 cities, municipalities and villages down to less than 1,000 units.

Local Government Alliances

There are great demands for public administration and services that can only be handled at the sub-national (regional) level. In addition to consolidation, therefore, proposals are emerging for sub-national economic expansion, sub-national transportation and information network, and sub-national regional developments. Further, water resource development and management, region-wide medical care system, new transport system and conservation of natural environment are all seen to require the regional approach and technology as these are more than what the capacity of the single local units can handle. The 338 wide-range administrative blocs and the 24 metropolitan blocs have applied this approach and covered 97 percent of LGUs all over the country since 1969 and 1977 respectively. The development and administration of central hospitals, solid waste and sewerage management units, homes for the aged, fire stations, and schools are undertaken by the bloc administration system.

In 1994, the Local Government Code of Japan was revised and introduced the local government alliance system as a form of a special local public institution. The alliance had then been recognized to function similar to the local public union which operates the fire fighting services and the solid waste management, and given the higher independent status than the unions. The local government alliance consists of the execution body and assembly whose chief executive is directly elected. The residents of the local governments reserve the right of claims for the dissolution of the assembly and the recall of the execution body.

No Limit on the Terms of Appointments

It is accepted in Japan for chief executives of LGUs to run for elective office in consecutive terms. By 1999, 516 chief executives have been elected for more than 4 consecutive terms and administer 16 percent of the total number of LGUs. The 3 longest-staying mayors have continuously administered their municipalities and villages for 44 years, serving 4-year terms for eleven times. Governor Hiramatsu of Ohita Prefecture, well known as the promoter of "One Village, One Product Movement," is now on his 6th term, serving continuously for 24 years.

As to the reason behind such limitless term of office for the local chief executive, it may be that the number of qualified talents for the local post in rural communities is limited. Also, it is said that people in the villages are unwilling to change their perception and prefer a familiar figure, like the incumbent, over a new one. They are willing to allow the continuance of a local political administration which they are used to. It is also known that chief executives maintain broad authority in the village administration so that they may be able to establish a stable constituency who will support them in elections even after two or three terms.

Eventually, however, the rules of election allowing multiple terms for chief executives received wide public criticism so that in the Promotion Plan of the Local Devolution in 1998 it had been recommended that the chief executive must only be allowed up to 3 terms at most.

Guideline of Administrative Reform

The Ministry of General Affairs (formerly Ministry of Home Affairs) adopted in 1997 a New Guideline for the Promotion of the Administrative Reform of the LGUs. The New Guideline enjoins every LGU to review the important role they play in the administrative reform, to set its quantitative goals for the appropriate quota of their employees, and to quantify its targets as basis for computing the subsidies to be given to the LGUs. By the end of June 1998, all the prefecture governments and the designated cities by ordinance have drawn up the guideline of their reform. As a result, it is believed that LGU employees had been reduced by approximately 50,000.

Relative to the Local Administrative Reform of Japan, the issues that are seen as requiring present attention include the following:

1) To review the present administrative services delivery and to implement measures for discontinuance, cutback, integration and simplification;
2) To review the delivery of subsidies by looking into redefining the rationale behind it;
3) To devolve to LGUs as many administrative services to support the residents' daily needs;
4) To commission and contract out the public services that can be operated by private enterprises;
5) To simplify the administrative procedures for licensing, permission and approval by cutting down on the official restrictions in the processes involved;
6) To restructure public organizations and institutions in accordance with the assessment of the administration; and
7) To adopt new employment policies and measures that will optimize the use of quota and wage standards.

The local administrative reform in Japan brought forth the competitiveness among LGUs. A New National Life Indicators, structured by 8 sectors of well-being of the communal lives such as "Livability," "Consumability," "Workability," "Fosterability," "Educationality," "Curability," "Pleasurability," and "Interchangeability," was even designed to compare, in 1998, the achievement of LGUs in public service. However, the performance in the delivery of services of 47 prefectures is measured by over 150 indicators. It is believed that the assessment system that uses quantitative indicators has clearly disclosed the priority public service areas of each prefecture government. The chief executives have since been exposed in a tough political competition with other LGUs. Many LGUs have started to open their home pages on the Internet to inform the public about their services, specialties and products, and to invite opinions and requests via e-mail. The entrepreneurship of the chief executives can be thus deemed one of the crucial factors that determine success in the development competition among LGUs.

Urban Governance in Planning and Development

Changing Urban Economic Structure

The international community has experienced dynamic changes in the social and economic environment since the end of the war. The post war economy rapidly expanded, culminating in the collapse of bubble economy in 1990, when industrialized nations were faced with the Era of the Aging Society. The border-less economy has led to the fast transfer of production bases from one country to another as nations compete for superiority in low-cost production. Asian metropolises have been the target fields for this type of competition. It is thus evident that the manufacturing and the tertiary industries which are the axes of urban economy have, as a whole, been the leading sectors for national economic growth even in the developing countries of Asia. In contrast, the poor rural population has grown much faster than the urban, hence absolute poverty growth is seen in rural communities while poverty increases in urban areas remain relative.

With such urban-rural disparity, that implies socioeconomic constraints, a fragile Asian economic structure is viewed in the cross sector balance between production, financing and consumption activities. This dictates the need for local governments to implement good governance and design an appropriate policy mix on the economic, environmental and social concerns in development. As the urban government which could display higher competitiveness has the tendency to be sustainable only in the international economy, transparency and accountability in development policies and decision-making processes become indispensable as bases of good governance.

Competitive and Transparent Governance

Competitiveness may be discussed in line with sectoral performance (i.e., economic, social and environmental) in development administration. Governments are appreciated and therefore considered competitive when their development policy and administration pursue the interests of taxpayers rather than remain concentrated on business concerns such as licensing, permission and taxation.

Economic competitiveness could be enhanced once private investors have been enticed to start and then expand their businesses in the territory. In such cases, infrastructures such as transportation, telecommunication/information, water and electricity supply systems in the city must be well organized, maintained and secured. Labor quality, cost efficiency, work disciplines and skills need to be comparatively high. Also, license issuance, taxation and financial transaction systems must be fair and transparent in the government.

On the other hand, social and environmental competitiveness could be defined in light of 4 measurements that pertain to the socio-physical aspects of a territory: safety, health, convenience and comfort. While the economic aspect refers to the quantitative performance of administration management in the local communities, the social and the environmental aspects of governance indicate the qualitative aspects of performance. Governance should be explained by both quantitative and qualitative measurements.

The standards that indicate the "good life" in local communities, in this context, becomes a significant element of good governance and may serve as basis for assessing the competitiveness of each local government.

Standards of Living in Urban Revitalization: ASEAN Civil Minimum

Much has been said about the growth and modernization of urban economies in urban planning and city development strategies. Still, not all these efforts result in the successful development of the urban areas. People in these communities continue to be exposed to the wide-ranging effects of economic fluctuation. The revitalization of the city to secure a good quality of life could be regarded as a social redistribution mechanism to improve the economic conditions in the urban communities.

The standards used to measure the quality of living have traditionally been peculiar to each country. However, in this period of economic globalization it could be the time to share common sets of standards of "the good life" to trigger a form of social globalization that is especially important in the ASEAN region. Although the countries of Asia have varied standards of living, there can also be seen at the same time aspects of commonality in the way of life in the Asian metropolises. This commonality should bring Asians together to consider sharing the same standards in determining "the good life" at least in their metropolises. The international competition seeking the best proposal for a low-cost housing scheme is a good example of how common standards of living in the Asian countries may evolve. This may then even serve as a framework in the development of urban revitalization schemes in the region.

A shared set of standards of living could be a major component of good urban governance and a concept that may support the development of urban revitalization policies.

Conclusion

This paper has discussed the implications of sharing common standards for "the good life" in the metropolises on policies for good urban governance. Modern high rise buildings have been designed using the same international style and standards, but standards of living and making these commonly held among nations seem to have never been given much attention. It is about time that urban revitalization efforts regard the integration of social, environmental and economic concerns. The 21st century is hoped to be the era of Asian metropolises that share common standards of living.

THE CEBU CITY OLD DOWNTOWN URBAN REVITALIZATION PROGRAM

MA. LOURDES MARTINEZ-ONOZAWA

The Beginnings

THE port of Cebu, while bustling with activities, is home to the informal sector, petty thievery, and other undesirable elements. In 1996, a project was designed to rehabilitate the port and old downtown but was hampered by lack of funds so proposals from local and foreign developers contributed ideas for its redevelopment. In 1998, as a graduate student of planning of the University of the Philippines, the undersigned took part in a program to prepare redevelopment studies for the waterfront area of Cebu City. This was jointly conducted by the UP School of Urban and Regional Planning and the University of New South Wales Urban Design and Development Department.

The output of the UP-UNSW joint program led to the commissioning for a heritage and urban conservation study for the Cebu waterfront and the contiguous old downtown district. The waterfront district of Cebu is a historical area having been the spot where Spaniards first baptized Philippine natives into Christianity. It was also where Spaniards established the first capital of the Philippines and then built the first structure during the colonized period in 1565. The challenge was to create renewed interest in the historical area.

The study, "Cebu Waterfront Heritage and Urban Conservation Study," is a three-volume report which identified heritage resources, reviewed the present planning mechanism of Cebu, mapped out urban design guidelines, ordinances, stated policy and management guidelines, and incentive programs for the proposed redevelopment of the 37-hectare Historic Waterfront District of Cebu that included the old downtown area.

The study was presented to the Cebu City Council in 2000 but was put aside as an election was forthcoming. In the months that followed, the study was presented to international cooperation agencies and national agencies for possible linkaging. The study was presented to the Institute for Housing and Development Studies (IHS) in Rotterdam in a meeting attended by representatives of national agencies and international development organizations. The project was launched in November 2001.

Rationale

The revitalization of Cebu City's old downtown is seen as a catalyst in increasing the city's market potential in the context of the globalized world. With a revitalized old downtown, that includes the old waterfront district, Cebu can attract investments that would boost the city's economy.

Impetus to Revitalizing the Old Downtown

The South Reclamation Project (SRP), a flagship project of the city government, is an added impetus to the revitalization program. The SRP is a 290-hectare reclamation project off the coast of Talisay, right next to Cebu City. Started in 1993, the SRP was originally envisioned to be an industrial center. However, recent developments have seen talks of converting it into an IT center or a retirement enclave. There are other components of the SRP which will also impact on the Old Downtown Area. These are:

1. Kawit Island Development—Kawit Island, contiguous to the SRP, is envisioned to be a cultural village geared for entertainment purposes. Its plans include a clubhouse, fishing

and swimming activities, a fighting cock arena, parks and playgrounds. This development is seen to be compatible with the objectives of the revitalization program. Geographically, both areas are near each other, and are connected with the South Coastal Road. These developments will strengthen both Kawit Island and the SRP.

2. South Coastal Road—A segment of the South Coastal road is planned to be built above water and will pass directly through the front of the historic core of the downtown district. This road will connect into a tunnel that will pass underneath the Plaza Independencia, a major historical landmark of Cebu City. Efforts have been made to facilitate an archeological expedition to retrieve all the artifacts in this declared archeological site prior to its construction. The road will have social and economic impacts on the Old Downtown Area which the urban revitalization program will address.

Investment in Development[1]

Investors and developers alike are looking at reduced levels of risk and a minimal time frame for their returns on their investment by seeking improved levels of certainty. Cebu City, for instance, will have to be able to provide investors with urban development schemes which are clearly achievable, have quantifiable time frames, and which indicate the format of development direction within a given area in subject. The information has to be presented in a way that can provide answers to probable questions regarding investment. This is best achieved through well-planned projects that seek an integrated approach involving political commitment, community awareness, enhanced human capacities, and economic feasibility within a holistic and broader scheme of development.

The inclusion of heritage conservation in the planning process of Cebu City could bring about positive domino effects towards a visually appealing community conducive to economic investment. Heritage conservation, as may be observed in cities that have employed them, brings about tangible and intangible benefits to both the private and public sectors. The tangible benefits include economic functions mostly characterized by the generation of employment. It also brings about social services and infrastructure delivery, and finally, the visual appeal of an area that gives ample attention to the significance of heritage resources. The intangible benefits include giving the citizenry a sense of identity and a sense of pride which are important ingredients of a good sense of national esteem, thus encouraging people to contribute to positive development.

While it is important to protect the heritage of the past, it is also necessary to foster and promote a living culture in all of its many forms. As recent economic analyses have consistently shown, this also makes for sound business sense. From tourism to restoration, investments, cultural heritage, and its related industries promote labor-intensive economic activities that generate wealth and income (Wolfenson 1998, 1).

A development concept that will place Cebu City in a position to take advantage of emerging global economic and development trends is pivotal. Strategic planning will allow the translation of inherent advantages into physical enhancements which will establish the city's heritage clusters as potential points for international and local investment.

Competing as a Global City

The key to economic prosperity in the next millennium will be determined by how individual cities are able to integrate into the global marketplace.[2] It is therefore important for Cebu to position itself as having characteristics required for being competitive in attracting international investments, articulated, among others, through proper urban planning. An understanding of the operations that work best in the local setting is necessary before applying principles from abroad, in order to see if these are relevant to the native characteristics and dynamics of the Filipinos as a people and the Philippines as an archipelago.

The Benefits of Cultural Tourism

It is important to recognize that modern cities have developed specific indigenous industries that have enhanced their image. Chief among these have been in the area of cultural tourism. Culture's role in tourism is the key: usually, it is the primary reason a visitor comes to a city in the first place.

Tourism may be the first step that allows someone to explore and know a place—and later, perhaps invest in it. The cultural sector is one of the fastest growing in the world's developed economy. Its subcomponents —museums, design, music, or theatre are less obviously visible. Their economic power, however, is much more apparent. Cultural employment represents between 1.5 and 3.5 percent of total employment in most western countries. In London and New York, over 200,000 people are so employed—or 5 percent of each city's total employment (Landry 1999, 2).

Tourism is based on the uniqueness of any given place, its people, history and culture. Urban design and strategic planning strategies have become highly significant in the conservation, packaging and promotion of the cultural assets of cities. Cities throughout the world have recognized, as early as 1904, the importance of preserving the built environment[3] (built heritage).

It is therefore suggested that development in planning should be based on the "place" characteristics of the city. (CWHUCS 2000, 5:7) This means showcasing what living in the city of Cebu is actually like, and seeing the city from the point of view of the local population and its visitors, with due reference to the city's evolution and spatial development through time. These important local values, however, should not be eroded by the application of wholly foreign design concepts. An appropriate balance between conservation and redevelopment must be achieved in order to retain and build upon the "imageable" qualities of the city. It is important to develop a concept that reflects the heritage and the values of the people of Cebu. It calls for developing a profile and image for the city that allows for ready recognition or "brand recognition," as some marketing specialists would say.

A Collective Effort

" When people of common passion meet, there is magic in the air...."

The launching of the urban revitalization program brought together concerned citizens with the same realization who bonded themselves into a steering committee to start the process for a revitalization program in Cebu before any piecemeal project was to be commenced. The steering committee's members included people working in their individual capacities but were also represented in government, academe, professional organizations, nongovernmental organizations and private corporations. The Office of the Mayor declared it supported the endeavors of the steering committee and its proposals but did not have any budget for it.

The steering committee through volunteerism, initiated efforts for a process to revitalize the old downtown and bring back its social and economic leverage, and most of all **create another major destination** for tourists and locals alike. The academe, civil society, professional organizations, came together to brainstorm on a redevelopment program. Being the oldest part of town, heritage conservation is now seen as the major tool for its revitalization.

The committee held visioning workshops to strengthen their own capacity and later on ventured into formally organizing themselves into an NGO now called the Cebu Heritage Conservation Council (CHCC). Its main vision is to promote and advocate good urban governance, urban design policies, and support or otherwise implement sustainable conservation projects and other initiatives geared towards the improvement of the socioeconomic condition of Cebu. It has taken the lead role in the Urban Revitalization Program.

The group employs a community based approach to conservation realizing that with more than 50 percent of its population under poverty level, advocacy for heritage conservation would pose significant challenges along the way. One question was pose—"Which was more important to save, the heritage resources or human resources? "Naturally, it is the citizens, the community that is being served. So how then does one make them appreciate heritage conserving when their stomachs are hungry? The challenges set the determination to attain for this program worthy of being called a role model for good urban governance and most especially, in-city relocation of the informal sector in this program.

Action Plan Components

Due to its magnanimity, there are two major components of the program that are undertaken separately and in stages to effect a smooth implementation:

Operational Framework

This entails processes in city consultations, capacity building, and institutional framework. It is in this stage where the Process to Revitalization will take place and these activities will determine the ownership of the project that will be implemented in the second phase (sectoral implementation). This is very important in getting the path for the city in a sustainable manner as the ownership of the project by the people will be a major out put of this phase. Time invested in the operational framework will also give enough awareness of the project thereby hoping to get some more support and funding for the sectoral projects.

Sectoral Project Implementation

This refers to actual implementation of restorative work, rehabilitation of some areas, producing the housing needs of the urban poor, adaptive reuses of some buildings and open areas, policy administration and implementation.

As a first activity towards realizing the above goals, it is increasingly important to activate a participatory process. This will be realized by utilizing a consultative approach in all of the steps undertaken in order to attain a "win-win" situation among the citizenry. Though this process can often be tedious and time consuming, being able to listen to the views of all the stakeholders will be a necessary tool in ensuring a sustainable project because this puts the project on the ground, as if nurturing it from the roots of a tree. Knowing its limitations and its potentials gives a clear direction as to how Cebu City can then, in the long term be able give some bonding of the project with its citizens and for them to exercise ownership of the project. The Cebuanos themselves will be able to identify where they belong in the process and with that clarity in mind, better able to cooperate. In the long term, ownership of the project has to belong to its people. This is one big single factor that will bring about the sustainability of the revitalization project for Cebu.

Benefits and Constraints of the Program

Amidst the problems that plague our country in general and Cebu in particular, the benefits of the revitalization program for the Old Downtown Area of Cebu are seen in terms of being able to contribute to:

1. Enhanced investment climate—Creating a physically appealing place that is vibrant and livable, and with a strong consideration for social welfare automatically creates a venue for increased investment in development.
2. Generation of additional income for the city—Revenue will be generated from the buildings and business permits that will proliferate in the area. Real estate development will boom as a result of the redevelopment.
3. Generation of employment—The investment components of the revitalization program will necessitate a large human resource pool, and this can be further strengthened with giving priorities to employing the people in the community. The problem of unemployment or income generating activities will be addressed as it empowers the marginalized in its capacity building activities. This goes hand in hand with the principles of Landry in that cultural tourism will generate employment for many walks of life, if orchestrated within a concerted effort.
4. Destination for entertainment and tourism—The marriage of tourism and heritage conservation can be seen in the cultural tourism activities that recreate the vibrancy of the old downtown, and that will in itself be attractive to tourism.
5. Sense of identity, confidence, and pride—A lot of people in Cebu seemed to have lost their self esteem in the assurance that things can get better in the Philippines, and that they do not have to resort to immigration to other countries, in order to be gainfully employed and lead better lives. The heritage conservation and urban revitalization program will instill

the intangible benefits into its citizenry, and hopefully, will also gain the stakeholders contributions for the sustainability of the program.

The Cebuanos need to feel a sense of pride, a sense of identity, that will create self confidence in contributing to nation building.

6. Global competitiveness—Cebu is competing with other cities in Asia and in other foreign international markets. Realizing this, the revitalization program will put Cebu City up to par at least with other waterfront cities in the world in terms of excellence indicators, most especially in the realm of good urban governance.

The constraints of the urban revitalization program are seen as challenges that need to be addressed. Methods of approach were thoroughly discussed and these methods will be tested in the program. Addressing the constraints is what comprises the bulk of activities in the program and are as follows:

1. Capacity Building for the Marginalized

The marginalized are often seen as recipients of charity. This can change. The activities of the program will provide skills training and micro enterprise for them in order that in the long term, these people can now be in charge of their own destinies. Moreover, their inclusion in the decision making process will greatly contribute to instilling "ownership" of the project, thereby leading toward its sustainability.

The urban revitalization program has been endorsed by the Provincial Office of the Department of Trade and Industry (DTI). In partnership with them, the DTI will undertake the skills training intended for the informal sector. This is seen as a way to empower the marginalized in the area, thereby producing a people who will readily contribute to its sustainability.

2. Formulation of an Incentive program for the Stakeholders

There is no hard and fast rule toward implementing an incentive program in the revitalization program. However, the program can gain from international best practice and see how these can be localized. Incentive programs require the participation of stakeholders concerned, and these can be in the form of:

a. Transfer of Development Rights
b. Variations to ordinances (as applied for by the owner or developer)
c. Adaptive Re-use
d. Financial Incentives
e. Government Acquisition

3. Legislation of Ordinances to Declare Special Zones for Heritage Conservation.

There have been a number of initiatives for cultural heritage conservation all over the Philippines in the recent years. While these activities have now started to attain a level of advocacy, they, however, still have to be articulated in national legislation. In view of this, the program is being presented to the City Tourism Commission, the City Cultural and Historic Commission as well as the Arts Council for its endorsement. The sponsoring legislators of the city council and the CHCC have partnered in drafting the ordinances that will zonify the historic urban core situated in the Old Downtown District as well as heritage sites in the rest of the barangays within these boundaries. It will also be assisting the barangay councils in talking to the heritage resources owners in convincing them of the benefits of their historic treasures. In the future, these areas will also be presented to the National Historic Institute for declaration into Historic Sites.

4. Attaining Clear Policies in the Management of the Informal Sector

The city of Cebu has yet to declare a clear policy on the urban poor as well the informal sector. Nevertheless, the urban revitalization program of Cebu has declared that it will include the urban poor as part of its solution and consultations with them will be held. Social inclusion is a vital factor to the sustainability of this program. The program has commenced consultations with some community organizations of the informal sector in trying to identify their aspirations as well a making an inventory of their skills.

5. Partnership with Philippine Urban Forum

The urban revitalization program concept has been endorsed by the UNDP-Philippine Urban Forum (PUF) in its program for Good Urban Governance (GUG). The PUF has supported the program in helping create the linkages for CHCC as necessary for the process or urban revitalization. It has also conducted the visioning workshops for the urban revitalization steering committee.

In the future, the program is contemplating on sponsoring a national forum on heritage conservation to be able to feel the pulse of heritage conservation in the country. This forum will enable the Philippines to carry a unified voice that it can bring into international fora.

6. Implementing Framework in the Local Planning Process

Since the Philippine government is decentralized, the local framework was studied. It was found out that the heritage conservation and urban revitalization program for Cebu would work best if legislation started from the smallest unit of government, and that is the Barangay. When an ordinance in this level is created, it will then be carried to the city or municipality level. Amendments to the City ordinances will then be made to reflect the zoned heritage resources and the areas in need for revitalization. This sets a strong basis for carrying through with the program as this will now be a part of the building permit process. Fig. 1 illustrates a proposed framework in local planning.

7. Partnership with the Department of Tourism (DOT)

The urban revitalization program has also been endorsed by the Regional Department of Tourism. In partnership with them, heritage map brochures will be printed for distribution in airports and hotels. This will increase the advocacy of heritage conservation efforts in Cebu city. In line with this, CHCC in cooperation with the University of San Carlos History department has documented all the heritage structures of the Old Downtown District, as a first step in the conservation plan for this area.

8. Linkages with the Department of Environment and Natural Resources (DENR)

The urban revitalization program has been endorsed with the DENR Regional Office. They are now accrediting the CHCC as member of the Environmental Compliance Certificate Review Committee in its projects for Region 7. In partnership with the DENR, the CHCC is assisting them in the documentation of some of their properties in the natural environment which they would like to be declared as sites with national significance.

9. The Pilot Project

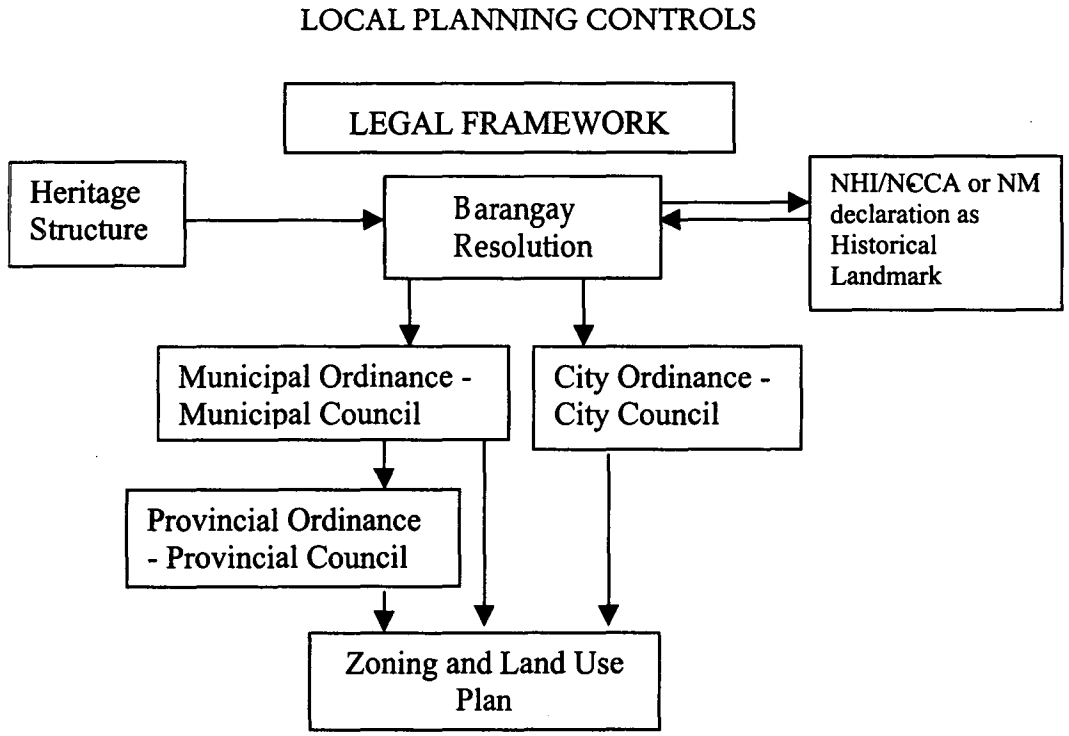
In order for the public to be able to visualize what urban revitalization is about without jeopardizing the overall picture, it is possible to identify an area or a precinct that may be revitalized. CHCC has established linkages with the DENR and the Cebu Ports Authority (CPA) in planning out the specific area to develop a pilot project. Both CPA and DENR are the owners of the land immediately by the waterfront or as it is similarly called, the urban coastline of Cebu. In partnership with these two national agencies, a proposed redevelopment plan is being discussed.

The development of a Pilot Project will greatly aid in the awareness program and will lend itself an opportunity for the people to support this program from both the public and private sector. In so doing, the city can immediately see for itself the potential for such a redevelopment in other parts of the city.

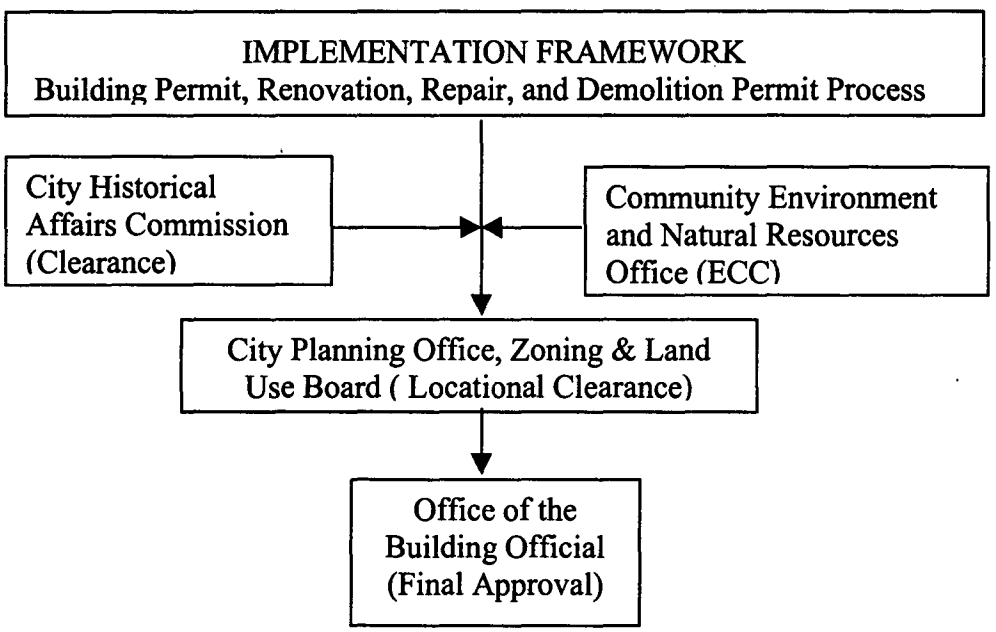
Conclusion

This presentation has showcased how the program came about, the activities engaged in, its frustrations, the lessons learned and applications of the lessons learned in forging the trail up ahead in realizing the visions of the program. This is presented as a case whose initiators find they still wanting in learning, still adapting to change, and in so doing seeks out this body in welcoming comments and suggestions in order for the Cebu Revitalization Program to realize progressive sustainability. Its success will be an inspiration to people committed to the welfare of our human resources. The

Figure 1. Proposed Local Framework for Heritage Conservation



Note: Dissemination of relevant information relevant to the heritage resource should be forwarded to the DENR, HLURB, HUDCC, NEDA, and to the DPWH.



urban revitalization program activities are pioneering in that methods employed in the processes are being tested. The decision in the choice of approach is borne after its vision of good urban governance, social inclusion in strategic planning, and with a constant thought of the greater good of the public in its consciousness.

The program holds a promise that when the vision is fully realized this program can be replicated in the management of other historic port cities of the country and in other countries with similar situations as the Philippines.

The urban revitalization program of Cebu is run by people with a shared dream and vision. What is difficult takes time, and what is impossible only takes a little longer. Commitment, compassion, and consistency in the vision that bonded them together in the first place are what keep them going.

Notes

[1]Excerpts from " Heritage Conservation and Local Planning" Masteral Thesis of Author, Chapter I, Oct. 2002.

[2]In a discussion with Prof. Alexander Cuthbert, The Red Center, University of New South Wales, Sydney, February 1999.

[3]Based on the year of the Sixth Conference of Architects in Madrid, Spain, 1904, known to be the earliest organized move for heritage conservation; from the Getty Information Institute, http://www.getty.edu/conservation/resources/charters/charter01.html.

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URBAN PLANNING AND HERITAGE CONSERVATION: SINGAPORE'S EXPERIENCE

GIOK LING OOI

Introduction

CULTURAL heritage has reportedly become a recent focus worldwide for the renewal of cities and regions in both developed and developing countries. Because of this, the public has become conscious about the connection of culture and heritage to the built environment. What is not apparent, at least as reflected in the urban landscape, is the link between heritage, the built environment and the city's identity. "The past is a contested resource," researchers have rightly noted (Ashworth 1997). This is the case in a tiny city-state such as Singapore, which has thrived on the very scarcity of its land and other resources in the process of achieving development goals that are similar to those driving bigger cities in larger countries with infinitely more natural resources.

In cities such as Singapore, where decision-making on urban plans and development is highly centralized, there is as much need to understand the impact of the planned environment on the urban residents as on the urban heritage. This paper presents a study of the urban planning imperatives that have shaped the built environment in Singapore in relation to the promotion of the City-state's image as a modern global center for business. The study will also examine the impact of the processes of urban planning on both the conservation of cultural heritage as well as its reflection on the urban landscape that has dramatically changed over the last thirty years.

Both heritage and the built environment are important to Singapore's identity because the City-state cannot offer many of the attractions that are available in other countries—large tracts of pristine tropical rainforest reserves, beaches and islands in the sun. In recent years, the Singapore Tourism Promotion Board has been giving emphasis on urban heritage conservation to serve tourism purposes for the City-state.

Singapore's Tourist Promotion Board's effort at promoting an image for the City in the international market has been found to be far from coherent (Savage 1991), moving as it did from "Surprising Singapore" to "Convention City," "Shoppers' Paradise," "Instant Asia," "Lion City," "Garden City," and the "Merlion City." The effort reflects the need as well as the search for an identity as a city. "In a world of competing political systems and national interests, national identity is as much a domestic as an international issue. What has increased the development of national identities, the quest for its unique experience, is the lucrative tourist industry" (Savage 1991).

"Conservation strategies in historic cities often rely heavily on induced investments by the private sector, including tourism operators, commercial establishments, property owners, and others. Also, financial sustainability of these efforts from the perspective of local authorities often depends on taxes and levies capturing a portion of the benefits derived by the private sector" (Serageldin 1997). Yet, modern urban landscapes have usually been shown to bear little of the realities of cultures, histories and everyday lives of the people who live in the cities (Knox 1993, Simonsen and Viaou 1996). In many Asian cities, more often than not, urban heritage sites are spatially removed from the everyday life spaces of the residents, hence from their consciousness.

The identity of cities, as this paper proposes, has to be built upon the culture and heritage of the people living in it in a way that goes beyond what is reflected

in the buildings and its artifacts. It should regard the people's "... way of life, not a dead one, that is reinvented daily whether through a refurbished building or re-adaptation of an old skill for modern times...." (Landry 1997). Certainly, in cities with a recent history as Singapore, planners and tourist resort managers have been kept busy with nothing more than inventing a "past" and mythologies for the city. In fact, the city's icon, the Merlion, is one such invention, dating from as recently as the 1960s when Singapore had emerged as an independent city-state.

Urban Heritage Conservation and Urban Planning

The importance of history and heritage as forces in the design and structure of the modern city (Ashworth and Tunbridge 1990, Teo and Huang 1995) has highlighted urban conservation efforts in cities around the world. Yet in Asia, the tendency has been to impose different official renditions of the past for political reasons. In Southeast Asian cities such as Malaysia and Indonesia, there have been what Ashworth and de Haan (1985) considers as the adoption of an appropriate historical image for the city after which the forces of preservation and conservation come, bringing forth a process of "reconstruction of what is thought ought to exist."

Thus, in the post-independence period in Indonesia and then later in Malaysia, there were efforts to establish a new, distinct national image with no reference to or place for colonial or immigrant reminders (Shaw, Jones and Ooi 1997). When the Batavia historic district in Indonesia was restored in the early 1970s, former Dutch buildings were laden with Indonesian articles. In cities such as Semarang, colonial parts remain relatively neglected and appear to play little role in the shaping an identity for the city.

In contrast to the exploitation of the tourist attraction potential of Chinatowns throughout the Asia-Pacific countries from Singapore to San Francisco and Sydney, the acknowledgment of immigrant Chinese heritage has been officially discouraged in Jakarta and ignored in smaller towns such as Taiping in Malaysia. Such omissions have been attributed to the unsettled ethnic relations of these countries with China.

The link between urban built environment and urban heritage conservation is therefore complex. On the one hand, it concerns a process that has been conceived of as "sequential within a transitional framework of increasing community concern and involvement coupled with a gradual evolution of the political will to expedite the conservation process" (Shaw, Jones and Ooi 1997). Then on the other hand, there has been a strong link between the built environment and the City-state's economic development which has usually taken precedence over the link between urban heritage conservation and identity. Consequently, the link between the built environment and urban heritage conservation has evolved in an uneven and sometimes inconsistent fashion because of both time lapses and spatial disjunctures. The result, it appears, is as Michael Dear has suggested, a "pastiche," that is, a mosaic of add-ons reflective of the absence of links between the development of the built environment as development trends are translated into urban spaces to boost the City's image either as a business district or tourist destination for investors and tourists to take interest in.

Indeed, efforts at conservation and recreation of urban heritage, in the face of the rapid pace of urban change and development in Singapore, have been dismissed as wholesale destruction of the historic urban fabric (Powell 1997). In such a context, Powell has argued that the belated development of the community's awareness and the political interest on the tourism potential of commercial developments, have led to the recreation of urban heritage. Hence, while the last Malay village, Kampung Wat Selat, was demolished in May 1993, a "Malay Village" was constructed by the public housing authority, the Housing and Development Board, in a historically ethnic Malay neighborhood, Geylang Serai, in 1989. According to Powell (1997), this idealized recreation of an indigenous Malay kampung has none of the cultural characteristics of a traditional Malay village and is merely a fenced enclosure intended for commercial undertakings to attract tourists. For future

generations (local residents and tourists alike), the re-created village will shape ideas about the past (Powell 1997), making the absolutely unreal a new reality (Eco 1986).

The denunciation of urban heritage through such efforts of re-creating it ignores the fundamental principles underpinning the planning of the City-state. Furthermore, ruins and monuments rarely survive untouched through the centuries, with relics being constantly transformed and updated both directly, by protection, restoration or iconoclasm, and indirectly by replicas, emulations and fakes (Peleggi 1996, Lowenthal 1985). Almost universally, heritage can be and has been manufactured like other commodities (Hewison 1987).

Impact of Urban Plans and a Highly Centralized Urban Planning Process

In the three or so decades since the end of colonial rule, a series of plans have transformed Singapore from colonial entrepot port city to a newly industrializing and modern city. Tourism, like all industries in Singapore, was provided a newly created place within the highly centralized planning framework. This is graphically explained by Mr. Rajaratnam, who in 1986 was the Senior Minister in the Prime Minister's Office. According to him, "Singapore 25 years ago was a real slum; so we decided to renew the city. Through the heady years of new independence and the world-leading economic growth, Singaporeans went about that with a rare will. But some, especially the technocrats, got really enthusiastic about knocking things down. The thinking was everything that's old, just knock it down. Gradually though, some of us realized that it was not urban renewal: It is a kind of distortion" (*Asiaweek* September, 1986 as cited in Powell 1997).

The redevelopment of the central area was aimed at providing land for new commercial developments as well as at freeing the center of the congestion brought about by a concentration of major land uses — residences, small-scale commerce, cottage industries and port activities. A majority of the population was therefore resettled as were the small businesses and cottage industries.

"During this period, Singapore was confronted with two major problems—high unemployment and housing shortage. Any project that did not directly address these problems was given lower priority" (Tan et al. 1985). The construction of modern Singapore accorded some early attention to conservation. In 1972, the Preservation of the Monuments Board was set up to identify buildings for conservation. These were buildings that had contributed to the architectural heritage of Singapore (Lee 1990). While priority was at first accorded religious institutions and buildings associated with early pioneers of Singapore, the list has grown to include hotels, civic buildings and government offices.

The effort at preserving historical buildings, however, essentially involved the building on its own and has given relatively little thought to the neighborhood in which it is located. Hence, the preservation effort gives the impression of being under siege by modern development which surrounds the preserved buildings and monuments.

Urban Planning Ideology and Urban Development in the Building of Modern Singapore

In planning, as in the governance of the city-state, pragmatism has prevailed. According to Teo (1992), post-independence planning sought not only to influence spatial development, but also to achieve economic success so that urban planning was integrated into a wider national policy which saw massive public investment in pursuit of egalitarian goals with the end view of ensuring optimal use of land.

The revised Concept Plan for Singapore, completed in 1991, continues to emphasize the following goals (Cheong-Chua 1995):

- Satisfy all domestic functional needs and improve the quality of environment and life;
- Stay competitive with other leading cities in economic growth;
- Ensure efficient mobility of people and goods to support urban and economic development; and

- Create an enduringly beautiful and unique Asian city, taking full advantage of its geographic, historic, climatic and cultural assets.

In this context, the link between urban heritage conservation and urban planning is and has always been not so much about the integration of the former's needs into the City's physical plans, but the accommodation if and where these fit in the urban planning framework.

To illustrate, ethnic neighborhoods in Singapore have been conserved in the central area (i.e., Chinatown and Little India), whereas the policy in all public housing estates and new towns, in which some nine in ten people in Singapore live, has been to maintain an ethnically integrated residential mix. This policy has been pursued to the extent of imposing ethnic quotas on each block of public housing apartments and every neighborhood to ensure that the mix of ethnic groups is maintained in the process of buying and selling of apartments among the resident population. The resultant spatial order provides little economic basis for the development of ethnic neighborhoods.

Urban plans give the impression that priority has been on the provision for basic needs and the development of the economy. "While the seventies marked the period of clearing congestion within the Central Area and the building of a modern city, in the eighties the concern shifted to shaping the growth and image of the city. More emphasis was placed on the quality of life, including the quality of the built environment. Interest in conservation also grew as the City became more established as a modern financial center and needed to establish an identity, taking advantage of its distinctive architectural heritage" (Cheong-Chua 1995).

Identity for the City, it appears, like quality, was an urban planning goal prioritized next to the basic needs of the urban population. "We can go beyond the basic necessities of life," observed the then Permanent Secretary for National Development, "and devote some money to quality living" (*The Straits Times* 8 July 1988). Notably, Singapore's identity has usually been linked by urban planners to the City's distinctive architectural heritage. "For the historical ethnic districts of Chinatown, Little India and Kampung Glam, plans for the conservation of entire districts, with shop houses of eclectic architectural style, were drawn up by the URA (Urban Redevelopment Authority). Successful projects like those at Emerald Hill (residential development) and Tanjong Pagar (commercial development) eventually led to the relevant legislation being enacted, and the URA being designated as the National Conservation Authority" (Cheong-Chua 1995).

Such designation of the URA, along with the drawing up of an Island Conservation Plan in 1989, represented a departure from the past planning structure where there had actually been no authority, apart from the Preservation of Monuments Board, delegated for conservation (Ooi 1994). It can therefore be seen that the bid to fuse the old to the new and the allotment of space for heritage in the midst of the construction of a modern city-state, which was actualized by projects as above-stated, preceded the official program introduced in the 1980s.

However, local critics of the conservation effort such as Architect Powell (1997) and geographers Teo and Huang (1995) are of the view that conservation should involve more than just Singapore's architectural heritage. Powell (1997) argues that "(i)n terms of the elements which need to be conserved, the URA would be advised to look beyond architectural restoration and the production of a sanitized environment back into the issue of restoring marginal users, who can generate an atmosphere of lively activity by attracting a local population seeking out familiar goods and services." This basically argues for the provision of space for what is authentic, local, populist and spontaneous.

In reality, however, such space has never been provided. If ever such interstitial space have been appropriated marginal users in the past, it had been made despite the will of authorities and only in reaction to needs already requiring attention and never in anticipation of these. An example would be the space that has been provided for the itinerant hawkers and such street traders in residential estates and even in some inner city locations. The Housing and Development Board (HDB), Singapore's public housing authority, explained that the group of unauthorized hawkers which emerged around the housing estates which were being developed in the 1960s were viewed as threats to business by the shopkeepers and food market stall-

holders in the area (Tan 1975). As a solution, the authorities decided to construct hawker centers and fresh food markets and, in the process, preserved a way of life for Singaporeans involving the traditional habits of eating out in the open.

In asserting that major conservation projects such as the Raffles Hotel had failed, geographers Teo and Huang (1995) argue that the restored building is perceived as a "..place (that) does not seem to belong to the average class Singaporeans," that is, a place that local Singapore residents do not find affordable nor accessible. It is romanticizing the real past, making people believe that the hotel has not always been exclusive, whereas it had been known abroad as the type that accommodated the likes of author Somerset Maugham. In colonial Singapore, few local Asians would have been frequent patrons of the Raffles Hotel.

Urban planning and development in Singapore has emphasized the building of a modern city for business and industry without substantive regard to the past and to the importance of urban built heritage in the development of the City's identity.

In contrast to the mixed residential, industrial and commercial land uses that had characterized the Central Area in the 1960s, later planning activities concentrated on the development of a commercial center. With 18 percent of the total land area being considered the main island, this central area accounted for 56 percent of all hotel floor spaces developed, 45 percent of shopping space, and 37 percent of restaurant floor area by the early 1980s (Wong and Ooi 1989).

Urban Conservation and Urban Identity

A simple model has been proposed by Shaw, Jones and Ooi (1997) to portray the fundamental forces of change seen in the historic Southeast City where urban conservation appears to have been spurred on more by tourism than by the process of shaping an urban identity.

In the model, the first stage is the decayed port city where retail and commercial activities from the harbor area have relocated and community identity (in the historic port and parts of the city) has yet to emerge because of a preoccupation with concerns about future development prospects. The second stage is identified as the restored port city in which tourism promotion has hastened the process of change, with emphasis shifting to restoration and refurbishment of the harbor-side and its peripheries. A final stage is the "Pastiche" Port City with a built environment where urban heritage has been recreated without historical accuracy.

In Singapore, the identification of the link between urban conservation and tourism has been attributed to the downturn in the number of tourist arrivals in the early 1980s. More explicitly, the Tourism Task Force in the Ministry of Trade and Industry argued that in the effort "... to build up a modern metropolis, we have removed aspects of our Oriental mystique and charm which are best symbolized in old buildings, traditional activities and bustling roadside activities...." (Ministry of Trade and Industry 1984). The urban conservation effort then gained rationale because of the value of heritage sites for tourism.

The later emphasis on urban conservation implies that this effort will be planned and developed at a micro-spatial scale since much of the macro land-use development has already been in place since the 1980s. Since the link between urban planning and urban heritage conservation has been identified as the interest in promoting urban heritage tourism, then what naturally followed had been essentially a micro spatial process aimed at the development of urban space with tourist appeal and the projection of Singapore's new image—a "modern city with a remarkable past" (Pannell Kerr Foster 1986).

However, Singapore's former Chief Planner has highlighted the lack of such heritage in the City. According to him, "Singapore cannot claim the rich heritage of the historic cities nor the glamour of modern metropolises. However, it can attempt to become an excellent city of the 21st century in a relatively short period of time. Singapore should maintain its high environmental quality. It is a city which is able to promote a gracious lifestyle. In addition, it has its unique though modest historical heritage. There is a rich endowment of natural flora and fauna. Singapore has colorful multi-ethnic culture. It is one of the first cities in the tropics to attempt to achieve a modern architecture which is both Asian and tropical" (Liu 1997).

Such views of state planners have largely prevailed in defining the image and identity of the City. Clearly, there has been no shortage of critics for the highly centralized planning process and the effort to develop the city to meet the people's day-to-day needs as well as its transformation into a modern international business and service center. The viewpoint was that Singapore has become too modern, with little appeal to tourists (World Tourism Organization, 1990). Yet the private sector has been significant in heritage development projects particularly in the central area. Indeed the government-private sector partnership has been identified as one of the key success factors in the planning system (Cheong-Chua 1995).

With the introduction of the Land Acquisition Act of 1966 that empowered the State to acquire privately-owned land on a compulsory basis for public development, the State has become the major landowner in Singapore. Agencies such as the URA uses land sales programs to release land to developers. In the 1960s and 1970s, these land sales programs focused on redeveloping the central business district into a modern financial center with many land parcels released for office and banking centers along the Shenton Way financial corridor (Chua 1989). At the same time, hotel sites were also sold to provide the necessary infrastructure for tourism projects and hotel belts were located near the Singapore River and Orchard Road. A package of financial incentives was also offered to encourage investors and developers to participate in projects in the land sales programs (Yuen 1992).

According to the URA, the land sales program has helped direct urban development towards areas slated for growth (Cheong- Chua 1995). Hence, the sales program has facilitated the development of the modern financial center and tourism. Sale of Sites programs have also promoted conservation projects such as Raffles Hotel and the Clarke Quay Riverside Conservation Project, the latter being the largest successfully completed project, covering an area of 2.1 hectares.

The state-private sector partnership has been such that the former exercises a regulatory role over the latter which, as the developer, is expected to comply in turn.

"Clear and comprehensive planning and urban design guidelines incorporated into the sales conditions of tender ensure that quality buildings of an appropriate form and scale are built to contribute to a beautiful urbanscape. Buildings along Shenton Way were required to have a low podium of four storeys to provide visual uniformity and human scale. The buildings were constructed with continuous covered walkways and overhead pedestrian bridges for convenient and safe pedestrian access. Where necessary, extensive landscaping and the provision of plaza spaces would be required of developers to improve the general environment of the sale sites. The projects developed as a result of the Sale of Sites program have contributed to the improvement of the built environment around us" (Cheong-Chua 1995).

For urban heritage conservation, the URA had initiated the upgrading of some 32 commercial buildings in order to provide the standards to be followed by the private sector developers. Standards set in this demonstration project were reinforced by URA's specifications on permissible trades. As such, the government-private sector relationship is viewed to be an unequal partnership. Planning is controlled by URA at three levels—the Concept Plan, Development Guide Plan (DGP) and Development Control. If the key factors to success have been identified as this three-tiered planning system, the close coordination among government agencies in the planning process and the government-private sector partnership, then it appears that there is a need to address the latter factor more seriously so that it reflects a real partnership rather than the unequal one which exists.

There was an initial attempt by URA in 1995 to involve the private sector firms more in the planning process via the drawing up of Development Guide Plans (DGPs) for each urban neighborhood in Singapore. Specifically, private sector architects and planners were invited to prepare some DGPs and then later on were asked to submit again to compete with those from URA. A joint preparation process resulted, but was ultimately halted for the reason that the private sector was viewed to be lacking the know-how to be able to effectively contribute to the efficiency of the planning process.

Around the same time, DGPs started to be exhibited in public places to invite feedback. This was

supplemented with dialogue sessions, chaired by the Minister of National Development, during which views were sought from invited professional organizations, developers, businessmen, interest groups, community leaders and other members of the public. However, there was little understanding of how the information/ response gathered shall be incorporated into the DGPs. A significant component missing is the consideration of or planning for an integrating mechanism for the solicited public opinion, which should have been had as early as the preparatory process for the DGPs.

Integrating Urban Heritage Conservation in the Planning of Singapore

Urban heritage conservation, with its potential impact on tourism and the planning of the built environment, can be more effectively linked and better integrated in the overall planning process if such a process could involve the private sector and the public far more seriously than has happened in the past. What exists in urban heritage conservation is essentially a rather unequal partnership between the private and public sector, with the latter having an upper hand at setting the requirements which the former is bound to follow.

The result, as discussed above, is pastiche—a modern city where urban heritage is being conserved as a token for its tourism potential. Urban heritage conservation can be merely a process which represents either the creation of museums out of the cultural heritage of Singaporeans or the creation of tourist attractions with little relevance to the everyday lives and concerns of the people living in Singapore. On the other hand, urban heritage conservation can be an effort to link past heritage to modern developments in ways meaningful to the people living in Singapore, while at the same time appeal to international business travelers or tourists.

Based on nationwide surveys, the preservation of Singapore's old buildings is among the top three most important standards of nationalism, together with knowledge of Singapore's history and of the national anthem (Ooi 1994). The preservation effort is rated more highly by the tertiary-educated, higher income and younger Singaporeans. The challenge for the urban heritage conservation authority is to make the urban conservation effort meaningful not only to visitors but also to the City's resident population.

There is a need to link the planning of the built environment to urban heritage conservation effort. What Powell (1997) criticized as the sanitized appearance of conservation sites can be probably attributed to the low density of land-use as well as the monotony of types of trades in these areas that are in stark contrast to the features of commercial areas in the past—vitality of street activities, five-foot way trades and mixed land use.

If private sector developers are being eyed to help in the conservation and adaptive reuse of old buildings that are slated for restoration because their involvement is deemed to be what ".. would ensure commercial viability and promote local entrepreneurship" (Lau 1993), then attention must be paid to encourage such private sector involvement. According to Powell (1997), a lot more can be done to ensure that during the stages of "Planning Analysis" and "Visions and Objectives" of the DGP process every socially significant concern should be looked into because "(i)f something is missed in the Analysis stage or if it is excluded from the Vision to reflect the values of the dominant elite then all the issues are not highlighted and subsequently debated".

Private sector involvement in fashioning the DGPs was found by the bureaucracy to be a "clumsy" process (Chua 1996). Such involvement has ceased altogether since 1994 and now all DGPs are produced by the URA alone. What essentially is missing is the effort to develop a process which conveniently involves the inputs of both sectors in producing DGPs that are socially significant.

There is a need to recognize that neither the "market" nor the state alone can suffice as the missing link in defining the cultural and social significance of the city and its heritage. The modern city of Singapore, as it has been planned and built, reflects the neglect in the development of social processes through which all sectors—state, market and the society—should have been involved in shaping the built environment, hence, the City. There is a need now for society to reclaim its role in defining the city and providing it with "... contrast, variety and a sense of time and place" (Koh-Lim 1986).

Summary

Planning of the built environment in Singapore has emphasized, right from the beginning, the modernization of the City with a bid to transform the face of its economy from regional entrepot trade-dependence into one teeming with high-valued industries and financial services. Successes in planning have been achieved in the housing of the majority of the population; the provision of facilities and services that meet day-to-day needs, including modern transport; and the creation of space for the accommodation of commerce and industry. In a sense, the City has been planned and built for the Singapore people and economy. But should evidence show that the economy has been given greater attention over the people, the time is considered appropriate for reviewing the building of the City with an eye for correcting such imbalance.

In considering how cultural heritage tourism or urban heritage tourism can be defined, definitions have varied widely but generally these have incorporated concerns such as ".. visits by persons from outside the host community motivated wholly or in part by interest in the historical, artistic, scientific or lifestyle/ heritage offerings of a community, region, group or institution" (Silberberg 1995). Importance has therefore been given to sites lived in and lives lived as these are what interest tourists in Singapore.

The planning of Singapore for its economic development and to meet people's basic needs has been a process that has progressed with little effective link to its development as a tourist destination. Such segregation of the processes of planning for a modern industrial and financial center and for tourism has resulted in what can best be described as "pastiche"—integration of restored old heritage sites into the modern development. At the same, there has also been effort by the state planning authorities to involve the public and the private sector in the planning process through soliciting their comments about DGPs. But the effort appears to have been too little and quite belated to be still productive.

Heritage restoration means something far more comprehensive than what has been achieved so far in Singapore. To realize its appropriate meaning, heritage conservation should be made to involve a process within the context of urban planning that engages all sectors—state planning authorities, residents and the private sector. There has to be more recognition by the state of the need for urban conservation to be integrated in the planning process that touches on the day-to-day and wider needs of people in the City. Such integration can only proceed if the uses of restored urban space are determined together with private sector and the public. Only with such participative atmosphere can the society in Singapore begin to reclaim heritage conservation as the conservation of their culture and history.

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THE CONFERENCE SYNTHESIS

ZENAIDA A. MANALO

MY summary of the discussions covered during the one and a half days' conference was based on the conference objectives of: a) highlighting the major issues encountered by stakeholders when they undertake urban revitalization; and b) identifying vital lessons learned from the experiences of various countries. The issues and lessons learned on heritage conservation were presented separately since the topic has distinct characteristics and concerns.

1. The ***stakeholders***—whose suggestions as well as objections should be heeded until consensus on how to approach urban revitalization is reached and commitments for its pursuit are secured—that include the following:
   a. national and local governments;
   b. community;
   c. private business (i.e., landowners and developers);
   d. non-governmental organizations;
   e. funding agencies;
   f. academe; and
   g. planners (i.e., architect, urban planner, sociologist, community development specialist, economist and any other professional involved in the participatory process whose needs and concerns have to be articulated).
2. The ***factors that lead to a decision to plan for urban revitalization*** are as follows:
   a. Need or desire for improvement in the quality of life (e.g., cleaner and greener environment; more diverse, compact, walkable and efficient cities) of those who are residing, working, studying and doing other activities in the inner cities;
   b. Slum upgrading;
   c. Better urban services; and
   d. Improvement of the physical environment (especially transport, utilities, and telecommunications).
3. The ***impacts*** of urban revitalization efforts, including:
   a. Inner cities becoming attractive to investors, which leads to higher employment and income, and generally to higher economic prosperity in the cities, as well as ensuring a diversified economic base which includes not only residential and commercial but even tourism and other specialized services; and
   b. Higher tax collections of LGUs from the property value appreciation, giving gains to both national and local governments;
   c. Attainment of heritage conservation and heightened sense of identity and pride of place.
4. The major issues that surfaced from the different papers as well as the comments during the open forum were as follows:
   a. Urban revitalization can be expensive and commonly there is lack of funds to cover redevelopment cost primarily due to low level of local resources. The challenge here is to be able to come up with more affordable urban revitalization strategies.

b. There is still inadequate or lack of incentives given by the government particularly for the community and the private sector to participate.
c. The high incidence of poverty in the inner cities can only be addressed by urban revitalization through the deployment of massive resources; e.g., for housing and for the improvement of infrastructure and utilities in the inner city.
d. There is weakness in the institutional structure of local governments at present to effectively handle urban revitalization. They lack the capacity to implement such a project. The institutions involved also have conflicting or over lapping functions and lack cross sectoral coordination in implementing these kinds of projects.
e. The use of the top down approach with such projects with only token participation from the affected communities and the suggestions from those who are most affected, like those from the grassroots, do not really reach the decision maker.
f. There tends to be a bias towards the physical infrastructure and, in some cases, there are no up to date or no land use plans that are currently in place to guide the investors who want to participate in urban revitalization.
g. In terms of technology, there is still lack of appropriate environmental and social impact assessment.
h. Resistance of the community to cooperate.

5. Lessons learned from countries, both those with long experience in revitalization (e.g., Japan) and those which are new to the endeavor (e.g., Indonesia and Philippines), were noted as follows:

a. Urban revitalization requires good urban governance, which can be demonstrated by transparency in urban policies as well as in the decision making process.
b. The political will of the local government official to undertake urban revitalization is demonstrated by his/her judicious enforcement of laws, such as those of solid waste management or pollution. The provision of the budgetary support and commitment is also necessary, otherwise urban revitalization will be just lip service.
c. There should be shared vision, achievable goals, and doable projects. In the light of the massive effort required and the limited resources, there must be a shared vision of all the stakeholders, and a consensus on the projects that are achievable and doable within a given time frame.
d. The participation of the community is vital to successful urban revitalization and to ensure ownership of the project. For example, in the experience of Marikina, communities cooperate as long as they see that what is being done or undertaken will improve their living conditions. Planners can have beautifully packaged reports with creative strategies, but without the proper consultation, these will be just a reading material in a library or inside the drawer of the bureaucrats.
e. Multi-stakeholder partnership is essential. Public-private partnership, particularly in the provision of socialized and economic housing and the provision of other urban services are now being outsourced. There is also now corporate citizenship where private sectors have come in, like San Miguel or Coca Cola building school houses, or Global City giving a day care center. These opportunities are out there, it is just a matter of having government spearhead the proper public-private partnership.
f. Urban revitalization requires good planning. Good planning means a holistic approach that integrates the physical, economic, social, and the environmental concerns. A prerequisite to this is that cities desiring to do revitalization should at least have an updated and approved comprehensive land use plans. Whatever should be done must be within the framework of the approved CLUPs.
g. There is need to consider the project duration vis-a-vis the limits in the terms of office of the local government officials. Projects may end up not being implemented because of a change

in the leadership of the local government unit.

h. There is need for action-oriented projects because local officials want to see things happen rather than just the document or policy. Although policy is equally important, the call of the local officials is to have more action oriented projects.

i. On the part of the stakeholders, a strong advocacy is needed from within and outside the local government if the project is pushed through. If no one advocates for the project from both inside and outside the local government structure, the idea will just die and the project will never see the light of day.

j. There should be efficient and accessible mass transit system to improve the accessibility of the inner cities. Mass transit is an essential element to urban revitalization because it has to do with movements of people into the city centers where jobs may be available.

k. There is a need to balance production and consumption functions within the city so that the environment does not deteriorate in the pursuit of economic gains.

6. Discussions on heritage conservation involved:

a. The issues:

i. Absence of laws governing historic conservation and preservation at the national and local levels.

ii. Lack of government incentives such as tax holidays, tax credits, access to low interest loans to finance maintenance and restoration work. Most of the time, an ancestral home which could qualify as a heritage site but where the owner has no money to maintain it, is usually sold in the market and ends up being torn down.

iii. Inadequate resources of LGUs to support efforts in heritage conservation.

iv. Lack of qualified experts from the public sector who can assist initiatives for heritage conservation.

v. Limited technical resources for historic restoration, conservation and preservation. Historic projects are commonly privately-owned. Planners and local government units would have very little influence because there is no proper incentives to maintain it as such. Families, particularly those whose parents have died and subject to inheritance would opt really to dispose of these properties. There is probably a need to look at historic trust formation to be able to preserve this.

vi. No national registry system to classify and list properties for historic conservation. Once the property becomes the subject of restoration, usually it lands in a national registry. The other countries may already have this.

vii. Social issues attendant to heritage conservation that are not attended to.

viii. The society finds it difficult to identify with heritage conservation, considering the historic prerogatives of the state. There is still that need to put it into the consciousness of every one that there is a need to preserve history.

ix. Problem of national identity in the built environment.

b. The lessons learned:

i. The State should assume a major control in heritage conservation.

ii. Need to develop and strengthen public-private partnership because the government cannot do it alone. Need to actively promote public awareness and support for preservation activities. Need to include education and public information programs in the tourism strategy.

iii. Living activities in the traditional settings should be activated and encouraged, as in the case of the Vigan heritage site. These are done abroad in old preserved communities where there are people wearing costumes of old times, showing tourists what they used to do in terms of how they lived, how they cooked, or how they entertained themselves, etc.

iv. Conservation projects should be commercially viable and attractive through the tourism strategy so that there will be funds to sustain it.

ABOUT THE CONTRIBUTORS

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Since 1999, Peter Droege has been the director of an international research development initiative of the International Energy Agency working on the systematic introduction of renewable energy technology in cities. He has taught courses in planning programs at the School of Architecture and Planning of Massachusetts Institute Technology (MIT) and University of Sydney. Droege is also a sought-after advisor on major urban development projects and speaker on urban sustainability and future trends in city development

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Andre Herzog is a professional staff member of the Institute for Housing and Urban Development Studies (IHS) in the Netherlands. He works as an urban development planner and architect with over 10 years of international experience in institutional strengthening, capacity building and policy changes in the housing field for national and local governments, the private sector, non-governmental, bilateral and multilateral organizations. He has coordinated and carried out advisory services, training and applied researches in various countries, building his reputation as an expert in housing management, informal settlement regularization, integrated urban rehabilitation, cultural conservation, participatory and strategic urban planning.

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Zenaida Manalo has been a consultant of Asian Development Bank (ADB). Most recent of her works were the *Metro Manila Urban Services for the Poor Project*

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ABOUT THE CONFERENCE ORGANIZERS

U.P. School of Urban and Regional Planning

THE School of Urban and Regional Planning (SURP), originally called the Institute of Planning, was established on 19 June 1965 by legislative fiat. RA 4341 declared the policy of strengthening and assisting government agencies and private organizations in the formulation of comprehensive plans and in the solution of development problems. For this purpose, the same law authorized the U.P. to establish the then Institute of Planning.

Over a long period of time, the School enjoyed a monopoly of graduate education and research in Urban and Regional Planning. Its programs were developed and, whenever necessary, revised to be able to respond to challenges in the environment. It has matured and gained not only national but international recognition and credibility.

Given the School's principal mandate and the University's strong tradition of academic excellence, the vision for the School has remained the same for the past many years: *the School must maintain its position as the premier institution for graduate education and research in urban and regional planning in the country. It must also gain increased recognition as a premier institution for planning education in Asia.*

The School was established primarily *to make available a pool of capable professional urban and regional planners.* In addition, the School is also mandated to:

- Provide assistance in the improvement of human settlements and the environment through coordinated and comprehensive development studies and plans;
- Strengthen and assist government agencies and private organizations in studying and solving problems of planning and development; and
- Facilitate the implementation of development proposals at the national, regional and local levels.

The School's four-fold functions of graduate education, training, research and extension have always revolved around these mandates.

The SURP offers Diploma, Master of Arts (M.A.) and Doctor of Philosophy (Ph.D.) programs in urban and regional planning as well as Diploma and M.A. programs in transportation planning. In addition, the Master of Science in Regional Development Planning is also offered by the School, as a joint program with the University of Dortmund in Germany. The program is for two years, with the first year spent at the University of Dortmund, and the succeeding year at the UP SURP.

Through its Training Unit, the School conducts capability-building programs for all levels of government. Specifically, these include: conceptualization and implementation of national, regional, and provincial physical framework planning processes; provision of assistance to numerous cities and municipalities in the preparation of their comprehensive land use plans and zoning ordinances, with special focus on localizing the application of Philippine Agenda 21; and development of a methodological framework for the local development investment programming process.

The Research and Publications Division of the SURP participates in the conduct of research projects. It is also in charge of the publication of the Philippine Planning Journal (PPJ). The PPJ showcases articles on urban, regional, environmental, transport and land use planning in the Philippine context. And, to guide professional practitioners, researchers, scholars and students in the field of planning, the Division also prepares the Annotated Bibliography of Philippine Planning.

Philippine Institute of Environmental Planners

THE Philippine Institute of Environmental Planners (PIEP) was organized in 16 October 1969 as an offshoot of Republic Act 4341 which provided for the establishment of the SURP (originally Philippine Institute of Environmental Planning) as an academic unit of the University of the Philippines. With the increasing number of graduates of the School, PIEP became an answer to the need for a national association of professionally trained planners that will advance the study of environmental planning in the best interest of the nation, as well as promote the professional status of environmental planners.

Most notable among its pursuit of such thrust is its long and arduous crusade for the constitution of the Board of Environmental Planners (BEP) that was essential to the implementation of PD 1308, the "Law Regulating the Practice of the Profession of Environmental Planning in the Philippines," and the realization of its purposes. Through the constitution of the BEP in 25 May 1993 by then President Fidel V. Ramos, the PIEP-campaigned need for the formulation of rules and regulations to govern the practice of planning and the licensing and registration of existing planning professionals were recognized.

With membership of 512 to date headed by its current President, Commissioner Francisco Dagñalan of the Housing and Land Use Regulatory Board, the PIEP assumes as its mission the development of the Philippine regions, cities and municipalities for the benefit of the country's dynamic communities through a unified and collective effort ensuring comprehensively planned settlements. Specifically, the association's objectives are as follows:

- To promote the comprehensive physical, economic, sociocultural, aesthetic and environment-friendly development of the different regions, cities and municipalities of the Philippines and to encourage rural-urban interdependence in the best interests of the nation;
- To advance at all levels the study and practice of national, regional and urban planning, encompassed in the term, "Environmental Planning", and the related arts and sciences;
- To raise the professional status of environmental planners, and to protect and advance the interests of the profession and of those engaged therein; and
- To promote professional relationships and understanding between its members and the members of other related professions.

PIEP's current undertakings include the following:

- Contribution in the field of research by conducting policy research, strategy formulation, socioeconomic studies, impact analysis, evaluative research, and writing fellowships through its College of Fellows;
- Continuing professional education through conduct of seminars, workshops, cónferences, and refresher courses in planning;
- Advancement of the professional practice by holding fora, symposia, roundtable discussions, and planning consultations/assistance;
- Information dissemination through publication and maintenance of databases, directories and a newsletter; and
- Advocacy and networking for the establishment of internal and external linkages.

PSSC NEWS BULLETIN

PSSC holds the Fifth National Social Science Congress

The Philippine Social Science Council (PSSC) successfully held the Fifth National Social Science Congress (NSSC V) last 15–17 May 2003 at the PSSCenter, Commonwealth Avenue, Diliman, Quezon City. Over 80 papers were presented in 22 workshop sessions along the NSSC V theme "What's with the Filipino Youth: Perspectives from the Social Sciences." Three forum sessions were also held featuring the narratives of student leaders in the 70s, today's emerging youth leaders and youngest mayors. Dr. Reynaldo Vea, President of the Mapua Institute of Technology and former Dean of the UP College of Engineering, delivered the keynote speech at the Congress' Opening Plenary.

The NSSC V was held with support from the Embassy of Finland, Consuelo Foundation, UNESCO National Commission of the Philippines, Trade Union Congress of the Philippines, SMART Communications, Nestle Philippines, San Miguel Corporation, Amalgamated Specialties, Corp., and McDonald's Philippines. Close to four hundred delegates from all over the country participated in the event.

PSSC publishes materials on the Filipino youth

PSSC recently released three youth publications as part of its background materials for NSSC V: *A Guide to Studies on the Filipino Youth: 1960–2003, The Filipino Youth: Some Findings from Research, and The Filipino Youth: A Statistical Profile.* Scholars, researchers, youth program advocates, and policy makers will find the materials valuable resource guide on Filipino youth studies.

Ford Foundation-International Fellowships Program to start second round

PSSC is set to start the second round of the Ford Foundation-International Fellowships Program (IFP) in October 2003. IFP is a global fellowship program that provides opportunities for marginalized but exceptional individuals to pursue graduate education. For the second round, PSSC is focusing on the recruitment of qualified individuals from the 4th and 5th class cities, and 4th, 5th, and 6th class municipalities. To expand the reach of the program, IFP-Philippines added two regional offices and three sub-offices in its roster. The two new regional offices are the College of Arts and Sciences, Silliman University in Dumaguete City and the Andres Bonifacio College in Dipolog City. The three sub-offices are the College of Arts and Sciences, Central Luzon State University in Muñoz, Nueva Ecija; Peter Gowing Memorial Research Center and the Mindanao State University both in Marawi City. The IFP-Philippines regional and sub-regional offices will take the lead in promoting the program to the farthest barangays, and in distributing and collecting IFP applications.

IFP-Philippines produces first set of graduates

IFP-Philippines produced its first set of graduates with the recent graduation from the Asian Institute of Management of three IFP fellows with a Master's degree

in Development Management. The three—Yasmin Arquiza, Noel Cunanan, and Carlos Gadapan—belong to the first batch of Filipino recipients of the IFP fellowship, and will join the ranks of IFP alumnae from other countries. The 31 other fellows from the first batch have been placed and are currently enrolled in various universities and colleges in the Philippines, the US and Europe.

Asian IFP fellows pursue graduate studies in the Philippines

Three Asian IFP fellows are now in the country pursuing their graduate degrees in Philippine universities. These are Ms. Nguyen Thi Anh Nguyet of Viet Nam (MA Children, Youth and Family Counseling, De La Salle University); Ms. Li Lianfang of the People's Republic of China (MA Forestry, University of the Philippines-Los Baños); and Mr. Vo Xuan Hoa of Viet Nam (MA Social Work, Asian Social Institute). More Asian fellows are expected to arrive in the country as IFP-Philippines continues to promote Philippine academic institutions as placement sites for graduate education and for pre-academic training.

PSSC sets up an IFP Regional Resource Center in Asia

In collaboration with its IFP counterparts in Thailand (Asian Scholarships Foundation) and Viet Nam (Center for Educational Exchange with Viet Nam), PSSC established an International Fellowships Program (IFP) Regional Resource Center in Asia. The Center aims to facilitate the development and coordination of appropriate pre-academic training programs for IFP fellows-elect in the region, as well as the placement of fellows-elect and monitoring of fellows in various universities in the country. As a physical facility, the Center aims to provide a working space for fellows and house academic materials and resources including a database on the best graduate programs being offered by universities around the globe.

ASIA Fellows Awards to begin the next round in September 2003

PSSC, in partnership with the Asian Scholarship Foundation (ASF) is set to begin recruitment for the 2004–2005 round of the program in September 2003. Successful applicants will have a chance to conduct research for a period of six to nine months in any field of Asian Studies (arts, culture, humanities, social sciences) in any of the following participating countries: Bangladesh, Bhutan, Brunei, Cambodia, the People's Republic of China, India, Indonesia, Laos, Malaysia, Republic of Maldives, Myanmar, Nepal, Pakistan, Philippines, Sri Lanka, Thailand, and Viet Nam. For more information about the program, please visit ASF's website at www.asianscholarship.org.

Research Award Program

This year, nine individuals were awarded research grants under the Research Award Program (RAP). These include Aries A. Arugay, MA Political Science, U.P. Diliman; Zachelle Marie M. Briones, MA Psychology, Ateneo de Manila University; Sandra C. Ebrada, MA Psychology, Ateneo de Manila University; Nella Brenda P. Espinueva, MA Psychology, Ateneo de Manila University; Roberto S. Rublico, MA History, University of San Carlos; Anunciacion M. Brotonel, Ph.D. Applied Linguistics, Philippine Normal University; Grace T. Cruz, Ph.D. Sociology, U.P. Diliman; Ronaldo A. Motilla, Ph.D. Psychology, Ateneo de Manila University; Glen L. Sia Su, Ph.D. Environmental Science, U.P. Los Baños.

RAP is a regular PSSC program which grants partial financial assistance to graduate students doing their thesis or dissertation. Application guidelines and forms may be requested from PSSC at (632) 929-2671 or thru email at programs@pssc.org.ph.

PSSC hosts visiting researchers

PSSC hosted two visiting research fellows doing their research on the Philippines. One is an ASIA Fellows Awards grantee, Mr. Mohammed Golam Robbani of Bangladesh, who stayed in the country from February to April 2003 to continue his study on the export of ready-made garments in Asia. The other is Mr. Neil Ruiz, a Ph.D. student at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, who arrived last June to do research on Filipino migration.

PSSC Website

Scholars, researchers and institutions interested in the programs, projects and services being offered by the Philippine Social Science Council may now visit the PSSC website at www.pssc.org.ph for information. Links to PSSC member-organizations are also available on the website.

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